25 Years of Service to African Development and Integration

UNITED NATIONS

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PREFACE

by

THE SECRETARY-GENERAL
of the United Nations

On more than one occasion recently, I have drawn the attention of the world community to the severe difficulties affecting the global economy and the political consequences of letting current trends continue. I am deeply convinced that multilateral co-operation has a key role to play in solving these problems.

The evidence of multilateral economic co-operation at regional and subregional levels in Africa is encouraging. The Lagos Plan of Action and the Final Act of Lagos indicate the determination of African States to foster national and collective self-reliance. I mention both, for self-reliance must advance at both levels if it is to be meaningful.

I am particularly happy that the Economic Commission for Africa has helped decisively in creating this orientation. In identifying the issues involved, recommending policies, bringing governments together and implementing projects, the Commission has demonstrated the degree of enthusiasm and the willingness to innovate which are most needed in Africa. The Industrial Development Decade and the Decade for Transport and Communications are two recent examples of such valuable policy initiatives.

Africa's economic problems are immense, particularly at the present moment when the impact of the international recession is taking a heavy toll on African economies. I am fully aware, in particular, of the unprecedentedly low prices of primary commodity exports of African countries. Efforts must therefore be redoubled to put into effect arrangements, including the Common Fund, to stabilize and strengthen commodity prices. Africa also has severe balance-of-payments and debt problems. These call for a considerable increase in official aid, particularly through the multilateral institutions, while financial co-operation among African countries themselves should not be overlooked. I am also particularly concerned by the continuing deterioration in the food situation in Africa. Considering the vast agricultural potential of the continent, the increasing dependence on imports of food should certainly not be allowed to continue. A greater degree of national food sufficiency in African countries should therefore be among the priorities in your future work. Once again regional and subregional co-operation should be fully encouraged in meeting Africa's food needs.

The urgent challenges before your continent are receiving a great deal of attention in ECA and I am hopeful that, with the Commission's help, Africa will find its own solutions to them. In that endeavour I assure you of my fullest support. I wish you a Happy Anniversary and continued success in the years to come.

J. Perez de Cuellar

I. FOREWORDS

BY HEADS OF STATE AND GOVERNMENT

- **SOCIALIST ETHIOPIA**
- **REPUBLIC OF GHANA**
- **REPUBLIC OF KENYA**
- **THE KINGDOM OF MOROCCO**
- **FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF NIGERIA**
- **REPUBLIC OF SIERRA LEONE**
- **TUNISIA**
- **REPUBLIC OF ZAIRE**

by

MENGISTU HAILE-MARIAM,

Chairman of the Provisional Military Administrative Council and of the Commission for Organizing the Party of the Working People of Ethiopia, Commander-in-Chief of the Revolutionary Army of Socialist Ethiopia

It gives me great pleasure to contribute to this special publication which is dedicated to the Silver Jubilee Anniversary of the Economic Commission for Africa.

The continent of Africa, stretching over a huge geographical area and endowed with varied natural resources, had always been a continent of particular attraction for colonial Powers.

The exploitation of the human resources of the continent had in fact begun around the late 15th century when the slave trade was a profitable commercial activity.

The industrially advanced and prosperous countries of today have achieved their level of prosperity over the centuries through the exploitation and plunder of the rich human and natural resources of our continent. It will be recalled that, in order to have effective control over the resources of Africa, the imperialist Powers decided, in 1890, to colonize the continent and to share its resources among themselves. This process known as the "Scramble for Africa" was launched in the late 19th century by the European Powers and the continent of Africa was thus subjected to an unprecedented exploitation of its human and natural resources, degradation of the dignity of the peoples of Africa, violation of their elementary human rights and barbaric acts of massacre of the peoples of Africa under the yoke of colonialism.

Every African knows that it has taken about a century of determined struggle for our continent to begin to rid itself of colonialism. This long and bitter struggle that was waged by the peoples of Africa has entailed enormous sacrifices in terms of African blood.

As it was through armed struggle that our continent has won freedom and independence, it is only through armed struggle that the continent will be completely free and continue to defend its hard-won independence.

We of the developing world know through bitter experience that political independence, unless sustained and complemented by economic independence, is clearly precarious and can be easily threatened by a new and subtle form of colonialism - popularly known as neo-colonialism.

The establishment of international organizations such as the Economic Commission for Africa has in a way accentuated the struggle against neo-colonialism and imperialism.

Inspite of the protracted debates that have been taking place over the last three and a half decades between the developing and the developed countries, it is regrettable that no genuine solution of global economic problems has been achieved. As a result of the inflexible economic policies of the developed countries, the world economy is today full of contradictions. Taking advantage of their level of industrialization, the developed countries continue to relegate the countries of Africa to a secondary position by denying them the extension of assistance to process their raw materials at home. The industrialized capitalist countries pursue a policy of keeping the African countries as suppliers of cheap raw materials to their industries. The prices of raw materials, as well as manufactured products, are determined by the developed countries themselves with no say whatsoever by raw material producers.

The question of the determination of prices has been on the agenda of the international community and arduous negotiations have been going on over the last 35 years in the United Nations to bring about an equitable solution to the problem. However, the plight of the developing countries in general and the African countries in particular has so far gone unheeded.

Equally, the volume of development assistance has been declining in recent years and the terms and conditions for development credit have been rendered more stiff. As a result, African countries find themselves unable even to meet their debt obligations.

In fact, the economic problems of the developing countries in general and of African countries in particular have worsened due to the economic policies pursued by the capitalist countries.

Africa has to continue its struggle with renewed vigour and energy to establish an equitable, just, and durable international economic order while, at the same time, taking appropriate domestic economic measures to mitigate the adverse effects of the policies of the capitalist countries.

The establishment of ECA was brought about by a relentless struggle waged by Africa over a period of ten years (1947-1958) in the United Nations, which had already established similar regional economic commissions for Europe, Latin America and Asia.

Only a handful of independent African States, including Ethiopia, were privileged in the pioneering task to spearhead the struggle for the establishment of ECA in the face of the determined and consistent opposition of the colonial Powers of that period on the ground that Africa was still under colonial rule.

Ethiopia's firm and continued commitment to the Economic Commission for Africa has already been amply demonstrated by the struggle it waged for the establishment of the Commission and its subsequent donation of Africa Hall to the United Nations.

Needless to say, the secretariat of the Economic Commission for Africa has, since its inception, dedicated itself to the service of the continent. The able and distinguished sons of Africa - Mekki Abbas of the Sudan, the first Executive Secretary of ECA, Robert Gardiner of Ghana, the second Executive Secretary and Adebayo Adedeji of Nigeria, Under-Secretary-General and current Executive Secretary, deserve special appreciation for the outstanding qualities of leadership with which they have guided the work of the Commission through a challenging period. The entire staff of the secretariat also deserve appreciation for dedicating their talents, skills and devotion to the service of the African continent.

In spite of the deployment of the best African talents in the Commission to overcome development problems of the continent and the unsparing efforts exerted by African Governments, the growth rate of the economies of African countries over the last two and a half decades have remained very low. With the rapid population growth and urbanization, as well as persistently adverse weather conditions resulting in severe drought and ecological degradation, the African continent continues to suffer from a serious shortfall in food production.

It was not only in the agricultural sector that a decline of the African growth rate was recorded. In almost all sectors of the African economy - industry, natural and human resources development, science and technology, transport and communications, trade and finance, energy, environment - notable drawbacks have been observed over the past two and a half decades.

To arrest and remedy this negative trend, the Assembly of African Heads of State and Government, meeting in Lagos in April 1980, adopted a strategy, known as the Lagos Plan of Action for the Economic Development of Africa (1980-2000), whose objective was to mobilize African resources and channel them to productive uses to bring about a rapid recovery of the African economy and to attain the economic integration of the continent by the year 2000 on the basis of individual and collective self-reliance.

While the responsibility for the implementation of the strategy remains to be that of African Governments, ECA, in collaboration with its sister organization, OAU, is expected to play a vital role in the translation of the strategy into practical action. Judging by its records, there is reason to believe that ECA will fulfil the tasks assigned to it in the years ahead by assisting member States in their efforts to improve the quality of life of the people of Africa.

LONG LIVE AFRICA FREE AND UNITED!

by

FLT-LT JERRY JOHN RAWLINGS,

Chairman of the Provisional National Defence Council of the Republic of Ghana

The occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the establishment of the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) provides a valuable opportunity to recall the events leading to its birth and growth, particularly Ghana's involvement in those events, and also to assess the organization's performance and reflection on its present and future roles in the socio-economic development of Africa.

It is recalled that following the devastation and destruction wrought on various countries by the Second World War, the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations, in the early post-war years, established a number of regional Commissions to help with the work of reconstruction in these areas. Commissions were thus established for Europe, Asia and the Far East (now designated Asia and the Pacific), and Latin America. North Africa and Ethiopia, considered worthy of consideration in this exercise, were placed under the Commission for Europe.

It is also worth recollecting that during the fourth session of the Economic and Social Council in 1947 the representative of India introduced a draft resolution for the establishment of a special Economic Commission for North Africa and Ethiopia. Although this move was limited in geographical scope, it constituted the first initiative in the United Nations to set up a separate Economic Commission for Africa. The Indian draft resolution was, however, not adopted mainly because doubt was expressed as to whether North Africa and Ethiopia could be regarded as an economic whole.

Thereafter, not much happened on the issue of the establishment of an Economic Commission for Africa until Ghana, then newly independent and participating in the General Assembly for the first time, raised it in 1957. Ghana's views were strongly supported by several delegations. Consequently, Ghana and 28 others sponsored a resolution recommending the establishment of an Economic Commission for Africa (ECA).

Following the adoption of resolution 1155 (XII) by the General Assembly, the Economic and Social Council on 29 April 1958 established the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA). The geographical scope of the Commission was to cover "the whole continent of Africa, Madagascar and other African islands". Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, was chosen as the site of the Commission's headquarters, invitations having been received from Ghana, Ethiopia, Morocco, the Sudan and the United Arab Republic to establish the headquarters in their respective territories.

When the Commission was established in 1958, full membership was extended to 15 States, only eight of which were African States. Those States were Ghana, Ethiopia, Liberia, Libya, Morocco, the Sudan, Tunisia and the United Arab Republic. The seven non-African States were Belgium, France, Italy, Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom, all former colonial Powers. South Africa also had full membership.

It is worth noting that, whereas the other regional commissions had been created shortly after World War II without much difficulty, it took the international community not less than a decade to agree to the establishment of ECA, due mainly to the opposition of the major colonial Powers which had

for more than a century exercised total control over the political and economic life in most parts of Africa. For the African members of the Commission, the new organization represented a big gain, for it not merely constituted the first ever international organization covering the whole continent but also provided the only available forum in which Africans had the chance to participate fully and effectively in the handling of matters affecting their own peoples.

For the eight original African members, the creation of the Commission was of great political significance. It became a vehicle for promoting pan-Africanism and for fighting the battle against colonialism, racism and *apartheid*. The mere fact that almost half of ECA's members personified these evils acted as a stimulant to us in Ghana, at the time the spearhead of the African revolution, to attack those evils relentlessly. It is, therefore, not surprising that the Commission's earliest programme of work and priorities centred on issues like the detrimental effects of social discrimination in southern Africa, the impact of the European Economic Community on African economic development; co-operation and integration and the need to change the dependent economic relationships between the Western market economies and Africa.

The importance of the First Conference of Independent African States held in Accra from 15 to 22 April 1958, to the evolution of ECA cannot be overstated. The Accra meeting was the first occasion on which the leaders of all the independent African States had met to define a common programme for Africa in relation to the rest of the world. At that Conference, Kwame Nkrumah underlined the achievement of the liberation of Africa as the main goal of the independent African countries. The Conference also emphasized the need to overcome the economic backwardness of African countries. Thus the Accra Conference laid down the agenda and programme of work for the Commission in both the political and socio-economic fields, as the immediate and later programme of work of the Commission bears out. Consequently, one of the resolutions adopted by ECA at its first session held in Addis Ababa from 29 December 1958 to 6 January 1959 asked the Executive Secretary, *inter alia*, to set up arrangements for liaison with the Accra Conference of Independent African States.

It was in consonance with our belief that the Commission should be used as an instrument for the development of Africa and the total liberation of the continent which led to the Ghana Government hosting the eleventh session of the Commission in Accra in 1973. One of the achievements of the eleventh session was to recognize the need for a more effective co-ordination of programmes and policies by ECA in the region and, therefore, to request the secretariat, in resolution 249 (XI), to examine with the United Nations and other agencies, the possibility of establishing workable arrangements for co-ordinated action in the formulation and implementation of joint work programmes and, where practicable, for the establishment of joint divisions in the secretariat. This was later to result in the establishment of better co-operative links between ECA and the specialized agencies as well as other United Nations bodies engaged in social and economic activities in Africa.

As might be expected of a new organization, the newly-created ECA encountered a number of difficulties, prominent among which was the procurement of suitable and adequate staff. The first Executive Secretary, for example, held office for barely a year. It was not until 1962, almost three years later, that Dr. R. K. A. Gardiner of Ghana actively assumed direction of the Commission as the second Executive Secretary. His long tenure of office gave the Commission the much needed stability in its formative years.

Even in the face of such difficulties, ECA can be said to have lived up, to a large extent, to the expectations of the founding members. It helped to accelerate the process of decolonization on the continent. It could be said with some justification that it was a forerunner of the Organization of the African Unity (OAU), five years later. Yet its contribution in the political field should be considered as an incidental by-product, since its main sphere of activity lies in the social and economic fields.

In the socio-economic fields, ECA had responded to the needs of the continent by focusing, in its early years, on the collection, analysis, evaluation and dissemination of information and basic data, which were very much lacking in the region. In addition to providing technical and advisory services, the Commission has also succeeded in contributing immensely to the laying of a firm foundation for the socio-economic development of African countries.

No stock-taking of ECA would be complete without mention of the positive contribution which it has made to the promotion of economic co-operation on the continent. Beginning with the division of Africa into four subregions at its fourth session through to the establishment of the five Multinational

Programming and Operational Centres (MULPOCs) to the 1979 Monrovia OAU/ECA Symposium on the Future Development Prospects of Africa towards the Year 2000, and the adoption of the Lagos Plan of Action in 1980, the Commission has played a significant role in the evolution and development of the ideas and concepts of economic co-operation at sub-regional and regional levels in Africa. In the process the Commission has acquired an experience in fostering inter-State institutions and activities which is second to none on the continent.

The first twenty-five years of ECA activity have coincided with the period of African political emancipation. The next quarter of a century should witness the achievement of its economic emancipation. Already, thanks to ECA, Africa is today abreast with the rest of the world in terms of development ideas and economic thought.

For ECA to become the instrument that the African countries wish it to be, it should be in a position to play a more catalytic and operational role, be more action-oriented and a driving force for its region on the international plane through the working out of common positions promoting the interests of Africa. We wish to see an ECA which would reflect deeply on Africa's self-identified needs and goals rather than any externally-imposed prescriptions and ideas. Africa is potentially the richest, though lamentably at the moment the least developed and the poorest region. A developed and self-reliant Africa would be the most eloquent testimony of the fulfilment of the hopes and aspirations of the African founding fathers of the Commission.

by

His Excellency
THE HONOURABLE DANIEL T. ARAP MOI,

President of the Republic of Kenya

Some of us can recall the moment - in 1958 - when ECA was instituted as a technical agency of the United Nations. This became the first inter-governmental body specifically assigned to devise economic and social programmes for the continent of Africa and the contiguous islands.

At that time, of course, the proper foundations of such a high responsibility had still to be cemented. Only eight of the nations of Africa enjoyed and could exercise political independence. All other countries were still struggling to release themselves from various kinds or phases of colonial mastery. Initially, therefore, ECA became associated with, and its potential was a valuable argument for, moves towards widespread self-determination throughout Africa.

Today, with only one or two sad exceptions, virtually the whole of Africa is free, and the membership of ECA is properly representative. But it must also be noted that dying embers of the political struggle marked the beginning of another challenge- formidable and complex - in the composite arena of economic independence and social development.

In relative terms within the world scene, Africa has still been lagging behind. There are 36 countries, over the world as a whole, formally recognized as "least developed nations", and no less than 21 of these are located in the continent of Africa. Such a degree of what might be called stagnation has persisted despite some commendable efforts. And so a Silver Jubilee, which should always be regarded as precursor of the future, provides an appropriate occasion for putting some matters in perspective.

Problems related to balance of payments have all along tended to increase in magnitude and severity. The most critical cause, on the import side, has been the tremendous cost-escalation of crude oil and petroleum products, which has virtually crippled many of the poorer countries. There has also been continuing over-dependence on imports of capital goods and manufactured goods from the industrialized nations, set alongside the inability - by African countries - to develop broadly-based sectors of export production buttressed and vitalized by stable prices.

As part of such a broad picture, member countries of ECA have been made to suffer from relentless deterioration in terms of trade with the more advanced world outside. As an outcome of indifference by the industrialized nations to any concept of global co-operation, or common sense, countries of the Third World have found themselves in a vicious circle, with ever lower foreign exchange earnings - mainly from a few primary commodities - begetting a reduction of capacity to import vital products which might help to diversify development and export output.

Then, and such a fact must be squarely faced, Africa has continued to sustain an alarming rate of human population increase. In too many instances, year after year, human numbers - unplanned and excessive - have simply swallowed up any hard-won economic advances, making it impossible to achieve goals related to *per capita* income or expansion of basic social services. At the same time, population increase has given rise - fundamentally - to a whole catalogue of problems and perils affecting the natural environment.

As an additional factor, here and there, our continent has experienced a great deal of political instability as well. It is high time, in my view, for the leaders of Africa to realize that the progress we all seek can only be constructed upon a solid and genuine foundation of peace, trust and confidence.

But despite all disabilities and depressive factors, there must be - and indeed there are - grounds for optimism. Africa still has enormous potential for development in terms of untapped human and material resources. And great hope must be seen in the Lagos Plan of Action, adopted by African Heads of State as a continental blueprint for endeavour, and envisaging the establishment of an African Common Market by the end of this century. In all this, ECA will have an ever mounting part to play, not least through expansion of some vital past initiatives under headings of financial, training and research institutions.

We will all be looking to ECA as the framework within which national policies can be co-ordinated in the service of optimum all-African progress. There must be emphasis on the mechanics of trade, access to capital and the spread of industry, with approaches in all these fields aimed at minimizing duplication or competition in the cause of harnessing the fullest African potential. We must and can become more self-reliant, and a promising start has been made, under ECA auspices, by the introduction of Multinational Programming and Operational Centres designed to explore and give meaningful expression to economic co-operation on a regional basis.

So much experience has been gained in the past 25 years. Now it is up to all of us to exploit this wisely, for purposes of fulfilling economic and social aspirations, while preserving the freedom of Africa and enhancing the contribution made by our continent to the philosophies and the production levels on which human destiny will come to depend.

by

His Majesty KING HASSAN II
of the Kingdom of Morocco

It is our greatest pleasure, on the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Economic Commission for Africa, to extend to all its staff our greetings and best wishes for success in their work in the service of Africa.

We are all the more pleased because this event is, for the Kingdom of Morocco, at the same time a historic one and opens prospects for the future. Morocco has maintained varying levels of close economic, social, cultural and spiritual relations with other African countries and their peoples, our brothers, for 14 centuries. Trade as well as social contacts between Moroccans and their fellow Africans have left their mark on the country, its customs and traditions, not to mention the appearance of its people.

As part and parcel of Africa, the Kingdom of Morocco has always endeavoured to highlight the distinctive personality of the African people, to safeguard Africa's lofty values and noble principles, to achieve its social and economic development goals and to use its cultural heritage for the benefit of all mankind.

There is no doubt that the greed of colonialist countries has led to the balkanization of Africa, the establishment of artificial frontiers and a slackening of all trade and cultural relations among African States.

Since its independence, Morocco has endeavoured to counter the manoeuvres of the colonialists, to re-establish the cultural, social and economic ties with its brother African countries while affirming its Africanness. Indeed, the preamble of its constitution declares that:

"as an African State, it lays down as one of its objectives the attainment of African unity"

Morocco has participated actively in achieving African unity by establishing close economic ties with the various African countries and playing a decisive role in African organizations such as the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, of which Morocco is one of the founding members.

The United Nations Economic and Social Council resolution which established the Commission fulfilled one of Africa's most cherished desires, namely the establishment of an organ to strengthen economic relations among African countries.

Morocco was one of the first members of the Commission because it was aware of the importance of economic co-operation among African countries and was convinced that international co-operation within the framework of such an organization was one of the most effective means of bringing nations together and strengthening international peace and security.

In that connection, the Economic Commission for Africa has made considerable headway in its endeavour to fulfil the aspirations of the African peoples for economic and social development. The Commission carried out studies to define priority areas and established the fact that food security as well as individual and collective self-reliance were all the more crucial because Africa was endowed with abundant resources, especially agricultural, mineral

and fishery resources but to make use of them human and material resources had to be mobilized.

These development efforts come up against the obstacle of transport and communications in Africa which has to be overcome if we are to establish close ties between African countries. In that connection, we cannot but praise the relentless efforts made by the Commission to attain the objectives of the United Nations Transport and Communications Decade in Africa.

The Commission has also attached special importance to the industrial sector by playing a major role in the proclamation of the United Nations Industrial Development Decade for Africa.

The priority accorded to the aforementioned areas will help to bring about integrated economic and social development and individual and collective self-reliance for African countries in pursuance of the principles of the Lagos Plan of Action and the recommendations of the Economic Commission for Africa and the Organization of African Unity.

Morocco, whose aim has always been to strengthen the Economic Commission for Africa, has always given material and moral assistance to the Commission and the institutions established by it and participated actively in most of the meetings it has organized. Moreover, Morocco hosts the headquarters of some of the subsidiary bodies of ECA such as the Multinational Programming and Operational Centre for North Africa, the North African Institute of Management as well as the headquarters of other African institutions such as the Association of African Trade Promotion Organizations.

Today the Economic Commission for Africa is celebrating 25 years of remarkable achievements and we are sure that its work in the years to come will be even more praiseworthy.

On this occasion, the Kingdom of Morocco would like to present its compliments to the Economic Commission for Africa and congratulate its administration and all its staff for the work they have accomplished to strengthen relations among African countries.

Done at the Royal Palace, Rabat, on 9 December 1982.

by

His Excellency ALHAJI SHEHU SHAGARI,

President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria

It is an honour to my country and a great pleasure to me to be requested to write a Foreword to the ECA Silver Jubilee Commemorative Book.

Nigeria's relation with the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa dates back to 1958 when she participated in the first session of the Commission held in Addis Ababa from 29 December 1958 to 6 January 1959 in her capacity as one of the seven associate members of the Commission. As a positive demonstration of the importance which Nigeria attached and continues to attach to ECA, the then Honourable Federal Minister of Finance was selected by the Government to lead the three-man delegation to that Conference in which only nine independent African countries participated as full-fledged members. The Nigerian delegation to the first session of the Commission was instructed by the Government to collaborate with others in, *inter alia*, drawing up a programme of work and priorities for implementation by the secretariat. The first programme of work and priorities approved by the Conference covered various areas which included training, community development, economic and technical assistance, statistical surveys, international trade and development programming.

I would like to recall three important resolutions adopted during the second session of the Commission held in Tangiers, Morocco, from 29 January to 6 February 1960 in which I personally participated. The resolution on international economic and financial assistance to Africa was significant because of its emphasis on the need for multilateral donors and donor countries to consult and collaborate with the ECA secretariat in the co-ordination of development aid to African countries. Surveys of mineral resources in Africa must not be undertaken in complete isolation of the industries based on such mineral resources. It was the resolution on surveys of mineral resources that prescribed that an effective linkage should be established between such surveys and the industries based on the appropriate mineral resources. The resolution on intra-African trade and a conference of African businessmen is indicative of the burning desires of the founding fathers for a closer link and meaningful intercourse among African countries.

On attainment of independence in 1960, Nigeria acquired full membership status of the Commission and continued to participate actively in the various activities of the organization. I was entrusted with the responsibility of leading the Nigerian delegation to the third session of the Commission in Addis Ababa from 6 to 18 February 1961 and I was elected as the second Vice-Chairman to assist in guiding its deliberations. The focus of discussion at that session of the Commission was on two important topics namely, the effects of economic groupings in Europe on African economies and the programme of work and priorities for 1961/1962.

The Nigerian delegation to the seventh session of the Commission on the instruction of the Government offered to host the eighth session in Lagos. Accordingly, the eighth session of the Commission was hosted in Lagos from 13 to 24 February 1967. Nigeria's preoccupation in the accelerated social and economic development of Africa as reflected in the opening address of the then Head of State was for ECA to pursue more vigorously its programmes in promoting co-operation among African countries and in the provision of essential communication

infrastructures which would link various member States. At the tenth session of the Commission which took place in Tunis from 8 to 13 February 1971, I was again privileged to lead the Nigerian delegation. In my contribution to the discussion on the report of the Technical Committee of Experts, it would be recalled that I urged ECA which hitherto had engaged in studies and research to become more deeply involved in operational activities in member countries and, on the question of transfer of technology, I also suggested that the technology so transferred should be adapted to local conditions. It is pertinent to draw attention to the fact that since, after making the above remarks on the role of ECA secretariat five Multinational Programming and Operational Centres (MULPOCs) have been set up, one for each of the five subregions into which African countries have been grouped for the purpose of achieving the objective.

The United Nations Trust Fund for African Development (UNTFAD) which was established in June 1976 by the Secretary-General of the United Nations in consultation with the secretariat of ECA, was set up with the objective of mobilizing resources for the implementation of social and economic development programmes in Africa. I recall that Nigeria hosted the First Pledging Conference in April 1977, and pledged then to contribute the sum of N1 million or about $US 1.6 million for the three-year period, 1977-1980. Some of the development projects which the ECA secretariat financed with Nigeria's contribution of $1.6 million include the Chemical Industry Development Programme, the Regional Centre for Training in Aerial Surveys, trade in food and livestock products in the west African subregion, the African Institute for Higher Technical Training and Research, the subregional Graduate School of Business Management and Finance and the African Regional Centre for Engineering Design and Manufacturing. In further demonstration of her firm commitment to the principle of collective self-reliance as a vehicle for the economic and social transformation of African countries, Nigeria during the third Pledging Conference held in Freetown, Sierra Leone, in April 1981 pledged to contribute the sum of $200,000 for the period 1982-1983.

I believe that member countries of ECA will definitely derive substantial benefits from the successful implementation of the various projects and the realization of their objectives. Already the Regional Centre for Training in Aerial Surveys is training students from both Nigeria and other African countries in photogrammetric mapping and survey. When fully operational both the subregional Graduate School of Business Management and Finance and the African Institute for Higher Technical Training and Research would enable Africans to acquire appropriate expertise in business management including financial control and technological know-how. It is proposed that prototype machines and equipment for industrial production would be designed and manufactured in the Regional Centre for Engineering Design and Manufacturing. The impact of the full realization of this project on the industrialization programmes of African countries could be very tremendous.

Nigeria has endeavoured to participate in the deliberations of the various conferences, experts meetings, seminars and workshops organized by ECA during the past 25 years. Though Nigeria is opposed to the proliferation of institutions in the light of the well-known problems of the already existing ones, none the less our moral and material support has been ardent for such ECA-sponsored institutions as the Institute for Economic Development and Planning (IDEP), ADB, the Regional Centre for Training in Aerial Surveys, the African Institute for Higher Technical Training and Research and the African Regional Centre for Engineering Design and Manufacturing (ARCEDEM).

Nigeria considers the hosting of the first OAU Economic Summit in Lagos on 28 and 29 April 1980 as one of the most significant events in her endeavour to foster intra-African co-operation and development. Based on the draft prepared by the sixth meeting of the ECA Conference of Ministers, the OAU Heads of State and Government adopted the now famous Lagos Plan for the implementation of the Monrovia Strategy for the Economic Development of Africa which has appropriately been described as a "blue print" for social and economic development of the continent. As the Lagos Plan of Action covered several sectors of the economy, it is Nigeria's firm conviction that the implementation of the Plan by all African countries will definitely transform Africa's social and economic conditions and lead to a radical improvement in standards of living of the people.

Finally, I wish to seize this unique opportunity to commend the catalytic and leadership role which the ECA secretariat is now playing in promoting accelerated social and economic development in Africa. Nigeria is proud to have been associated with the Commission since its inception and is particularly

satisfied with the level of implementation of its various work programmes. The United Nations Economic Commission for Africa is hereby assured of Nigeria's continued support for its programme of activities in the years ahead.

by

His Excellency SIAKA STEVENS,

President of the Republic of Sierra Leone

It is with great pleasure and appreciation that I take this opportunity to congratulate the Economic Commission for Africa on the attainment of its Silver Jubilee. The establishment of the Economic Commission for Africa was the result of a felt need by many African Governments in their struggles for political and economic emancipation in the 1950s. Looking back, one cannot but express the utmost gratification that on the momentous day of 26 November 1957 the United Nations General Assembly, by resolution 1155 (XI), recommended that the Economic and Social Council should establish the Economic Commission for Africa. My Government also recalls with even greater gratification United Nations Economic and Social Council resolution 671 (XXV) of 29 April 1958 which formally established the Economic Commission for Africa.

Since that time, the scope and activities of ECA have been expanded to cater for the broad needs of the countries and peoples of Africa. My Government also feels proud to have identified and participated together with ECA in the implementation of its numerous programmes and activities. These activities have no doubt greatly contributed towards the enhancement of socio-economic development in Africa in general and member countries in particular.

The publication of this Commemorative Book on ECA, I believe, would serve to catalogue the great strides and successes accomplished by such an august organization, worthy of emulation by similar regional organizations of the United Nations system. My Government further reaffirms her continued faith in the Economic Commission for Africa and unequivocally states that ECA has a role to play in socio-economic development of the African region.

It is my fervent hope that ECA would consolidate the gains it has made and that it will continue to strive for the total economic emancipation of Africa now and in years to come.

by

His Excellency HABIB BOURGUIBA,

President of Tunisia

Tunisia is proud to have been one of the founding members of the Economic Commission for Africa and to have played an active role in its development over the past 25 years.

ECA was established in 1958, when Africa was standing on the threshold of freedom. Since then the Commission has made a definite contribution towards strengthening the national independence of African countries. This is not surprising because, apart from the special status that ECA enjoys as a member of the United Nations system, it has also held a special place as a centre for reflexion and a major forum for African leaders to hold discussions on Africa's economic problems. The Commission's dynamism, its secretariat's efforts as well as member States' confidence in it have enabled it, over the years, to be a motive force in Africa's economic development. This role was sanctioned at the highest political level at the Assembly of Heads of State and Government held at Lagos in 1980, at which an integrated Plan of Action for Africa's economic development was adopted in whose implementation ECA, together with OAU, will have a central role to play.

Throughout ECA's 25 years of existence, Tunisia has always given the Commission its fullest support. That was why we were honoured to host, in 1971, the tenth session of the Commission which took key decisions including the one relating to Africa's development strategy for the 1970s. We have also appreciated the value of ECA-sponsored institutions to which the Tunisian administration has often turned for assistance.

The many challenges to which Africa will have to respond in the future will make the Commission's role even more crucial. Our countries should pursue their development efforts in spite of particularly difficult external economic conditions. They should plunge into the age of modern technology and occupy their rightful place in world industrial production. They should ensure that they attain self-sufficiency in food once and for all. In a nutshell, they should strengthen their economic independence in order to become influential partners in international economic relations.

African States expect ECA to be realistic and effective in helping them to perform these tasks. We, in Tunisia, are sure that our Economic Commission for Africa possesses the necessary capabilities. We wish the Commission every success.

by

His Excellency
MOBUTU SESE SEKO KUKU NGBENDU WA ZA BANGA,

President and Founder of the MPR,
President of the Republic of Zaire

At the time when the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa is celebrating its twenty-fifth anniversary, it behoves all Africans to ponder on the future of Africa. This is all the more important for me, as a Head of State, who not only has experienced at first hand the awakening of Africa's consciousness which gave momentum - again 25 years ago - to the tide of independence in our countries, but has also helped to direct the development and take-off of Africa for more than 20 years.

In establishing the Economic Commission for Africa, the United Nations sought in its way to contribute to the development of our economies, all the more so because most African States that gained independence in the 1960s and 1970s had to consolidate their political independence whose limits they soon discovered.

The advent in the early 1970s of the current worldwide crisis has shown the whole of Africa how difficult it is to achieve far-reaching economic self-reliance geared to satisfying the needs of our peoples, which is an important aspect of development in every African country.

The 1960s and 1970s provided the framework also for the United Nations to proclaim the first and second Development Decades during which the international community could participate collectively in expediting the take-off of developing countries in general and African countries in particular through the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa.

Not long ago we began the third United Nations Development Decade. More than ever our Governments must accord prime importance to economic development notwithstanding the myriad other concerns among which the building of the nation and indeed, for some countries, the rebuilding of the nation takes pride of place.

Although the goals and objectives through which this development is to be achieved differ from country to country, there are in fact goals and objectives which are common to African countries as a whole. This is true in particular of:

(a) Rapid economic growth in order to close the gap between Africa and the developed countries;

(b) Equitable distribution of income;

(c) A high standard of living;

(d) Accelerated development in agriculture, industry, infrastructure, education, health, housing, price stability, employment and equilibrium in the balance of payments.

The United Nations system, to which ECA belongs, through its various agencies, including the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), organizes assistance in various forms which supplements the assistance received from bilateral and multilateral sources.

In order better to visualize the future which concerns us now more than ever before, let us consider how many of our achievements have been positive. Certainly not all of them, as can be seen from the studies and evaluations conducted at the end of every development decade.

As a matter of urgency the strategy adopted at the beginning of the 1980s, which saw the birth of the Lagos Plan of Action, must be strengthened by concrete action, which in turn should benefit from more decisive and effective support from ECA.

Serious problems hitherto underestimated such as the lack of dedication among our leaders and the dearth of a spirit of innovation and creativity among our administrators and entrepreneurs - which are at the root of the lack of progress made since the beginning of the 1960s - should be more critically examined in the African context.

Our ability to plan production and design, organize and manage projects and market them should be developed further every day. The dysfunctional nature of our subregional and inter-subregional markets should be rectified at the same time as we should rationalize the urbanization of the towns and countryside, remove our slums and seek to eradicate underemployment, unemployment and malnutrition.

Africa's future need not be as bleak as a great number of experts project as long as new approaches are adopted, beginning by dispelling the confusion surrounding the concepts of development and economic growth. The activities should be part and parcel of our efforts to establish the new international economic order called for by the United Nations at its sixth and seventh special sessions held in 1974 and 1975.

If they truly wish to, African countries are in a position to pursue constructive economic development policies, both severally and jointly, through the judicious and rational implementation of the Lagos Plan of Action which has as one of its objectives the establishment, by the dawn of the next century, of a veritable African common market.

Our countries have the natural resources which constitute the basis of development, economic growth and technological progress. With the still low level of development and the constant growth of the labour force, they constitute dynamic markets for the future.

This is why we must strengthen the institutions needed for development, technological growth and progress, self-discipline, dedication, the integrity of our leaders, our management and administration, trade and our efforts to produce entrepreneurial, administrative, scientific and technical, finance and banking, marketing and other skills.

Efforts equally have to be made to tackle the problems of food and agriculture, industry, natural resources, energy, human resources, science and technology, transport and communications, and intra-African trade and finance, for the way in which they interact is underscored all throughout the Lagos Plan of Action.

The immediate objective, in the final analysis, is the food and agriculture programme in order to reverse the food crisis which Africa is experiencing.

We cannot conclude this foreword without raising yet again the question of the agricultural sector whose performance has been disastrous. The agricultural sector is the most important in most African economies since from every point of view - means of subsistence and employment - it supports approximately 80 per cent of our peoples. The deficiencies observed in the sector today are keenly felt in food production although, with our vast expanses of land, they should never have existed.

This means that the objective of self-sufficiency in food should have pride of place in the actions to be taken by ECA during the last two development decades of the current century.

II. INTRODUCTION

by

THE EXECUTIVE SECRETARY
of the Economic Commission for Africa

It is for me a great personal pleasure, as Chief Executive of Africa's premier regional inter-governmental organization, to write an introduction to this publication commemorating the twenty-fifth - or Silver Jubilee - anniversary of its founding. For it was on 29 April 1958 that the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations decided by resolution 671 (XXV) to establish the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa. I need not recount here the battles that had to be fought from 1946 onwards for the establishment of ECA. I gave a full account of the drama in the statement which I made in March 1979 during the twenty-first anniversary of the Commission at its fourteenth session and now again it has been outlined in chapter IV of this publication. 1/

Thus, with the historic resolution of the Economic and Social Council establishing ECA in April 1958 began the process of pan-African institution-building for the first time ever in the history of the continent and at a time when only eight of its present 50 member States were politically independent. This development was followed five years later by the establishment of Africa's political organization - the Organization of African Unity - and six years later by the continent's development banking institution - the African Development Bank - whose establishment was sponsored by the Commission itself.

Twenty-five years is not long in the history of a continent, particularly one such as ours, with a legacy of colonialism and a large measure of neglect by and isolation from the rest of the world. But it is my belief that the present publication will serve to show the world that the Economic Commission for Africa has managed in no small way to leave its footprints on the sands of time and that its standing in the eyes of its member States, in the light of both its achievements and total commitment to the economic development and integration of Africa, increases every day.

Needless to say that whatever measure of success it has achieved would never have been possible without the unfailing support of its parent organization, the United Nations, the Governments of its member States, the United Nations specialized agencies and the entire international community. It is, therefore, a pleasurable duty for me to pay tribute to all of them for their support during the past 25 years. I must also pay special tribute to the Government of Ethiopia which was not only one of the eight independent African countries that fought so valiantly for the establishment of the Commission but has also hosted its secretariat right from the beginning. The Government and people of Ethiopia have spared no effort in facilitating the work of the Commission through the generous provision of material and political support. The headquarters of the Commission - the famous Africa Hall where historic decisions affecting the destiny of our peoples and continent have been taken from time to time - was a generous gift by Ethiopia to the United Nations.

I wish to express, on behalf of myself and my colleagues at the ECA secretariat, my most sincere appreciation to the Heads of State and Government of Socialist Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Morocco, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Tunisia and Zaire,

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1/ Adebayo Adedeji, *The Economic Commission for Africa: its origin, development, problems and prospects* (UN 1979).

who have graciously responded to the invitation to write forewords to this commemorative publication despite their multitudinous commitments. I am also very grateful to the senior Africans who have contributed personalized accounts of their involvement in the development of the Commission and of their impressions of and hopes for the Organization. The distinguished Secretary-General of the United Nations has, consistent with the personal interest which he has been showing in the activities of all the five regional commissions in general and in the work of ECA in particular since assuming his post in January 1982, most kindly written the preface to the publication. My colleagues and I have been most encouraged by all of this support.

However, it is not only as expression of support and encouragement that these accounts are significant. Equally, by their personalized nature, in many cases, they provide deep insight into the political and economic climate both within and outside Africa at the time of the establishment of the Commission and over the ensuing years.

Clearly, the world of 1958 was very different from that of the 1980s and the Commission and its secretariat have had to adapt continuously to the changing realities and requirements of the member States they are bound to serve. This need to adapt and be responsive to change is perhaps the underlying theme of this entire publication. Against the brief review of economic and social trends in Africa over the 25-year period, it comes out clearly in those chapters describing the structure of the Commission and its secretariat, the focus of its activities and its perception of its future role.

Hence, although the basic terms of reference of the Commission have not changed substantially, as can be seen from chapter III, section A, they have had, for instance, to be amended to take account of the increase in membership of the Commission from a meagre eight independent African States at the time of its inception to 50 at the present, and to take into account both the changing concept of associate membership and the legitimate desire of sovereign States to refuse participation to those whose policies they have found abhorrent.

Again, over the years, the very structure of the Commission has developed. As member States realized the increasing complexity of the issues they were facing and their interrelationships, the institutional machinery of the Commission has been revised several times and streamlined.

The secretariat itself has undergone considerable changes. Initially, because of the colonial legacy, there were extremely few Africans qualified to serve in the secretariat. As, however, more States became independent, Governments came to realize that the interests of Africa could best be served by Africans themselves who had a grass-roots understanding of the continent's problems, constraints and prospects. Consequently, they put increasing pressure on successive Executive Secretaries to spare no effort to Africanize the growing secretariat.

Indeed, ECA has come a long way since 1958 when it began operations with an annual budget of only $US 0.5 million. For the 1982-83 biennium the ECA-approved programme budget is $71.5 million. While over the years programme budgetary resources have grown steadily, the deteriorating international economic climate, particularly over the last decade, has made it increasingly difficult for the United Nations to provide the level of funding that the Commission requires. In fact, regular budget resources have increased by only 1.7 per cent annually in real terms since 1974-75. Most of the increases in ECA resources have come from extrabudgetary funding. Extrabudgetary resources have grown, between 1974-75 and 1982-83 by about 700 per cent, from $4.4 million to $35.5 million. Thus, today, half of ECA's total budget is expected to be financed from extrabudgetary resources - a fundamental shift in the nature of ECA funding. These matters are dealt with more fully in chapter III, sections A and E.

However, the patterns of extrabudgetary funding have changed also fundamentally. Up to the mid-1970s, most of ECA's modest extrabudgetary funds came from bilateral sources. But today, as the Commission has become more and more operational, roughly 50 per cent of its expected extrabudgetary resources comes from the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP); 25 per cent from the United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA); 10 per cent from the United Nations Trust Fund for African Development (UNTFAD) which the Commission itself set up in 1977 as an exercise in collective self-reliance in that contributions to the Fund come from African member States entirely on a voluntary basis with pledges made biennially at the time of the session of the Commission; and, 5 per cent from other sources. Thus, today, only 10 per cent of our extrabudgetary resources comes from bilateral donors.

Indeed, throughout its 25 years of existence, and particularly during the last ten years, the dearth of budgetary resources has impeded ECA's work and continually jeopardizes the important role it is playing in Africa's socio-economic development and integration. While the creation of UNTFAD and the contributions to it have provided a most welcome relief by making available additional resources, it has not removed the nightmare of a serious shortage of resources in the face of the growing demand on the services of the Commission. Now that ECA has created high expectations, it must be put in a resource situation which would enable it to meet these expectations. This can only be done by the member States themselves; by their friends and partners-in-development; by UNDP, UNFPA and other organs of the United Nations; by the specialized agencies, particularly FAO with which it has had a joint division for 20 years, UNESCO, ILO, UNICEF, UNEP, etc. to mention only a few; and, above all, by the General Assembly of the United Nations.

In this connection, I would like to pay warm tribute to all those countries and institutions which have provided so much extrabudgetary support to enable the Commission to function effectively. I am also most grateful for the growing support and understanding which the General Assembly and its main organs - the Second and Fifth Committees as well as the Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions (ACABQ) - have been giving and showing to ECA and Africa. Without such understanding and support, our task would have been well nigh impossible.

There are what historians call the "turning point" in the lives of men, of nations and for that matter of organizations. These are events that can and do move the individuals, nations or organizations concerned in new directions which lead them to the attainment of new and commanding heights. Historians may yet record that that turning point took place in the life of ECA during the period 1976-1980. It was in 1975 that the Commission initiated the process for undertaking an agonizing reappraisal of the development models implied in policies and strategies which have been pursued by African Governments as a means of bringing about a self-sustaining process of economic development growth. In the face of deteriorating economic conditions and the persistent failure of these strategies and policies to achieve the desired objectives, the Commission embarked on a reassessment in the light of the growing demand for the establishment of a new international economic order. The *Revised framework of principles for the implementation of the new international economic order in Africa, 1976-1981-1986* was the outcome of this exercise. This self-searching evaluation was in fact the precursor of both the Monrovia Declaration and Strategy of 1979 and the Lagos Plan of Action of 1980. It was the Commission that prepared these two historic documents for adoption by our Heads of State and Government.

It was also during this period 1975-1981, that the Commission established the Multinational Programming and Operational Centres (1978); launched the United Nations Transport and Communications Decade in Africa (1977); established the United Nations Trust Fund for African Development (1977); launched, in collaboration with the United Nations Industrial Development Organization and the Organization of African Unity, the Industrial Development Decade for Africa (1980); and, established the Pan-African Documentation and Information System (1981).

Indeed, the 1975 to 1981 period was one of exciting development which fired the imagination of member States and rallied them round to giving the Commission every support. It was also the period when we intensified our effort in the fields of economic co-operation and integration and institution-building.

Institution-building was given a new lease of life during this period. Right from its inception, the Commission has been in the forefront of institution-building in Africa. I have already referred to the first institution which was established by ECA. This was the African Development Bank. Closely on its heels was the African Institute for Economic Development and Planning (IDEP). But it is only in the last ten years that many institutions have started to be created in the specialized and technical fields required for Africa's development. Now, I venture to say, the continent is nearer to its goal of having an integrated set of mutually reinforcing genuinely African institutions to provide information, advice and practical services in such diverse fields as mineral resources development, social development, technology, demography, standards, trade, higher technical training and research and engineering design and manufacturing, to cite but a few.

Closely related to institution-building is the concept of co-operation and economic integration. It is probably no coincidence that it is now when Africa has established certain technical institutions of its own that the Commission's work on economic

integration' and co-operation is really beginning to bear fruit. The present publication contains,in chapter III C, a short history of economic integration in Africa since independence starting with the Commission's subregional offices and United Nations Multinational Interdisciplinary Development Advisory Teams (UNDATs) in the 1960s and going on to describe the MULPOCs in the 1970s and the practical achievements in the 1980s of initiatives taken through the MULPOCs. I refer here, in particular, to the signing on 21 December 1981 of the historic Treaty establishing the Preferential Trade Area for Eastern and Southern Africa, a co-operation arrangement sponsored by the Commission using its MULPOC for the subregion. During over three years of intensive negotiations for the treaty and the protocols, the secretariat in preparing these documents and in monitoring the negotiations drew, *inter alia*, upon the experience gained by other ECA-sponsored subregional institutions and other regional co-operation arrangements. I am happy to state that work is now at an advanced stage for the creation of a similar economic community in Central Africa. The Commission has, in fact, proved to be a pioneer in the entire United Nations system in the field of regional institution-building and has remained in the vanguard in the promotion of Africa's economic integration through co-operation.

The general move by the secretariat away from studies to the preparation of coherent strategies in the various fields and to actual project implementation is readily apparent from the relevant sections of this publication and in particular chapter III, section D. For example, whereas the early activities in the field of transport were restricted to having a number of small trans-African highways, to establishing a pan-African telecommunication network (PANAFTEL) with relatively little emphasis on inland waterways and ports, railways, air transport and other modes of transportation, now all aspects of the continent's transport and related infrastructure problems are being dealt with within the context of the global strategy for the United Nations Transport and Communications Decade in Africa. Similarly, in industry, the Commission has departed from its study and research approach and embarked upon a similar exercise as for transport, namely, the preparation of a genuine overall industrial development strategy for Africa in the framework of the Industrial Development Decade for Africa. The strategy is to be based on specific areas where Africa's natural, human and other potential can be put to full use in the integrated industrial development of the continent in the belief that Africa must cease to consume what it does not produce and produce what it does not consume. Another major contribution of the Commission is in the field of information and documentation activities. The development efforts of African States have been plagued by a dearth of reliable up-to-date information. In the last five years or so, therefore, the Commission has devoted considerable effort to setting up the Pan-African Documentation and Information System (PADIS), a numerical and non-numerical data base with its headquarters in Addis Ababa but with national participating centres located in the various African countries. It is hoped that the various components of the network will ultimately be linked by satellite so as to provide fast and efficient service to data users throughout the continent.

The emergence of the Commission as a major executing agency, in its own right, second only to FAO in so far as UNDP-financed regional and subregional projects are concerned, is one of the developments of the 1975-1981 period. Indeed, the need for the Commission to be granted executing agency status for operational projects was felt by the member States as early as 1962 when at the fourth session of the Commission, they adopted resolution 50 (IV) entitled "Decentralization of the economic and social activities of the United Nations and strengthening of the regional economic commissions" which strongly recommended that the Secretary-General should "take the necessary measures to endow the Commission's secretariat with the requisite authority and sufficient technical personnel to enable it to fulfil its functions efficiently with regard to the services required of it by Governments of member States, in particular by transferring progressively substantive and operational functions, so that the Commission's secretariat may play an increasing part in assisting Governments of member States in the formulation, evaluation and execution of technical assistance projects throughout the region and in associating these projects more closely with the Commission's work programme". Fifteen years later, the Commission's demand was crowned with success when the General Assembly at its thirty-second session adopted resolution 32/197 on the restructuring of the economic and social sectors of the United Nations which designated the regional commissions executing agencies in their own right. However, the decentralization of the necessary authority and of adequate budgetary and financial provision from headquarters to the regions is, to quote from the recent Joint Inspection Unit's report

The proportion of the total African population living in urban areas increased from 16.3 per cent in 1960 to 27.4 per cent by 1980, and the average annual rate of urbanization rose from 5.1 per cent during 1960-1970 to 5.3 per cent in 1975-1980. The available projections point to a deceleration in the rate of urbanization to 5.2 per cent during the decade of the 1980s and to 4.6 per cent during the 1990s. Thus by the year 2000, 41.3 per cent of the African population is projected to be living in urban areas. By 1980, North Africa was the most urbanized subregion with 43.8 per cent of its population living in urban areas, followed by Central Africa (34.4 per cent), West Africa (22.3 per cent), East Africa (22.6 per cent) and Southern Africa (22.4 per cent).

The average annual rate of growth of the African population was by 1980 the highest in the world, almost double the world average and about 14 per cent higher than that of developing countries as a whole. Obviously such high rates of population growth together with the associated high rates of urbanization and the youthful character and high dependency ratios of the region's population have imposed serious constraints on the efforts made over the last two decades to achieve rapid socio-economic development in the region. Rapid population growth has led to a significant increase in the proportion of total income that is consumed. This has in turn seriously constrained the growth of domestic savings needed to finance fixed capital formation. Furthermore, increasingly larger proportions of fixed capital formation have had to take the form of infrastructure for education, health and other welfare services.

3. STRUCTURE AND PERFORMANCE OF AFRICAN ECONOMIES

(a) Overall growth

Between 1960 and 1980, total real GDP of African developing countries about tripled, reaching in 1980 some $US 95 billion (at constant 1970 factor cost), which implies an annual growth of 5.6 per cent on average. Growth, however, fluctuated around this mark in half-decade cycles generally in response to the performance of agriculture and/or external trade factors. Thus, the upswing in GDP growth during the period 1965-1970 was essentially due to the record performance in agriculture and the improved external demand for exports. Similarly, the slowdown of growth to 4.5 per cent a year during the subsequent five years was again due primarily to the unprecedented fall in the growth of agricultural value added to 1.4 per cent a year and to the world recessionary conditions following the quadrupling of oil prices in 1973/1974 that stifled demand for the region's exports, which grew by a mere 0.5 per cent a year in the meantime. The slight recovery in the 1975-1980 period, however, flowed primarily from the pick up in demand for non-petroleum products after a short period of adjustment to the costlier energy regime in the developed countries and from the retrenchment measures adopted by many African countries. The cyclical pattern seems to have set in again at the beginning of the 1980s with growth plummeting to 2 to 3 per cent in 1981/1982, this time more a reflection of the shortage in foreign exchange in many countries, affecting their investment and production programme.

All in all, then, GDP growth in the 1960s at 5.8 per cent a year was slightly better than the average of 5.4 per cent a year achieved during the 1970s.

Of the two major groups of countries, the 46 non-oil exporters, and especially the 21 least developed among them, were the most affected by the above factors in view of their well recognized weaknesses. Additionally, the ensuing payments difficulties, debt accumulation, and deteriorating credit worthiness exerted further strain on their national economies.

The general deterioration in the performance of agriculture, dragging with it allied agro-industries, resulted in a gradual change in the structure of the regional GDP. For the African region as a whole, the combined share of agriculture and manufacturing fell from 50.2 per cent of GDP in 1960 to only 32.6 per cent in 1980 (see tables 2 and 3).

(b) Sectoral performance

(i) Agriculture

Even though its contribution to regional GDP was almost halved over the last two decades (from 42.6 per cent in 1960 to 22.8 per cent in 1980) agriculture still remains the major source of employment, food, raw materials for industry and foreign exchange for the majority of African countries. While other sectors have grown in importance in the meantime, the contraction in the direct contribution of this sector to GDP is essentially due to its very slow rate of growth in recent years which had far-reaching ramifications on the rest of the economy,

Table 2. Average annual growth at constant 1970 prices a/ (in percentage)

Countries	Agricul-ture	Manufac-turing	Electri-city	Mining	Construc-tion	Commerce	Transport	Public administration	Other	GDP
Major oil exporting										
1960-1970	5.6	8.8	3.1	28.3	6.3	12.2	3.5	10.6	1.9	9.4
1970-1980	1.4	10.1	6.6	1.1	11.4	5.8	8.3	11.2	4.8	7.9
1960-1980										8.7
Non-oil exporting										
1960-1970	6.5	12.0	8.9	10.2	10.2	10.0	9.0	9.1	11.1	4.3
1970-1980	1.2	4.2	5.4	3.1	5.1	4.4	5.1	6.8	3.8	3.8
1960-1980										4.0
Least developed										
1960-1970	-3.6	15.4	8.9	5.2	12.6	12.2	9.9	13.6	12.8	4.8
1970-1980	1.7	2.4	10.5	7.3	17.1	7.6	16.1	17.5	9.6	3.1
1960-1980										4.0
Developing Africa										
1960-1970	3.7	7.1	4.6	17.3	6.3	9.1	5.1	7.2	4.3	5.8
1970-1980	1.3	5.5	4.2	7.3	4.1	3.2	6.4	6.9	6.2	5.2
1960-1980										5.6

Source: ECA secretariat.

a/ Sectoral growth for 1960-1970 is based on data for 39 countries of developing Africa for which data are available while for 1970-1980 sectoral as well as overall GDP growth are based on all 51 African developing countries.

Table 3. Sectoral composition of GDP at constant 1970 prices a/ (in percentage)

Countries	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Electricity	Mining	Construction	Commerce	Transport	Public administration	Other
Major oil exporting									
1960	43.1	5.5	1.3	3.8	8.4	19.3	5.5	7.5	5.6
1970	30.2	5.2	0.7	18.5	6.3	24.8	3.2	8.3	2.8
1980	16.3	6.4	0.9	8.6	14.3	24.2	6.6	19.5	3.2
Non-oil exporting									
1960	42.4	8.6	1.4	4.6	4.0	15.5	5.9	8.9	8.7
1970	35.1	11.7	1.4	5.4	4.7	17.7	6.2	9.4	8.4
1980	27.7	12.4	1.7	5.1	5.4	19.2	7.2	12.8	8.5
Least developed									
1960	59.2	5.3	1.4	0.8	4.6	15.4	4.3	7.8	1.2
1970	50.6	8.7	1.1	0.9	3.8	17.5	5.0	7.0	5.4
1980	44.2	8.1	1.3	1.3	4.2	17.7	6.9	10.0	6.3
Developing Africa									
1960	42.6	7.6	1.3	4.4	5.4	16.7	5.8	8.4	7.8
1970	33.4	9.5	1.2	9.8	5.2	20.1	5.2	9.0	6.6
1980	22.8	9.8	1.3	6.6	9.3	21.4	6.9	15.7	6.2

Source: ECA secretariat.

a/ See footnote to table 2.

affecting overall growth, supply of raw materials and food, the surplus for exports and, as shortfalls had to be made good by imports, increased pressure on the balance of payments. According to ECA secretariat data, the growth in agricultural value added plummeted from a modest 3.7 per cent yearly during the 1960s to only 1.3 per cent per annum during the 1970s, indicating a serious decline in an already low net production *per capita*. Data provided by FAO (see table 4) show that not only has the growth of value added contracted but the volume of total agricultural production has in fact grown at slower comparable rates despite some improvement in the second half of the 1970s. This compares unfavourably with rates of growth of 2.9 per cent and 3 per cent for developing countries and 1.8 per cent and 2.6 per cent in the developed countries. The deterioration is most noticeable in food production where the FAO index of *per capita* food production indicates that the average African now has 10 per cent less home-grown food than ten years earlier, necessitating increased food imports.

Table 4. FAO indices of agricultural production in developing Africa

	Growth rates			
	1961-1970	1971-1975	1975-1980	1971-1980
Food production (per capita)	-	-1.6	-1.1	-1.1
Agricultural production	2.7	1.0	2.2	1.6
Forestry production (roundwood)	4.0	-0.2	2.4	1.2 a/
Fish production	7.3	2.2	4.8	4.1 b/

Source: Based on FAO, State of food and agriculture, 1974, 1978, 1980.

a/ 1979 figures.

b/ 1971-1979

Numerous factors have contributed to the slow and fluctuating performance of the agricultural sector. The most important, at least in recent years, has been unfavourable weather, particularly drought, which has affected various regions to varying degrees. The Sahelian zone of West Africa and the northern parts of East Africa for instance have been afflicted by protracted droughts which have not only led to the fall in agricultural production but also resulted in loss of livestock and in desertification and contributed to the deterioration of the environment. Other factors included the neglect, although temporary, of agriculture in development plans in some West and North African oil-exporting countries; inappropriate production and pricing policies at times of changing cost structures and comparative advantage of competitive activities; weaknesses in marketing and credit institutions; etc. Rising energy costs and the foreign exchange squeeze in recent years have also limited imports of vital farm inputs. It is no wonder that productivity levels have fallen in the case of many commodities, particularly export items which are already low in comparison with other regions. In the five basic foodgrains in the region (wheat, maize, rice, sorghum and millet), for instance, productivity per hectare after three decades of successive improvements remained 56 per cent, 31 per cent, 34 per cent and 36 per cent of the levels achieved in the developed countries for the respective commodities.

Recent trends in the food situation in the African region have caused considerable concern. According to FAO statistics, the index of *per capita* food production (1969-1971=100) fell from 99 points in 1971 to 89 points in 1980, denoting an annual rate of decline of 1.1 per cent compared to a gain of a full percentage point in the average for the developing countries. This fall is attributable mainly to the slow growth of cereals and pulses which grew by only 1.1 per cent and 1.3 per cent yearly over the last two decades whereas production of root crops (2.6 per cent), meat (2.6 per cent) and sugar (4.5 per cent) matched and, in the case of sugar, exceeded population growth. Taken at the country level, the situation is indeed disquieting. Of 43 African deve-

Table 5. Value of cereal imports by developing Africa (millions of US dollars)

	1961	1970	1980
North Africa	206.1	211.7	2 596.2
West Africa	61.3	149.8	1 079.5
Central Africa a/	17.5	59.3	238.2
Eastern and Southern Africa b/	43.0	111.3	780.4
Developing Africa	327.9	532.1	4 694.3

Source: FAO, *Trade Yearbook*, 1967, 1971, 1973, 1976, 1980.

a/ Excluding Equatorial Guinea.

b/ Excluding Djibouti, Lesotho and Seychelles.

loping countries considered in one study, 30 recorded an actual decline in *per capita* food production between 1971 and 1980. Because of this disappointingly poor performance, a number of countries have had to resort to substantial food imports which in the case of some countries has become a permanent feature.

For the African region as a whole, the value of cereal imports increased at the annual rate of 15.1 per cent over the last two decades with the figure for the 1970s running at 24.3 per cent yearly. In terms of volume, however, the increases were in the order of 8.3 per cent and 13.3 per cent respectively (see table 5). Fortunately, a majority of countries are now making commendable efforts to improve their food production situation, both quantitatively and qualitatively, in accordance with the objectives of the Lagos Plan of Action, with the target in many cases being food self-sufficiency. Until such goals are achieved the financing of food imports would continue to be a menace particularly to the poorer and less naturally endowed countries of the region.

The performance of industrial crops was more satisfactory than that of food crops although their production continued to fluctuate widely largely because of weather conditions. During the period 1961-1980, tea, coffee, cotton, tobacco and natural rubber increased by 6.9 per cent, 2.2 per cent, 3.2 per cent, 1.6 per cent and 1.8 per cent yearly respectively. The demand conditions in the major importing developed countries, industrial substitutes and quota systems administered by these countries continued to govern the size of demand for and prices of these commodities.

Africa commands considerable livestock wealth in terms of numbers. At the end of 1980, there were 157.4 million head of cattle, 151.9 million sheep and 141.6 million goats in the region. In fact, the International Livestock Centre for Africa (ILCA) estimates that one eighth of the world's cattle is raised in the region, which provides a twentieth of the world's meat. However, the stock's productivity of meat and milk is poor owing to widespread animal diseases and lack or dearth of disease control facilities in many countries.

Although Africa has considerable inland water or marine fish resources, fishing is not a highly developed activity in the region and present levels of catch are low, largely because of lack of know-how and capital. Of late, a number of developing African countries have launched fisheries development projects particularly in coastal and island countries like Cape Verde, the Comoros, the United Republic of Tanzania and the United Republic of Cameroon, among others. This is reflected in the jump in the FAO index of fish production from 102 and 123 in

1971 and 1975 to 146 points in 1980, an average of 4.6 per cent yearly over the last decade.

The greater part of the wood produced and consumed in the region is used as fuel, the demand for which increased considerably after the energy crisis. In many areas, this demand exceeded local forest supplies leading to the progressive removal of all woody cover to the detriment of soil stability and protection against water and wind erosion. Total roundwood removals from the forests of developing Africa in 1979, for instance, stood at 359 million cubic metres, of which 89 per cent was fuelwood. Industrial roundwood accounts for about half of the rest, a considerable portion of which is exported in raw form from a small group of countries in West and Central Africa notably Ghana, the Ivory Coast, Liberia, the United Republic of Cameroon and the Congo. Data provided by FAO indicates that the rate of growth of output of roundwood has however dropped from an average of about 4 per cent in the 1960s to about 1.2 per cent yearly in the 1971-1979 period.

These combined trends have prompted a number of countries like the Sudan, Uganda and Gabon to pursue forest conservation policies aimed at developing and promoting the efficient utilization of their forest resources.

African countries have adopted various transformational measures since independence; first, to indigenize ownership of farms whether through the establishment of large State-owned enterprises or settlement schemes or through land reform for a more equitable distribution of land holding and organizational set-ups like co-operatives or share-cropping patterns. Considerable efforts have also been made to improve production relationships in the farm. Integrated rural development programmes have been emphasized to slow down rural-urban migration. Increasing attention is also being given to measures designed to modernize and intensify agricultural production including research for improved high-yielding disease-resistant varieties of crops; diversification; promotion of increased use of fertilizers and insecticides; mechanization and irrigation. The successful implementation of such policies was indeed behind the success stories in Kenya, Malawi and Zimbabwe.

(ii) Manufacturing

Many African countries paid special attention to the development of the manufacturing industry after independence to help to achieve higher growth levels, structural transformation of their economies and economic independence. However, the pace of expansion of this sector has been disappointingly slow since. While in 1960 the share of this sector in GDP averaged about 7.6 per cent for developing Africa, it grew by only 2.1 additional percentage points to reach 9.8 per cent of GDP in 1980 which is a mere 0.4 of a percentage point up on its 1970 level. Although growth at 7.1 per cent yearly over the 1960s is faster than that achieved during the 1970s (5.5 per cent yearly) in both cases it was barely sufficiently above the overall growth rate for the African economy to generate the pull effect envisaged. The non-oil exporters and especially the least developed ones have in fact seen their growth rates fall dramatically in the 1970s compared with the 1960s (see tables 2 and 3).

While it is difficult to generalize for all countries, the following are among the main reasons for the slow growth in the manufacturing industry: the generally poor agricultural performance affecting agro-based industries; shortages of foreign exchange and consequent difficulties in importing inputs; technical and locational problems; shortages of working capital; inability to maintain adequate stocks of materials; soaring energy costs; aging equipment and machinery; and poor management.

There has been hardly any change in the structure of manufacturing industry since the early 1960s; it remains very small, both in absolute terms and as regards its contribution to GDP. In 1980, the total value added was only about 0.2 per cent that of the world. It is also highly concentrated in certain countries. Three countries, Algeria, Egypt and Nigeria, accounted for more than 43 per cent of the total value added.

The industrial structure in most African economies is not properly matched with the endowment of resources and has weak linkages with the rest of the economy. The bulk of the sector is dominated by the production of non-durable consumer goods which require simple processing and is characterized by small production units which cannot realize the full benefits of economies of scale. The consumer goods section, which is mainly confined to the processing of primary products, consists of light industries such as textiles, foot-wear and leather products and food and beverages. The production of food, beverages and tobacco in most of the countries accounts for a large proportion of manufacturing output. In some cases light industry in food processing started in the early 1930s but has gained momentum only in recent

years; in some countries it is now able to meet a substantial share of local demand for food manufactures.

The development of heavy industry has not been very successful in Africa, constrained as it is by market size and the lack of technical and management expertise. Two main directions have been followed, one for petrochemicals in oil-producing countries and the other for metal-based industries in mining countries. The most notable cases are those of Egypt, were the iron and steel industry has expanded but with serious efficiency and cost problems; Algeria, where the petrochemical industry has been one of the key sectors in the country's industrial strategy; and Nigeria, where petroleum resources have provided both the base for petrochemicals and financial resources for investment in motor vehicle construction and other engineering-based industries. Algeria has encountered major problems in its heavy industry, and policies in this area have recently been revised. Zaire's experience with several metal transformation projects too is typical of the difficulties encountered by African countries.

Government participation in manufacturing has expanded in almost all the countries, whether they have opted for market-oriented or central planning strategies. This trend is attributed to the need to compensate for shortcomings in local private entrepreneurship. In such countries as Algeria, the Congo, Egypt, Ethiopia, Madagascar, Malawi, Somalia, the Sudan, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia, the State sector is the most important participant in manufacturing, and may, as in Malawi, account for more than half of manufacturing output. But many of the State industries or "parastatals" have incurred heavy losses owing to overmanning, under-pricing of production, ineffective organization, etc. They have too often been considered not as commercial ventures which must cover their costs and produce a return on their investment but as social organizations designed to provide jobs and services.

Virtually all developing African countries have adopted strategies of import substitution, mostly for consumer goods, but the degree of success has varied from one country to the other. Underutilization of capacities alluded to above is widespread. Additionally, the import substitution strategy has been adversely affected by the poor choice of technology, heavy reliance on imported inputs, price imperfections, institutional and management problems, etc. In view of these difficulties most African countries are now engaged in vigorous efforts to rehabilitate existing industries, while adjusting their policies in the light of their experience. Others have shifted towards an outward-looking pattern of development. In this context there is a growing tendency to focus on the development of export processing zones as in Egypt, the Ivory Coast, Kenya, Mauritius and the United Republic of Cameroon. The main obstacle to these policies, however, remains the high cost of African products compared even to Asian ones, because of lower productivity and comparatively higher wages. Inward-looking strategies for the satisfaction of local demand are currently gaining favour over an outward-looking option in many countries. In this regard, attention is being concentrated on projects with low capital-labour ratios, lower energy use and greater mobilization of local skills and resources in an effort to expand the realm of small- and medium-sized industries.

(iii) Mining (excluding energy)

Mining is an important export sector in a number of African countries, such as Botswana, the Central African Republic, Guinea, Lesotho, Liberia, Mauritania, the Niger, Sierra Leone, the United Republic of Tanzania, Zaire and Zambia. Because of its historical export-enclave nature, hardly any interlinkages have existed between it and the rest of the economy. Thus, at the regional level it has remained generally small, primary, underdeveloped and completely dependent on the vagaries of international demand and, except for a few countries, constrained by the structural limitations of the producing countries themselves. After impressive performance in the 1960s in all subregions, growth in this sector levelled off, recording in the case of all non-oil exporters taken together an average growth of only 3.1 per cent yearly in the 1970s against 10.2 per cent yearly in the previous decade. However, for the least developed countries performance was comparatively better at 7.3 per cent against 5.2 per cent respectively although its contribution to GDP is still less than 2 per cent of their combined GDP (see tables 2 and 3).

Quantum mineral statistics show that of all minerals only bauxite, phosphate rock and chrome ore have shown steady expansion during the last decade. For the rest performance has been mixed.

While items like iron ore, manganese ore, salt and copper performed satisfactorily in the 1960s, their fortunes took a dramatic downswing in the 1970s; others like lead ore, tin ore, zinc ore and the precious metals slipped further. In terms of prices, however, the situation in the 1970s was considerably better than in the 1960s.

Leaving international demand considerations aside, the exploration and exploitation of the large and varied mineral potential in Africa has been constrained by such structural factors as the high costs of extraction, weak infrastructure, the shortage of skilled manpower for mineral prospecting and mining development, lack of capital and the general remoteness of potential mineral sites, and may continue to suffer from the same constraints unless serious efforts are taken to eliminate these obstacles and, whenever possible, integrate mining activities fully in national or regional development programmes.

(iv) Energy

Africa's share of known reserves of natural energy resources is estimated at about 8.6 per cent of world proven oil reserves, 8.5 per cent of proven gas reserves, 0.03 per cent of world heavy oil reserves, 3.1 per cent of world oil shale reserves, 1.1 per cent of world coal geological reserves and 1 per cent of world technically and economically recoverable coal reserves. In world hydroelectricity potential, the share of Africa is substantial, being about 19.2 per cent, only a small fraction of which is presently tapped. African developing countries also possess nearly 25 per cent of world uranium resources. Additionally, Africa possesses an appreciable potential in alternative and renewable energy resources.

The last two decades have seen a progressive intensification of the development of these energy resources, especially oil production and refining and hydroelectric power generation and, with the increases in oil prices, other sources are being seriously considered economically viable alternative sources of energy. During the 1960s production of primary energy, defined as including coal and lignite, crude petroleum, natural gas and natural gas liquids, hydro and nuclear electricity, in African developing countries rose from a mere 0.88 million barrels per day of oil equivalent in 1960 (of which 67.8 per cent was coal and lignite, 31 per cent crude petroleum and natural gas liquids and 1.2 per cent hydroelectricity) to 6.8 million barrels per day in 1970 (of which 11.8 per cent was coal and lignite, 86.7 per cent crude petroleum and natural gas liquids, 0.9 per cent natural gas and 0.6 per cent hydroelectricity) or by 22.7 per cent yearly. However, energy production grew more slowly at 1.2 per cent between 1970 and 1978 to reach 7.48 million barrels per day by 1978 with the share of oil falling to 76.9 per cent and that of coal and lignite and hydroelectricity and natural gas rising to 17.2 per cent and 5.9 per cent respectively. The gradual shift towards the production of more of energy sources other than petroleum is partly due to their improved comparative price advantage and partly to the deliberate production restrictions imposed by some of the major oil exporters in the region. These trends are underscored by the quantum production data produced in table 6 below.

Commercial energy consumption, on the other hand, rose from 0.9 million barrels a day in 1960 to 1.48 million barrels a day in 1970 and further to 2.44 million barrels a day in 1978 or by 4.7 per cent and 6.4 per cent yearly in the respective periods. Meanwhile, important structural changes have taken place in primary energy consumption in African countries. The share of solid fuels fell from 62.8 per cent in 1960 to 47.5 per cent in 1978 while that of liquid fuels (crude petroleum and liquid gas) rose from 36.2 per cent to 44.3 per cent and that of hydroelectricity and natural gas from 1 per cent to 8.2 per cent. It is to be noted that about 84 per cent of total energy consumption is met through non-commercial energy sources such as firewood, animal dung and crop wastes which are chiefly used by households, a situation which has proved to have serious ecological implications for the region. But as far as commercial energy is concerned, the region is a net exporter. However, the distribution of production is such that most African countries have to import oil. The quadrupling of oil prices in 1973-1974 and their subsequent doubling in 1979-1980 have precipitated acute energy problems for most African countries, some of which have been forced to reduce their oil imports and risk possibilities of lower growth in view of their concomitant foreign exchange squeeze.

(v) Transport

The development of transport systems in Africa has been rightly conceived as an instrument of both structural change and national integration in the post-independence era. Thus, the share of transport in GDP has increased systematically regionally and subregionally (see tables 2 and 3). For the most part, however, attention has been given to the deve-

Table 6. Indices of energy production in developing Africa (1960 = 100)

	1960	1970	1978	Growth rates 1960-1970	1970-1978	1960-1978
Coal	100	93	95	-0.7	0.2	-0.3
Natural gas	100	14 700	117 235	125.0	29.6	48.0
Crude petroleum	100	2 116	2 070	35.7	-0.8	18.4
Electric energy	100	239	460	9.1	3.7	8.8

Source: Based on data from United Nations, *World Energy Supplies* 1950-1974, 1973-1978; *Energy resources in Africa*, Joint OAU/ECA Meeting, Addis Ababa, 24-28 March 1980.

lopment of national networks with little success in linking these networks regionally or subregionally, thereby limiting opportunities for intercountry trade and tourism. Realizing the advantages of such integration, the United Nations General Assembly, on the recommendations of ECA, declared the period 1978-1988 as the Transport and Communications Decade in Africa whose objectives include (a) the promotion of an integrated transport and communications infrastructure; (b) minimization of the isolation of the land-locked and island countries; and (c) the promotion of the production of transport and communications equipment in Africa (see also section D 4 below).

Developing Africa's network is small and consists mainly of gravel and earth roads, few of which are suitable for year-round traffic. The conditions of both paved or unpaved roads in most countries are poor because of irregular or inadequate maintenance. Table 7 shows that the road length has grown rather slowly at 3.1 per cent yearly during 1970-1978 but indications are that road construction efforts have been intensified in more recent years. Road traffic as measured by the number of motor vehicles has increased at rates close to 10 per cent yearly during the last two decades although, surprisingly, the ratio of passenger cars to commercial vehicles remained rather constant at approximately 2:1.

All but 11 African countries (Burundi, the Central African Republic, Chad, Equatorial Guinea, the Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Lesotho, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, the Niger, Rwanda and Somalia) have railways, most of which were designed long ago. The railway network is made up of several short independent national systems of various gauges and different technical specifications and, as a result, only a few of them are interconnected.

To date, over 95 per cent of Africa's international trade is handled by sea and up to 97.5 per cent of this is carried by foreign vessels. Global statistics show that in 1980 Africa owned only 1.3 per cent of total world merchant fleet capacity, most of it African only through registration.

In 1977 African air transport accounted for only 5 per cent of world international air passenger traffic. It also accounted for 3.3 per cent of world freight traffic compared with 2.3 per cent in 1961. Traffic is highly concentrated in a few countries. Despite its small volume, however, air traffic grew rapidly during the period 1965-1975 but slowed down somewhat thereafter.

4. INCOME AND ITS EXPENDITURES

(a) The growth of domestic income (GDP at market prices), 1958-1980

During the two decades 1960-1980, developing Africa as a whole recorded an overall growth rate in GDP at constant market prices of 5.62 per cent per annum. However, during that period, growth of developing Africa as a whole showed marked fluctuations over various years. During the period 1960-1965 growth was slow, recording only 4.7 per cent yearly. Thereafter, the early post-independence

period of 1965-1970 saw a fast expansion with real GDP at market prices reaching a high average annual growth rate of 7.3 per cent. On the other hand the first half of the 1970s had a much slower growth of only 4.8 per cent yearly, followed by an improvement in the 1975-1980 period during which the average annual growth reached 5.7 per cent.

In *per capita* terms, the performance of developing Africa as a whole between 1960 and 1980 was relatively poor mainly as a result of relatively high rates of population growth. For Africa as a whole, *per capita* GDP increased from $138.3 in 1960 to only $243.4 in 1980 implying a modest average annual *per capita* growth of 2.9 per cent over a 20-year period. The expansion of domestic *per capita* income was fastest during the 1960s when it grew by an average rate of 3.3 per cent yearly, as compared to a growth rate of only 2.4 per cent during the 1970s.

Among the various economic subgroupings, major oil-exporting countries registered high growth in both the 1960s and the 1970s, averaging at 8.6 per cent yearly between 1960 and 1980. At this average growth rate, the four African countries in the group of major oil exporters increased the level of domestic *per capita* income from $156.4 in 1960 to $452.8 in 1980. The non-oil exporting countries as a group had, on the other hand, only a marginal increase in growth with an average annual rate of only 4.2 per cent between 1960 and 1980. The *per capita* income of this group of countries increased from $137.5 in 1960 to $243 in 1980. Further, among the non-oil-exporting countries, the 21 African least developed countries had a poor performance in the 1960-1980 period with total GDP growth in the period averaging around 3.8 per cent while the group's average real *per capita* income only increased from $79.8 in 1960 to $102.2 in 1980.

The wide disparities in performance among subgroups of African countries over the last two decades resulted in considerable structural change of the distribution of regional GDP. While the share of the major oil exporters almost doubled, from 24.3 per cent to 42.1 per cent of GDP mainly through the influence of the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya and Nigeria, that of the non-oil exporters fell from about three quarters to just over half (see table 8).

(b) Changes in the structure of expenditure of GDP, 1958-1980

The major long-term trends in the pattern of expenditure on GDP in developing Africa as a whole include a decline in the share of consumption, and a corresponding increase in the share of savings and capital formation (table 9). For developing Africa as a whole and, indeed, in all subregions, the share of total consumption declined, albeit slowly, between 1960 and 1980. It fell from an average of 87.6 per cent to 81.7 per cent. However, most of this decline was due to a large fall in the share of private consumption since in all African countries government consumption expanded rapidly in the 1960-1980 period. The share of private consumption in total GDP dropped by 12 percentage points from an average of 74.4 per cent in 1960 to 62.4 per cent in 1980 while the share of government consumption increased by 6 percentage points from 13.3 per cent in 1960 to 19.3 per cent in 1980.

The structural changes in the share of total consumption in total GDP also varied significantly among subregions and subgroups of countries. Thus, while for Africa as a whole there was a decline in the share of total consumption in GDP over the 1960s and 1970s, the group of African least developed countries actually experienced an increase in the share of consumption from an average of 89.4 per cent in 1960 to 89.7 per cent in 1970 and to 91.6 per cent in 1980. On the other hand, the share of consumption in GDP in the major oil-exporting countries fluctuated throughout the period from an average of 91.9 per cent in 1960 to 76.7 per cent in 1970 and 85.8 per cent after the 1973 oil-boom followed by a decline to an average of 79.5 per cent in 1980.

The overall decline in the share of total consumption in total GDP between 1960 and 1980 implies that, over all, the share of domestic savings increased although marginally, for Africa as a whole. For the region as a whole, the share of domestic savings increased from an average of 12.4 per cent in 1960 to 18.3 per cent in 1980. Among the subgroups of countries the major oil-exporting countries recorded the highest increase in the domestic savings ratio which rose from a mere 8.1 per cent in 1960 to a high of 20.5 per cent in 1980. On the other hand, the savings ratio in the non-oil-exporting African countries increased only from 13.8 per cent to 16.7 per cent in the 20 years while that of the least developed countries declined from an average of 10.6 per cent to only 8.4 per cent in the same period.

With respect to capital formation, the major structural change over the 1960-1980 period was that of increases in the share of fixed investments in GDP

Table 7. Some transport indicators in developing Africa

	1960	1970	1978	Growth rates 1960-1970	1970-1978	1960-1978
Road length (thousand km)	...	946	1 205		3.1	
Motor vehicles (thousands)	1 488	2 707	7 960	6.2	14.5	9.8
Passenger cars (thousands)	985	1 796	5 400	6.2	14.8	9.9
Commercial vehicles (thousands)	503	912	2 560	6.2	13.8	9.4
Rail track length (thousand miles)	...	30 054	36 044		2.3	
Maritime shipping fleets (thousand tons)	11	35	85	12.2	10.4	11.8

Source: ECA secretariat and United Nations, *Statistical Yearbook*, 1965, 1971, 1979/80.

which, for developing Africa as a whole increased from an average of 16.1 per cent in 1960 to 24.9 per cent in 1980. This overall increase in the share of investments is not evenly distributed among sub-regions or subgroups of African countries.

(c) The growth and pattern of capital formation in Africa, 1958-1980

Gross fixed capital formation rose substantially in developing African countries as a whole registering an average annual growth rate of 8 per cent between 1960 and 1980. Within this period the rate of expansion in fixed capital formation reached a peak in the 1970-1975 period when investments grew at a high rate of 12.6 per cent yearly as compared to a yearly growth of only 4.4 per cent recorded in the first half of the 1960s. Thereafter, during the 1975-1980 period, there was a slowdown in the expansion of investments to a rate of growth of 7.3 per cent which was even lower than the investment average annual growth of 7.7 per cent recorded in the 1965-1970 period.

As with most other economic trends, the growth of investment was highly uneven for individual African countries, subregions and subgroups of African countries. In general, the highest expansion in gross fixed capital formation was recorded by the major oil-exporting countries where it accelerated from an average annual growth of only 1.8 per cent between 1960 and 1965 to 11.3 per cent between 1965 and 1970 and to 21.1 per cent during the oil boom period of 1970-1975. This acceleration has been so significant that by 1980 only four major oil-exporting countries accounted for over 56 per cent of total fixed investments of Africa as a whole, leaving

a share of less than 44 per cent for the 46 non-oil-exporting countries. Further, among the non-oil-exporting countries, the 21 least developed countries among them had a low share of only 8.5 per cent of the total fixed capital formation of developing Africa as a whole.

With respect to the relationship between the expansion of fixed capital formation and growth of gross domestic product, the trends in the individual African countries show that there has been a very close association between the rate of investment expansion and GDP growth. For example, of the 13 countries which recorded declines in the expansion of investments between 1960 and 1980, nine countries had an average GDP growth rate of less than 2 per cent yearly.

However, it is apparent that the trend towards large expansion in investment outlays was accompanied in many countries by significant decreases in the rates of utilization of capacity which became prevalent in the 1970s owing to the chronic shortages of foreign exchange that characterized that period. In addition, investment in the African economies seemed to become increasingly capital intensive in the 1970s as compared to the 1960s. As a rough indicator, for developing Africa as a whole imports of capital goods (machinery and transport equipment) grew at current prices by as much as 26 per cent yearly between 1970 and 1978 as compared to a GDP growth (at current market prices) of 20.8 per cent in the same period. This trend is even more pronounced in the major oil-exporting countries whose capital imports at current prices grew between 1970 and 1978 at an average annual rate of 34.8 per cent as compared to a growth rate of 23.3 per cent yearly for GDP at current market prices.

The interaction of these long-term investment trends between 1960 and 1980 resulted in a decline in the efficiency of capital as measured by the incremental capital output ratio. For developing Africa as a whole, the ICOR increased most significantly during the 1970s when it jumped from a low average level of 2.2 during the latter half of the 1960s to 3.8 during 1970-1975 and further to an average of 4.4 during the 1975-1980 period (see table 10). The largest jump in the ICOR was experienced by the non-oil-exporting African countries which had an average ICOR of 4.7 during 1975-1980 as compared to an ICOR of 4.1 for the major oil-exporting countries in the same period. This trend seems to have resulted from the general trends of large expansions in investment outlays with, however, decreasing rates of utilization of capacity, resulting, in turn, from the chronic shortages.

Data on the structure of gross fixed capital investments in Africa by type of capital goods, by kind of economic activity and by type of purchases are very scanty and often unreliable. In most cases, the data on the structure of investments are available for very few countries and even in such cases the data are for only a limited number of years. As a result, an in-depth analysis of the evolution of the structure and pattern of African investments can only be tentative and indicative.

One of the major features to note from the distribution of investment by type of economic activity in African countries is the very large share of investments for administration and services. In some countries for which data are available, investment in the services sector, excluding transport, was even over 50 per cent of total investment in the 1960s. In the 1970s indications are that the share of investments in the services sector declined but still remained high. This trend is, of course, understandable given the very large need to establish a strong social infrastructure. However, it is also apparent that the continuation of the trend for two decades has serious repercussions on the productive sectors of agriculture, mining and industry.

Table 8. Distribution of total African GDP, among subgroups of countries (in percentage shares)

	1960	1970	1980
Major oil exporters	24.3	32.7	42.1
Non-oil exporters	74.6	65.8	56.3
Least developed countries	18.9	16.4	13.3
Developing Africa	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: ECA secretariat.

share of imported capital goods in total fixed investments increased only slightly during the 1970s from an average of 31 per cent between 1970 and 1974 to an average of 33 per cent between 1975 and 1979, implying that the share of construction accounted for an average of 68 per cent of total African investments in the 1970s. However, a surprising feature of the composition of fixed investments is that the

Table 9. Structure of expenditure on GDP 1960-1980 (in percentage shares)

		Private consumption	Government consumption	Total consumption	Savings	Investment
Major oil exporters	1960	79.3	12.6	91.9	8.1	23.1
Non-oil exporters	1960	72.7	13.5	86.2	13.8	13.8
Least developed countries	1960	79.1	10.3	89.4	10.6	10.6
Developing Africa	1960	74.4	13.3	87.6	12.4	16.1

Source: ECA secretariat.

On the basis of data on the imports of capital goods and their share in total fixed investments at current prices, the trends show that in general the composition of capital formation by type of capital goods has not significantly changed during the period 1960-1980. For developing Africa as a whole, the poorer countries have a higher share of imported equipment and machinery (and hence a lower share of construction activity) in their total fixed capital formation. For example, while the share of imported machinery in total investments for the major oil-exporting countries was about 25 per cent before the oil boom (1970-1974) and 29.6 per cent during 1975-1979, the corresponding shares for the non-oil-exporting countries were 36.1 per cent and 38.6 per cent in the respective periods. Even the least developed countries have maintained a higher share of imported equipment and machinery in fixed investments than the major oil-exporting countries throughout the 1970s.

This peculiar feature may be explained by the tendency for the poorer countries to undertake more replacement investments as compared to the rich countries which, in undertaking more expansionary capital investments, have at the same time to accompany such investments with heavy and extensive construction activities. In addition, the major oil-exporting countries with more abundant resources are in a stronger position to make extensive infrastructural investment resulting in a high share of construction activities in their total investment outlay.

(d) The growth and pattern of consumption expenditure and savings in Africa, 1960-1980

For developing Africa as a whole, total real consumption expenditure (private and public) maintained a long-term growth trend of 5.3 per cent yearly in both the 1960s and the 1970s. However, during these two periods, the fastest expansion in consumption for Africa as a whole was recorded during the early post-independence period of 1965-1970 when total consumption expenditure in real terms grew by an average annual rate of 7.1 per cent as compared to a yearly recorded growth rate of only 3.6 per cent during the preceding period of 1960-1965. In the 1970s, consumption growth for Africa as a whole was steady throughout the decade.

For the region as a whole, the fastest growing component of consumption expenditure has been government consumption which accelerated from a yearly growth of 5.7 per cent during 1960-1965 to 8.3 per cent during 1965-1970 and further to 9.7 per cent during 1970-1975. During these same periods, the respective growth rates of private consumption were 3.2 per cent, 6.8 per cent and 4.2 per cent. In the latter half of the 1970s (1975-1980), public consumption expenditure in real terms decelerated slightly to an average annual rate of 6.9 per cent. On the other hand, during this period, private consumption increased at a rate of 4.7 per cent.

Table 10. Growth in fixed capital formation and incremental capital output ratio

	Capital formation growth				Incremental capital output ratio			
	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980
Major oil exporters	1.8	11.3	21.1	9.2	3.6	1.5	3.1	4.1
Non-oil exporters	5.7	6.0	6.4	5.0	3.3	2.8	2.8	4.7
Least developed	5.1	8.7	3.3	6.9	3.5	2.0	4.8	3.9
Developing Africa	4.4	7.7	12.6	7.3	3.4	2.2	3.8	4.4

Source: ECA secretariat.

The disparities in consumption expenditure growth are even wider between subgroups of countries. For example, while in the major oil-exporting countries consumption expenditure recorded average annual growth rates of 7.4 per cent and 8.4 per cent in the 1960s and 1970s respectively, the non-oil-exporting countries managed only to have consumption grow at a yearly average of 4.6 per cent and 3.5 per cent in the respective periods. Of course, the disparate growth in consumption expenditure implies that there were significant differences in *per capita* consumption and hence in welfare between subgroups of countries as is clear in table 11 summarizing the trends in *per capita* consumption expenditure.

Given the relatively low average level of *per capita* consumption in most African countries, the tendency to high marginal propensities (measured in real terms) as shown in the table is understandable. However, the trend of consistently increasing marginal propensities to consume over a 20-year period between 1960-1980 is surprising. Under normal circumstances, it would be expected that, as the income level increases over a certain period, the marginal propensities to consume would decrease or stabilize at some point when basic consumption needs have been satisfied at a certain income level. However, in developing Africa, there was an overall increase in the marginal propensities to consume with even the relatively rich oil-exporting countries experiencing a jump in their marginal propensity to consume from an average of 0.66 in the 1960s to an average of 0.88 in the 1970s. This trend would seem to be related to the uneven distribution of income and the patterns of consumption in African countries. For example, it seems clear that the sharp upshoot of the marginal propensity to consume in the oil-exporting countries from 0.76 during 1965-1970 to 1.07 during 1970-1975 resulted from conspicuous consumption which became prevalent in some of these countries soon after the oil boom. Similarly, in non-oil-exporting countries it is likely that the smaller part of the population which controls the larger part of the income has a high level of conspicuous consumption resulting in an overall increasing rate of consumption per unit increase in income.

For developing Africa as a whole the share of domestic savings in total GDP showed some declines in the 1970s, having fallen from the level of 21.5 per cent of GDP attained in 1965 to 18.3 per cent in 1980. Most of the decline in the saving ratios in the 1970s took place in two groups of countries, namely the major oil-exporting countries and the least

Table 11. Africa's marginal propensities to consume, 1960-1980

	1960-65	1965-70	1970-75	1975-80	1960-70	1970-80
Oil exporters	0.30	0.76	1.07	0.66	0.66	0.88
Non-oil exporters	0.81	0.84	0.71	0.86	0.70	0.94
Least developed	0.98	0.86	1.00	0.94	0.90	0.97
Developing Africa	0.66	0.80	0.90	0.75	0.75	0.81

Source: Based on ECA secretariat data.

developed countries. For the group of least developed countries, the savings ratio declined steadily from 10.6 per cent in 1960 to as low as 8.4 per cent in 1980. For the major oil-exporting countries, the savings ratio fluctuated significantly during both the 1960s and the 1970s, having risen from a low 8.1 per cent in 1960 to 23.3 per cent in 1970 followed by a decline in 1975 to 14.2 per cent.

Further, during the 1970s there was a pronounced decline in the marginal propensities to save for most of the groups of African countries. The marginal propensity to save for developing Africa as a whole was 0.19 during the 1970s as compared to a marginal propensity to save of 0.25 recorded in the 1960s. Among subgroups of countries, the non-oil-exporting countries registered the highest declines in the marginal propensity to save which fell from 0.30 during the period 1960-1970 to only 0.06 between 1970 and 1980.

The implications of the declining savings rates have been that the domestic resource gap has expanded steadily (see table 12). The domestic resource gap reached 7.1 per cent of GDP in 1975 and 6.6 per cent in 1980, as compared to a surplus of savings over investments during the second half of the 1960s. The largest expansions in the domestic resource gap were mainly due to the large gaps recorded by the least developed countries and the major oil-exporting countries in the period following the 1973/1974 oil boom when both consumption and investment expanded simultaneously. For these countries the gap between investment and domestic savings was as high as 18.2 per cent of GDP in 1975. The non-oil-exporting countries, on the other hand, had a low resource gap of only 1.8 per cent of GDP in 1980 and this was mainly because of the African least developed countries whose resource gap was above 7 per cent of their total GDP in 1980.

5. THE EXTERNAL SECTOR

(a) Overview of the evolution of Africa's foreign trade

Development of the foreign trade sector in the African continent has been a slow and painstaking process in the face of international financial difficulties, continuous re-institution of barriers to trade and the fierce competition. Developing African countries have relied heavily on foreign trade to exchange their relatively abundant natural resources for manufactured and semi-manufactured products which they basically lack. Under colonial rule, development of the foreign trade sector in developing Africa as a whole was sporadic but gained momentum in the 1960s after the era of independence and political stability prior to which trade was conducted outside the sphere of the national economy. Trade was mainly confined to a few products of closed enclavic extractive industries owned by foreign companies and operated by foreign expertise. Foreign enterprises not only entirely dominated the production and marketing of exported minerals and primary products but also had control over the basic services, such as transport, insurance, financing and shipping. In the circumstances, foreign trade remained unlinked to the development of natural resources, as most of the export proceeds were not ploughed back into the economy. Furthermore, the degree of processing and fabrication was very low, as most of the processing was done outside the countries, with an enormous loss of foreign exchange revenue.

Table 12. Investment/savings gap as a percentage of GDP.

	1960	1970	1975	1980
Major oil exporters	15.0	-5.4	18.2	13.0
Non-oil exporters	0.1	-2.9	0.4	1.8
Least developed	0.0	3.0	4.7	7.6
Developing Africa	3.7	-1.8	7.1	6.6

Source: ECA secretariat.

Developing African countries became more trade-dependent over the 1960s. In the 1960s, foreign trade moved into new lines covering a wide range of manufactured and semi-manufactured goods. During this period, not only did the volume of trade and the range of exported commodities increase as a result of diversification policies but the quality also was improved significantly by further processing. However, such development was not without its costs. Owing to the highly elastic foreign demand on labour-intensive primary products of developing countries, the 1960s were generally characterized by increased sales at lower prices as the domestic demand was much too weak to absorb surpluses. On the other hand, the 1970s were characterized by the orientation of trade to domestic needs to guard against the continuous decline in prices of primary products. By this time, the absorptive capacity of most African economies was relatively enhanced and the size of the domestic markets was expanding enough to absorb effectively the surpluses. The establishment of "export-processing zones" with an increased degree of processing and fabrication not only provided for more employment opportunities but also increased the chances for enormous gains in foreign exchange income which otherwise would have accrued to economies outside Africa. The policy of export promotion was supplemented by an inward-looking pattern of development of trade by pursuing import-substitution policies which are self-reliant in nature. With such trade policies, the improvement in the quality of exported commodities not only increased their competitive edge in external markets and enabled some African countries to capture part of the European markets for manufactured goods, but also enhanced slightly their bargaining power in international markets.

(b) Exports

African trade is typified by an inflexible export structure. The share of primary commodities in African total exports has remained dominant throughout the last two decades. The bulk of African exports consists largely of agricultural primary products and one or two major mineral products.

On the whole, African exports are heavily concentrated in view of the fact that only a few commodities, namely cotton, copper, coffee, cocoa, groundnuts, and wood and timber, alone comprised about 45.6 per cent and 61.7 per cent of total exports in 1960 and 1969 respectively. In the first half of the 1960s, cotton was the leading export commodity in the composition of African exports commanding about 12.1 per cent of total exports earnings. In the same period, copper accounted for 9.8 per cent of total exports, followed by cocoa (7.4 per cent) and coffee (6.7 per cent). The role of crude petroleum in the early 1960s was quite insignificant, activities being mainly at the exploration stage.

Slight changes, however, occurred in the second half of the 1960s when agricultural exports lost ground to mineral exports. The change in the trend is attributed to improvement in world prices of minerals rather than to a fall in the volume of agricultural exports. During the period 1965-1969, exports of copper accounted for 9.1 per cent of total export earnings while cotton's contribution to total exports was only 7.9 per cent, coffee's 7.1 per cent and cocoa's 7.4 per cent. However, the most important single change in the pattern of Africa's

primary product exports that occurred during the period 1965-1969 was the rapid rise in crude petroleum exports which rose from $200 million in 1960 to $3,250 million in 1969, an increase of almost 16 times which was mainly due to the spectacular expansion of production in the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya and Nigeria, which together commanded 68 per cent of total African exports in that period. Another feature accounting for the continuing decline in exports of agricultural products is the increased processing for local consumption as a result of import-substitution policies widely pursued during the second half of the 1960s.

While the shares of exported agricultural products and minerals tended to fall over the years and the share of crude petroleum exports to gain prominence, following the first world oil crisis of 1973-1974, the share of agricultural products dropped seriously to 16.5 per cent, 10.9 per cent and to slightly less than 5 per cent in 1970, 1975 and 1980 respectively. Similarly, the share of minerals in total exports fell significantly to 15.3 per cent, 7.7 per cent and only 2.4 per cent in the same respective periods. Such changes were merely a reflection of changes in world oil prices. While the international prices of crude petroleum more than doubled in 1974 and quadrupled in 1978, the world prices of copper dropped notably from the highest level of $2,059 per ton in 1974 to about $1,276 in 1978.

None the less, African commodity export concentration in the 1970s still retained its predominance of the 1960s but with a different relative importance in ranking. Naturally, the concentration of African exports is explained by the comparative advantage of making use of the readily available agricultural and mineral resources in the continent. However, such concentration on primary products brought about peculiar difficulties in the balance of payments in view of the highly inelastic supply of primary products in the short run and price instability in international markets. African markets have no capacity to absorb surplus if foreign demand for primary products falls. In the circumstances, they would be tempted to export at lower prices as was done in the 1960s which were typified by increased sales of primary products at low prices to maintain export revenues. To overcome such an untoward situation some African countries in the 1970s, in an effort to maintain the prices of their primary products, managed to gear the resources towards import-substitution so as to absorb the surpluses locally and compensate for the loss of foreign exchange by generating more value added by increased processing.

The development of the export sector in many developing African countries has been hampered by both domestic and external factors. Most notable are the development of the technology of synthetics and substitutes, quota restrictions imposed by the developed countries on labour-intensive products, severe competition from products of other developing countries, weak competitive bargaining power in international markets, low levels of capacity utilization, declining agricultural productivity and high import content as African exports on the main are import-reliant.

The rapid rise in both value and quantum indices of exports in the 1960s was indicative of an excellent performance level. Value indices of exports for developing Africa as a whole rose from 68.3 in 1960 (1965=100) to 148.6 in 1969 as against an increase of 74.3 to 135.7 for developing countries as a whole in the same period. Similarly, the quantum indices for the same period reflected volume increases from 68.3 to 134.2, which compared favourably with the figures of 74.3 and 131.9 for developing countries as a whole. There is, however, a clear indication that the overall changes in export values resulted mainly from changes in the volume of exports rather than from price changes. During the 1960s, export prices generally remained fairly steady over the period except for the sharp fall in cocoa prices and the substantial increases in the price of copper at the close of the decade. In all, the price index for African exports rose by just over 4 per cent during the 1960s.

The export performance of developing Africa as a whole in the 1960s was remarkable, especially in the second half of the decade, compared to the sluggish performance in the 1970s. Developing Africa as a whole had achieved an average annual rate of growth of 5.5 per cent in real terms during 1960-1965 and of 6 per cent during 1965-1970, which compared favourably with a mere 0.5 per cent and 3.8 per cent during 1970-1975 and 1975-1980 respectively. The deterioration in the growth of exports in that period was largely attributable to the fall in crude petroleum exports which amounted to nearly 60 per cent and 75 per cent of Africa's total exports in 1975 and 1980 respectively. The sluggish growth of exports in 1970-1975 was mainly a result of the cuts in petroleum production owing to slow world demand for oil resulting from the first oil crisis of 1973-1974. The slight improvement in the growth of exports which came thereafter in the second half of the 1970s was a mere reflection of the

adjustment process under way for the restructuring of the trade base.

In oil-exporting countries as a group, after a remarkable growth rate in real terms of 12.6 per cent and 11.7 per cent on a yearly basis during the periods 1960-1965 and 1965-1970 respectively, growth slipped seriously to a deceleration of 6 per cent during 1970-1975 and to a marginal recovery of 2.4 per cent during 1975-1980. All but Gabon registered negative or small increases during 1970-1975. The deceleration was most serious in the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya which recorded a decline of 13.9 per cent during the period in question. The achievement of Nigeria was quite modest (only 1 per cent growth compared to an acceleration of 7.4 per cent for Gabon). Algeria, too, was hard hit by the slow growth of world demand for oil. Its export growth rate fell from a level of 9.2 per cent during 1965-1970 to a serious deceleration of 4 per cent on average yearly during 1970-1975. On the whole, the period 1975-1980 was not exceptionally good for the group of oil-exporting countries, which all recorded only marginal increases (1.8 per cent, 3.9 per cent, 1.1 per cent and 4.7 per cent for Algeria, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Nigeria and Gabon respectively).

On the other hand, the non-oil-exporting countries as a group managed to keep their growth momentum of the 1960s. After a slight drop in their average annual growth rates from 3.6 per cent and 3.8 per cent during 1960-1965 and 1965-1970 respectively to 3.2 per cent during 1970-1975, they picked up markedly to 4.3 per cent during 1975-1980. Evidently, the performance of individual countries reveals a mix of achievement levels.

To reverse the unfavourable export trends of the last two decades, the immediate task for developing African countries in the short run is to work out joint policies to secure remunerative and stable prices for the exports of primary commodities at the international level by establishing and strengthening the existing associations of primary producing countries. The long-term objective for them is to remove the structural imbalances inhibiting their economies for a long time by changing their production structure in such a manner as to change the commodity composition of their exports so as to maximize their export earnings therefrom.

Table 13: Average annual growth rates of exports by income groups, 1960-1980

	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980
Major oil-exporting countries	12.6	11.7	-6.0	2.4
Non-oil exporting countries	3.6	3.8	3.2	4.3
Developing Africa	5.5	6.0	0.5	3.8

Source : ECA secretariat.

(c) Imports

While the dependence of developing African countries on foreign sources of supply continued to increase over the years, the structure of imports has remained fairly constant, with no significant changes in commodity composition. Nevertheless, changes in the commodity composition of imports tend to vary among countries depending on their level of resource endowment and type and degree of industrialization.

The leading commodity groups in developing Africa's imports are food, beverages and tobacco, industrial inputs and machinery and transport equipment. Except for a slight decrease in 1961 which was eventually offset by a rise in imports of capital goods, imports of consumer goods commanded the largest share in the total import bill ranging between 40 and 50 per cent during the first half of the 1960s. Conversely, in the second half of the 1960s the decrease in the relative importance of food and tobacco, whose share fell by 3.2 percentage points from 18.3 per cent in 1960-1964 to 15.1 in 1965-1969, was more than matched by the increase in the

proportion of machinery and transport equipment which rose appreciably from 28.6 per cent to 34.7 per cent during the two periods. The high proportion of transport equipment and machinery in total imports in the second half of the 1960s is mainly attributed to the development of mining and railway schemes. During the 1960-1965 period imports of machinery and transport equipment constituted about 81.1 per cent on average yearly of the value of gross domestic fixed capital formation as compared to 55.6 per cent during 1970-1975. However, such high dependence is likely to continue in future in view of the limited facilities for the production of capital goods and the growing need to keep up the tempo of accelerated development going on in the region.

On the other hand, the years 1970 and 1975 recorded increases in the proportion of consumer goods and a decline in the relative importance of capital goods whose share had dropped significantly from 34.7 per cent in 1965 to 31.6 per cent and 32.5 per cent in 1970 and 1975 respectively. This was attributed to the slow-down in the level of non-petroleum mining development in those periods. The proportion of imports for consumption in total imports in 1970 and 1975 was the highest in 20 years. In some countries, especially those seriously affected by drought, the rises in the food import bill stripped off about 20 to 30 per cent of their export earnings. If such a trend continued, it may well be unfavourable for Africa's future development.

The growth of imports over the last 20 years has been mixed. While the average annual growth rate advanced rapidly from 1960 to the first half of the 1970s, the tempo was moderated during the second half of the 1970s. Imports grew by an average annual rate of growth in real terms of 2.4 per cent, 5.5 per cent and 8.9 per cent during 1960-1965, 1965-1970 and 1970-1975 respectively. After the spectacular expansion during the period 1970-1975, the average annual rate of growth of imports fell dramatically to its lowest level of only 3 per cent during 1975-1980.

Table 14 : Average annual growth rates of imports by income groups, 1960-1980

	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980
Major oil exporting countries	-2.0	9.2	19.9	0.5
Non-oil exporting countries	4.0	4.2	3.4	4.7
Developing Africa	2.4	5.5	8.9	3.0

Source: ECA secretariat.

While the growth of imports kept pace with the growth of exports over most of the period, the most striking feature was the tremendous rise in imports during 1970-1975 and the serious deterioration of exports during that period, the lowest ever in a span of 20 years. There is, however, reason to believe that the disappointing export performance of oil-exporting countries during this period and the financing of the ongoing large development projects which had initiated a huge amount of imports were the main causes behind this phenomenon. The average annual import growth rate of oil-exporting countries rose appreciably from 9.2 per cent during 1965-1970 to 19.9 per cent in the period 1970-1975 while the corresponding rate for their exports fell from 11.7 per cent to a deceleration of 6 per cent during the respective periods. It is only in two periods, namely 1965-1969 and 1975-1980, that exports grew at a faster rate than imports.

On the other hand, the imports of non-oil-exporting countries kept the same pattern of growth over the years 1960-1980 except for a slight drop in the period 1970-1975. The average annual growth of imports within this group of countries rose marginally from 4 per cent to 4.2 per cent during 1960-1965 and 1965-1970 respectively but slipped to

3.4 per cent during 1970-1975 to rise again to 4.7 per cent in the period 1975-1980.

(d) Trade balance

The overall visible trade balance for developing Africa as a whole has moved from chronic deficit in the mid-1950s to small deficits and surpluses in the 1960s and through the 1970s. Between 1960 and 1980, developing Africa as a whole incurred a deficit in only seven years. The visible trade balance slumped into a deficit up to 1965 but improved steadily thereafter to 1980 except for a substantial deficit in 1975 and 1978. The deficit of 1960 of $1,015 billion turned into a surplus of $1,749 billion in 1970 and an appreciable surplus of $29,048 billion in 1980.

Trade for developing Africa as a whole expanded substantially during this period from $4.9 billion in 1960 to $12.7 billion and $89.6 billion in 1970 and 1980 respectively for exports and from $5.9 billion in 1960 to $10.9 billion and $60.6 billion in 1970 and 1980 respectively for imports.

Table 16. Value of imports (billions of US dollars)

	1960	1970	1980
Major oil exporting countries	2.070	2.922	25.946
Non-oil exporting countries	3.837	8.030	34.652
Developing Africa	5.907	10.953	60.598

Source: ECA secretariat.

The ratio of the import coverage by African exports has been growing substantially over the years. Nevertheless, whereas in recent years the size of the surplus has tended to increase, there was absolutely no rise in the region's share in world trade. Africa's share in world exports declined from 4.3 per cent in the period 1960-1965 to 3.6 per cent in 1965-1969 and to 3.9 per cent and 3.4 per cent in 1970 and 1979 respectively.

However, the surpluses in the trade balance were largely attributable to the oil-exporting countries of the region. Oil-exporting countries as a group registered significant increases in their trade balance. After incurring large deficits of $1,143 billion in 1960 and a small surplus of $458 million in 1965, they moved into tremendous surpluses of $1,799 billion, $4,420 billion and $37,913 billion in 1970, 1975 and 1980 respectively.

Table 15. Value of exports (billions of US dollars)

	1960	1970	1980
Major oil exporting countries	0.927	4.721	63.863
Non-oil exporting countries	3.965	7.982	25.773
Developing Africa	4.892	12.703	89.636

Source: ECA secretariat.

Table 17. Balance of trade (billions of US dollars)

	1960	1970	1980
Major oil exporting countries	-1.143	1.799	37.913
Non-oil exporting countries	0.128	-0.050	-8.865
Developing Africa	-1.015	1.749	29.048

Source: ECA secretariat.

The non-oil-exporting countries have continuously run a deficit in their trade balance during the last two decades except for small surpluses of $128 million realized in 1960. The gap widened faster in the last years of the 1970s where the combined deficit rose from $500 million in 1970 to $6,904 billion in 1975 and to $8,865 billion in 1980 with tendencies for future deficit accumulation owing to escalating oil prices, bounding inflation and weak and limited bargaining power in international markets and the inability to raise export capacities to a substantial level. The value of exports rose from $4 billion in 1960 to $8 billion, $15.6 billion and $25.8 billion in 1970, 1975 and 1980 respectively against a substantial rise in imports from $3.8 billion to $8 billion, $22 billion and $34.6 billion in the respective periods. The ratio of import coverage by exports was very low in most of the countries. Only 10 countries in 1980 were able to maintain more than a unity ratio. The majority of countries ran into such serious deficits that the restoration of their balance of trade seems to be unlikely in future without long-term remedial measures.

(e) Direction of trade

No basic changes occurred during the period 1960-1980 in the direction of trade. There were, however, tendencies during the 1970s, although limited in scope, towards some measures of diversification away from traditional partners in respect of both exports and imports. None the less, such tendencies did not lead to radical changes as expected mainly because of certain limitations stemming largely from the long-standing commercial links with traditional trade partners and difficulties encountered in opening up new outlets. The diversification measures were on the whole sporadic as they were mainly dictated by political affiliation. Indeed, the great bulk of developing Africa's trade in the 1970s continued along the same direction of the 1960s with some minor shifts.

As is seen from table 18, trade of developing Africa with the main trading areas has exhibited various trends between 1960 and 1980:

(a) Developed market economies continued to be the major trading partners for developing African countries with the growth in exports slower than imports. However as from the second half of 1970s some changes were anticipated in the flow of trade between the two traditional trade partners;

(b) Trade with developing countries remained small and stagnated between 1960 and 1980;

(c) Trade with the centrally planned economies was not only quantitatively insignificant but exhibited a declining trend;

(d) The small share of intra-African trade in developing Africa's overall trade - mostly food - failed to grow and even declined in recent years.

Trade relations between African countries are still relatively undeveloped owing to poor transport and communication facilities, inadequate financing system and credit facilities, imposition of heavy tariff walls and inadequate commodity market research and trade promotion facilities. However, measures should be considered at both the national and the regional levels to reverse this trend and to enhance trade flows among developing African countries by devising special forms of co-operation among them especially as regards payments and trade agreements. The Lagos Plan of Action has placed priority on the development and expansion of trade as one way among others of pulling the African masses out of their vicious circle of poverty. Of particular importance, the Plan of Action calls for expanding intra-African trade through a comprehensive long-term programme of economic co-operation among African countries. In accordance with the Plan a treaty was signed recently by the Heads of State of the Eastern and Southern African subregion to establish a Preferential Trade Area. In addition to ECOWAS and other standing co-operation arrangements, efforts are being made to establish the Economic Community of Central African States following the Summit Conference of Heads of State held in Libreville from 17 to 19 December 1981. The establishment of regional development banks and the establishment of a Central African Clearing House are other efforts to promote such co-operation and to expand intra-African trade to its desired levels.

(f) Terms of trade

Terms of trade over the 1960s did not record a significant move in favour of developing African countries and were slightly lower than in both developed market economies and developing countries as a whole.

Table 18. Trade of developing Africa with main trading areas

Export destination/ Import origin	Exports			Imports		
	1960-64 average	1970	1979	1960-64 average	1970	1979
World	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Developed market economies	77.1	78.3	81.6	75.1	77.3	78.7
Centrally planned economies	6.2	7.0	2.6	6.0	10.1	7.6
Developing Africa	6.3	5.4	3.7	5.6	n.a.	n.a.
Other developing countries	10.4	9.3	12.1	13.3	12.6	13.7

Source: *United Nations Yearbook of International Trade Statistics,* 1968. *United Nations Monthly Bulletin of Statistics,* January 1971 and July 1981.

Table 19. Terms of trade of developed and developing countries 1960-1969 = (1965 = 100)

	1960	1966	1967	1968	1969
Developed market economies	98.0	101.0	101.0	101.0	101.0
Developing countries	105.1	102.0	101.0	102.0	103.0
Developing Africa	99.0	98.0	97.0	100.0	100.0
	Purchasing power of exports				
Developed market economies	68.6	108.4	115.3	130.0	145.6
Developing countries	78.1	106.5	109.9	122.8	135.9
Developing Africa	73.88	109.7	106.4	123.0	144.9

Source: United Nations Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, January 1971.

On the other hand, the income terms of trade (the import purchasing power of export earnings) recorded significant increases over the entire period of the 1960s.

The 1970s reflected the same trend as the 1960s. For a large part of the 1970s, except for 1979 and 1980, African developing countries were getting less imports for their unit value of exports. Surprisingly, most of the gains in the terms of trade were experienced by non-oil-exporting countries as compared to the unfavourable terms of trade for oil-exporting countries as a group in the same period. However, with the quadrupling of oil prices in 1978-1979, the terms of trade of oil-exporting countries moved into considerable gains, raising the overall average of developing Africa to 110 and 147 in 1979 and 1980. While the purchasing power of exports of oil-exporting countries, with the hikes in oil prices, rose faster between 1975 and 1980, the non-oil-exporting countries also showed a steady improvement in the purchasing power of exports between the respective years.

(g) Balance of payments

The balance of payments in most developing African countries showed a constant downward trend during the 1960s and 1970s. In the first half of the 1960s, very few countries enjoyed a balance-of-payments surplus except for Zambia and the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya. In the second half of the 1960s, the majority of African countries continued to face the same situation as in the first half but with some stability owing to a move towards more genuine monetary independence. The major factors which led to the improvement of developing Africa's overall balance-of-payments position have been the develop-

Table 20. Terms of trade (1975 = 100)

	1970	1975	1978	1979	1980
Oil exporting countries a/	34	100	98	115	170
Non-oil exporting countries	117	100	101	101	113
Developing Africa	65	100	99	110	147
Purchasing power of exports (1975 = 100)					
Oil exporting countries a/	51	100	118	144	188
Non-oil exporting countries	109	100	110	117	108
Developing Africa	79	100	114	135	152

Source : ECA secretariat.

a/ Excluding Gabon.

ment of oil production, particularly in the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, and the increased copper prices which benefited both Zambia and the Congo tremendously. The other factor, although of less importance, which led to the relative improvement of the overall balance of payments was the reduction of imports as a deliberate policy act to redress balance-of-payments disequilibria as in the case of Egypt and some other countries.

Table 21 clearly shows that the 1970s was a period characterized by serious balance-of-payments pressures in most African developing countries. With the growing decline in the current account during the 1970s there was a continuous drain on foreign exchange reserves which fell dramatically from a surplus of $1.3 billion in 1970 to a deficit of $2.8 billion in 1978. More alarming is the fact that the increase in capital flows and official transfers, which remained fairly constant over the period, was not growing sufficiently to redress the imbalance in the current account and to provide for more improvement in the reserve position.

The oil-exporting countries as a group had enjoyed trade surpluses throughout the 1970s, yet heavy drains on their foreign exchange reserves were quite evident in 1975 and 1978. The current account, after experiencing a substantial deficit of $5.1 billion in 1978, recovered remarkably in 1979 and 1980 depicting a surplus of $7 billion and $15.9 billion respectively, largely owing to increases in exports in the two years of 57.7 per cent and 45.6 per cent respectively.

The non-oil-exporting countries, on the other hand, recorded a large current account deficit over the 1970s, and especially in the last few years. Consequently, the years 1979 and 1980 were characterized by extreme pressure on reserves in spite of the increases in capital inflow. After registering a drop in 1975 and 1978 of $600 million and $100 million respectively total change in reserves increased to $700 million in 1980, the highest level in 10 years.

The overall effect was a wider resource gap which had largely to be covered by loans, grants and transfers to Governments. In an effort to cushion balance-of-payments difficulties, developing African countries relied heavily in recent years on international capital markets, IMF and capital originating from the members of OPEC and the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of OECD through bilateral and multilateral financing arrangements. To correct the persistent imbalances in the payment situation, developing African countries resorted heavily to foreign borrowing.

Total net financial flows to developing countries of Africa from all sources not only increased by 6.1 per cent on a yearly basis between 1975 and 1979, but the rate of concessionality of these flows remained fairly stable over these years.

Official and private flows not only constituted the bulk of the bilateral flows from DAC countries but were growing over time. They increased from $7.6 billion in 1975 to $12.7 billion in 1979. The official development assistance (ODA) was also rising faster in the same period, from $2.9 billion in 1975 to $5.8 billion in 1979. The share of ODA

in the total net bilateral flows from DAC countries increased appreciably from 27.8 per cent in 1975 to 30.2 per cent in 1979, while the share of official and private debt slightly declined over the same period. In accordance with the Strategy for the Second United Nations Development Decade, which invited developed countries to transfer to the developing countries annually the equivalent of 1 per cent of their GNP in real terms, with the target for ODA fixed at 0.7 per cent, OECD countries as a whole slightly exceeded the GNP target but failed to achieve the ODA target. Net disbursement of ODA as a percentage of GNP and OECD countries was only 0.34 per cent in 1979.

Table 21. Balance of payments of developing Africa (billions of US dollars)

	1970	1975	1978	1979	1980
Exports (f.o.b.)	12.3	34.9	48.0	68.2	92.8
Imports (f.o.b.)	-10.3	-35.8	-51.2	-58.0	-72.7
Trade balance (f.o.b.)	2.0	-0.9	-3.2	10.2	20.1
Net services and private transfers	-3.4	-8.5	-11.8	-14.1	-15.9
Balance on current account	-1.4	-9.4	-15.0	-3.9	4.2
Official transfers (net)	1.2	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.4
Capital (net)	2.2	6.1	10.4	11.5	8.8
Net errors and omissions	-0.7	-1.5	-0.6	-3.6	-2.2
Total change in reserves	-1.3	2.3	2.8	-7.0	-13.2

Source: ECA secretariat estimates based on *International Financial Statistics*, vol. XXXIV, Nos. 11 (November 1981) and 12 (December 1981), and Yearbook 1981; *World Economic Outlook*, Occasional paper, No. 4 (Washington, IMF, 1981); and information obtained from African developing countries.

Table 22. Total net financial flows from DAC and OPEC member countries and from multilateral agencies to developing countries of Africa 1975-1979 (billions of US dollars)

	Concessional	Non-concessional	Total
1975	6.861	6.166	13.027
1976	6.113	5.654	11.767
1977	7.440	7.852	15.292
1978	8.562	11.034	19.596
1979	8.695	7.828	16.523

Source: Handbook of International Trade and Development Statistics, Supplement 1980 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E/F.80.II.D.10), pp. 276-277.

The net bilateral financial flows from OPEC countries to developing Africa as a whole not only decreased in absolute value from $3.7 billion in 1975 to a mere $1 billion in 1979, but the rate of concessionality declined sharply in 1978 and 1979, being only 82.2 per cent of total net financial flows in 1978 and 63.1 per cent in 1979 as compared to 90.3 per cent in 1977. Moreover, in these last years, a large proportion of the total debt for developing Africa, had been obtained as commercial loans (suppliers' credit) on hard terms inappropriate to African circumstances. On the other hand, balance-of-payments support extended by IMF under its compensatory financing facility only provided an interim solution arising from contingencies such as the assistance following increases in world oil prices and not movements of long-term capital, detrimental to Africa's future development hopes.

Nevertheless, the total outstanding debt of developing Africa as a whole, which amounted to $47.8 billion in 1980, represented only about 11 per cent of the total debt outstanding of all developing countries, a fact which makes Africa the least indebted continent. The continuous declining indebtedness of Africa is seen from the yearly decreases in the rate of increase of debt. The rate of increase of 11 per cent in 1980 was the lowest experienced since 1973.There are however no grounds for assuming that the needs of the African continent for foreign resources are decreasing but rather the high interest in the capital market and the stagflation (inflationary recession) afflicting the OECD countries are the main factors that have limited the ability of African countries to have more access to external sources of finance. Moreover, repayment commitments constitute a continuous drain on developing Africa's foreign resources particularly with the slow expansion of exports in recent years. Had not arrears on debt repayments been disguised in official records, the balance-of-payments of most developing African countries would have shown a wider gap than hitherto. The debt service ratio to total export earnings increased from 6.3 per cent in 1970 to 9.5 per cent in 1978 for developing Africa as a whole and about 11.4 per cent of total export receipts were paid in 1979 to meet debt charges. However, this ratio varies widely among countries, ranging from 2 per cent to over 30 per cent during the period 1970-1979. The ratio is exceptionally high for the Sudan, Mauritania, Algeria, Togo, Guinea, Sierra Leone, Morocco and Zambia, where it stood at over 20 per cent in 1979.

However, in the face of the growing formidable difficulties encountered in acquiring financial funds from foreign sources and the bouncing repayment obligations, most of the African countries are now increasingly inclined to cushion balance-of-payments problems as far as possible by aid and soft loans with less recourse to loans on hard terms. Of utmost importance, Africa has now to continue to guard, more than ever, against future repayment commitments which cannot be sustained by increases in exports and to follow a coherent self-reliant approach to development, as stipulated in the Lagos Plan of Action, whereby a considerable part of foreign loans must be used to earn foreign revenue by enhancing the capacity of export industries and to save foreign exchange by import substitution development which in nature is an internally-generated process.

6. SOCIAL TRENDS

The very modest rates of growth recorded for the major productive sectors over the past two decades in the face of rapidly rising population have meant that the expansion of facilities for and the benefits of growth including opportunities for gainful employment, education, health care and sustained improvements in living conditions in general have on average been slow and uneven.

Available evidence indicates that there is still a high incidence of unemployment, underemployment and mass poverty in the region although available data are sketchy and do not lend themselves readily to intertemporal comparison. Nevertheless it is known that in 1975 out of a total estimated regional labour force of 140 million, about 63 million or 45 per cent comprised the unemployed or underemployed. Some 10 million people representing 35.9 per cent of the total were in urban areas and 53 million or 47.3 per cent in rural areas. These numbers and ratios were projected to increase so that by 1980 the estimated total labour force in Africa would be 165.4 million or 36.2 per cent of the total population. Of the total 32.9 million people that would have been added to the total labour force during the 1970s only 18.1 million would have found remunerative employment 1/. With such a high rate of unemployment and underemployment it is not surprising that the problem of mass poverty has become more pervasive in Africa. Available data on income distribution coupled with data on *per capita* income suggest that about 257 million or 70 per cent of the estimated total African population is now destitute (i.e. seriously below the poverty line) or on the verge of poverty.

The creation of job opportunities has accordingly remained a major preoccupation of the Governments of African developing countries and considerable efforts have been expended in this respect. Such efforts have, however, been thwarted by such factors as the imbalance between the growth of the labour force, urban population, education and overall growth of the economy; the imbalance between job expectations as opposed to available job opportunities; and the imbalance in factor mix owing to artificial distortions in factor and product prices. Employment growth has in addition been constrained by international trade and aid restrictions as well as the persistent deterioration in the region's terms of trade.

1/ *ILO, Employment, growth and basic needs - A one-world problem, 1976.*

On gaining independence, African Governments recognized the importance of education as an important catalyst in social development and economic growth. Accordingly high priority has continued to be given to the development of this sector. Budget allocations for education have generally ranged from 18 to 28 per cent of public expenditures. The progress made over the last two decades has therefore been quite impressive. Thus whereas in 1961 primary school enrolments in Africa covered barely two fifths of the relevant age group, secondary education only 3 per cent and tertiary education a mere fifth of one per cent, in 1977, the ratios were 70 per cent, 14 per cent and 1.8 per cent respectively. In spite of these quantitative gains, education has continued to pose serious difficulties to Governments in the region. Much inequality still exists in the distribution of educational opportunities by region, sex and income group. Efforts to widen educational opportunities have come up against limited resources. Furthermore the quality of education generally offered has been such that rather than holding out the promise to encourage employment opportunities, education may have aggravated the unemployment situation to the extent that because of the mismatch between some educational products and available job opportunities, the ranks of the educated unemployed have been growing.

Marked improvements have also taken place in the level of health standards in the region. This is particularly true of such areas as mother and child care, the control of communicable diseases and health education. The overall doctor/population ratio for the region was 1:6,500 in 1978 against 1:10,000 in 1970. However, like educational facilities, health facilities are still grossly inadequate and unevenly distributed. Facilities generally favour urban concentrations, curative rather than preventive medicine is generally stressed and there is a preference for capital-intensive construction techniques. Efforts are, however, being made to change this situation. New and non-traditional approaches to health delivery, particularly in the rural areas, have been initiated by some Governments.

The rapid pace of urbanization observed throughout Africa has brought with it a variety of social problems which continue to call for urgent government action. Perhaps the most acute of these problems is the shortage of adequate housing. It is estimated that for the region as a whole the rate of increase in housing is approximately three units per thousand people annually, while the need is estimated at 10 to 13 units per thousand. With the growth rate of African towns and cities estimated at 5 per cent on average per annum, the urban population estimated to be living in slum and squatter settlements is between 50 and 60 per cent.

7. CONCLUSION

Economic growth in the African region during the last two decades or so, modest and fluctuating as it is, has been associated with a number of disquieting trends in the pace and structure of production and consumption and thereby the behaviour of the external sector.

On the production side, the performance of both agriculture and manufacturing has been unsatisfactory. In fact, there was a serious decline in *per capita* agricultural production especially food production where the average citizen nowadays has access to about 10 per cent less locally produced food than a decade ago notwithstanding the already low calorific intake. Further, these trends have not only affected rural people's welfare but have also given rise to a whole gamut of reverse multipliers on overall growth, exports and government revenue and contributed to the slow growth in manufacturing.

Still small and largely agro-based, the manufacturing sector, once viewed as the major instrument of economic transformation and economic independence, has failed to grow sufficiently, has remained structurally the same, is dominated by production of simple consumer goods and is characterized by small largely import-based production units with poor local linkages. Only a few countries have tried to develop heavy industries, without much success. Perhaps the major commendable thrust has been the vigorous adherence to the policy of import-substitution by the majority of countries and, in a few cases, the development of export-oriented industries. Numerous factors have however held down the growth of this sector. Beside the poor performance of agriculture, there are for instance such factors as poor planning and management, shortages in spare parts, raw materials and working capital, lack of modernization, heavy reliance on imports and pricing problems among others.

Mining, on which many countries of the region depend, continues, as has historically been the case, an isolated export-enclave almost completely dependent on the vagaries of international demand. Even when demand improves, however, more often than not transport problems prevent many mineral exporters from exploiting the situation.

The commercial energy position, although adequate on balance, is characterized by the existence of a few oil-surplus groups and a majority of oil importers. While the former benefited from ample availability of this source of energy in addition to oil revenue, the latter have continued to suffer acute shortages in view of their limited ability to import oil particularly in recent years. The growth implications of this limitation have proved far-reaching for a number of countries.

Inadequate transport, too, has proved to be a further constraint on growth and trade at both the country as well as the subregional and regional levels. Great hopes are indeed pinned on the successful implementation of the Transport and Communications Decade in Africa.

These production trends, and particularly those of agriculture and manufacturing which constitute the bulk of consumption demand, suggest *inter alia* a highly unbalanced structure of growth in the light of prevailing consumption and investment patterns in the region.

Consumption expenditure has increased in a periodic fashion similar to that of income, although at a slower rate. This is due to the low growth of private consumption which mitigated the accelerated expansion in government expenditure. As a result, consumption as a proportion of GDP has declined slightly but remained relatively high. Most alarming however has been the consistent rise in the marginal propensity to consume during the last two decades in almost all subregions notwithstanding the need to increase savings efforts. However, there were wide disparities when ratios are considered for subregions or by major groups. While in the North African subregion consumption accelerated, it decelerated in other subregions with the East African subregion showing the highest drop in growth between the 1960s and the 1970s. Groupwise, however, the rate of growth of consumption in the major oil exporters was considerably higher than that of the non-oil exporters. However, in view of the sharp rise in GDP growth, the share of consumption in GDP in the former group has decreased considerably during this period although in a fluctuating pattern. In contrast, the share of consumption in GDP in the least developed countries increased.

As a consequence of these developments, the region's overall savings rate has improved but again mainly because of the oil exporters as the ratios for the non-oil exporters increased only modestly with the least developed countries among them actually experiencing a decline in their savings ratios. However, during the 1970s, there was a marked decline in the marginal propensities to save for the region as a whole.

On the other hand, gross capital formation as a proportion of GDP increased steadily in developing Africa. Regionwise, however, while investment ratios doubled in the West African subregion and were highest in the North African subregion, the East African subregion experienced a decline. Although these higher levels of investment were associated with higher growth, over all this was accompanied by a considerable fall in the rate of utilization. Moreover, the trends in the sectoral distribution of this investment have had serious implications for the productive sectors of agriculture, mining and industry. However, the composition of investment by type of capital goods has not changed significantly during the period. It is to be noted that the poorer countries had a higher share of imported equipment and machinery in their capital formation which underlines the degree of their increased dependence on the external sector to build their domestic production capacities.

The decline in savings rates in times of an increased tempo of investment resulted in a widening of the domestic resource gap.

Through exports and imports, the foreign sector has historically played a major role in the development and transformation of African economies. The 1960s saw a noticeable diversification and improvement in the quality of the region's exports, the main thrust being the maximization of export earnings but that was obtained only at the cost of lower prices due to fierce international competition. In the 1970s, there was a gradual move to meet domestic demand and hence export promotion was supplemented by an inward-looking pattern of development of trade through the pursuit of import-substitution policies.

But, in general, the structure of exports remained concentrated on primary agricultural products and one or two major mineral products. This concentration proved costly in view of the inelastic supply of products and the extreme fluctuations in their prices. Nevertheless, over all, export performance was remarkable in the 1960s owing to increased volumes rather than improvement in prices. However, performance during the 1970s was disappointing owing to the fall in the volume of oil exports

which accounted for the major part of the package. At the root of these developments are such factors as the development of synthetic substitutes, competition and trade barriers as well as recessionary conditions in the developed economies and stagnation of agricultural production in the region. Demand for imports on the other hand increased steadily to augment local consumption and help to build domestic capacity but their structure remained fairly much the same, dominated by food, industrial raw materials and equipment. The faster growth of imports than of exports precipitated acute chronic balance-of-payments problems for a great number of countries in the non-oil exporting group. The fortunes of the oil exporters were remarkably favourable with growing surpluses in their external transactions. There has not been any significant change either in the direction or in the terms of trade during this period. The share of intra-African trade also continued to be small and has even declined.

The imbalance in the external account led to a continuous decline in foreign exchange reserves as the level of official capital flows remained fairly stagnant. With international demand for the region's exports continuing fairly sticky and development and even consumption requirements rising, countries resorted more and more to the costly international capital markets for short-term loans, thereby accumulating higher debts, arrears and reducing their credit-worthiness.

However, it is increasingly being recognized - most importantly in the Lagos Plan of Action - that future growth and stability hinges on making a renewed and carefully guided structural thrust to maintain internal and external equilibrium. This is the basic challenge of the future.

C. PROGRESS IN INSTITUTION-BUILDING

1. INTRODUCTION

When the Commission was established in December 1958, independent Africa was new to the game of international co-operation then and the colonial Powers still exercised a dominant role in international affairs, including those of the Commission. Also the only existing inter-governmental institutions on the African landscape were those established by France and the United Kingdom of the colonial Territories and were designed solely to promote the interests of the metropolitan Powers. These arrangements would undergo changes as the colonial Territories became independent and, as in the case of the United Kingdom's West African countries, be dismantled altogether. The independent African member States of the Commission themselves had no history of economic co-operation among themselves and were only then beginning to get used to each other as sovereign States. But the independent African countries were undaunted by these disadvantages; indeed, they were spurred on by these disadvantages to recognize both the problems that faced them as independent African countries and the fact that, when soon many more African countries would become independent, the problems would be compounded.

Thus at the inaugural meeting of the Commission on 29 December 1958, His Imperial Majesty Haile Selassie I, Emperor of Ethiopia, had these crucial words to say:

> "The economies of the African States have too long existed as separate, self-contained, isolated entities. African countries have for too long been forced to nurse their own economies and puzzle out their complicated problems by themselves, or else have them handled haphazardly for them by others. We are all only too well acquainted with the difficulties and barriers that the African peoples have had to overcome in coming together to deliberate on matters of common interest. But it is impossible to believe that individual countries, working alone and isolated from their neighbours, can ever achieve their objectives, and the African peoples must therefore work and co-operate together if the economic development of this continent is to be furthered ."

In a continent where national markets are small and human and material resources are underemployed, the primary objective of establishing economic groupings is to create markets large enough to make it possible to establish viable production capacities in industry and the primary sector, increase

the capability of absorption and adaptation of technology, create viable transport networks, pool manpower and financial resources and promote the exploitation of complementarities. To achieve this objective, the creation of economic units geared towards regional economic integration and the establishment of multinational institutions to promote development and undertake co-operative efforts jointly and economically in particular fields constitute a *sine qua non.*

Having recognized the dimensions of the problems facing African countries, the independent African founding members of the Commission, with commendable foresight, realized that it was essential to lay the foundation stone for future co-operative efforts before it was too late and so persuaded the Commission to embark on remedial action. And so the inaugural meeting of the Commission proceeded to take steps, albeit tentative and humble, towards promoting economic co-operation within Africa. Included in the very first work programme of the ECA secretariat adopted at the inaugural meeting were the following projects for concerted action:

(a) A study on how West African countries could derive mutual benefit by increasing their economic contacts with each other, for example in trade, international use of roads, railways and harbours, the pooling of electric power, the conservation of water and other fields of economic activity;

(b) A study on various aspects of economic co-operation among the Maghreb countries of North Africa;

(c) A study on the establishment of an institution for the training of African economists and statisticians; and

(d) A survey of the national resources of African countries.

These humble beginnings were to lay the foundation for more concrete multinational action, not only in the fields then identified but in many more besides, and constituted the touchstone of economic development in a fragmented continent such as Africa. Thus, the need to establish institutions which can help African countries collectively to develop the capabilities and infrastructure essential for their economic and social development and which individually they are too poor to set up and run themselves was recognized almost simultaneously with the establishment of the Commission.

Having thus received its marching orders as it were, ECA, with its then small staff, embarked upon a bold course of action that was to go beyond the stage of merely undertaking studies to the stage of translating ideas into reality even in the area of collective action in development financing which was regarded by the Western world as at once being too premature for Africa and posing a threat to the hold and direction of the former over the economic development of the newly emerging independent African countries. So it came to pass that, encouraged particularly by the determination of the numerically increasing independent African States members of the Commission and the appointment of more competent African experts who were actually living with the economic problems and needs of the continent, ECA led the way in the establishment, in the spirit of collective self-reliance, of many African inter-governmental institutions in various economic and social fields. In this way, ECA was to play a crucial role in filling a vacuum that had existed at the inception of the Commission.

The first institutions to be established by the Commission during its formative years were the African Institute for Economic Development and Planning (IDEP) and the African Development Bank (ADB).

The African Development Bank (ADB), to which all independent African States belong, had a slow start because of, *inter alia,* its unpopularity in certain quarters as already mentioned, its membership then being limited to African independent States to avoid foreign domination which, in turn, had a restrictive effect on its capital and lending capacity and the existence of competing and richer rival sources of financial assistance.

With additional funds injected by the African Development Fund (ADF) established with the participation of extra-regional States in 1972, and the shining example of the Nigerian Trust Fund, established with funds provided by the Nigerian Government in 1976, ADB has matured into a useful tool for development and has enlarged its sphere of activities and its resources. The opening in 1982, after a protracted disagreement among the members of ADB, to non-regionals of subscriptions to the authorized capital of ADB, will enable the resources and effectiveness of ADB to be enhanced considerably.

Those two institutions, IDEP and ADB, which were to deal with two basic problems of Africa, namely, the training of staff indispensable for the economic and social development of African countries and the mobilization of capital by concerted action for the execution of the economic development programmes of African countries, were followed after a decade of relative inactivity by the establishment of the Association of African Central Banks (AACB) in 1968 to promote co-operation in the monetary, banking and financial spheres in Africa. The Association, to which nearly all African central banks belong, has developed steadily and has established important subsidiary organs such as the African Centre for Monetary Studies, the West African Clearing House and the Central African Clearing House. IDEP has also established itself as a leading African institution in its field.

The following 15 years (1968 to 1983) in the life of the Commission witnessed an upsurge in the establishment by ECA of multinational institutions at the regional and subregional levels; in all, this period saw the establishment of over 30 such institutions, including the MULPOCs.

Notable among the regional institutions established by ECA during this period are, to name but a few, the African Regional Centre for Engineering Design and Manufacturing, the African Centre for Applied Research and Training in Social Development, the African Regional Centre for Technology and the Association for African Trade Promotion Organizations. All these ECA-sponsored institutions are contributing vigorously to the implementation of the objectives of the Lagos Plan of Action and the Final Act of Lagos, namely the establishment of an African Economic Community by the year 2000.

At the subregional level, apart from the MULPOCs, special mention must be made of the role that ECA has played in the establishment of multipurpose subregional institutions. ECA prepared the comprehensive and complicated Treaty and Protocols of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS). The decision to establish the Preferential Trade Area for Eastern and Southern African States (PTA) was taken at a meeting of the Council of Ministers of the ECA Lusaka MULPOC; the protracted and difficult negotiations leading to the establishment of the PTA were nurtured by and conducted under the auspices of ECA. The draft Treaty and Protocols of the PTA were prepared by ECA, which is now playing a similar role with respect to the establishment of an Economic Community of Central African States embracing 11 countries.

In specialized fields, the African inter-governmental institutions, which have been established by ECA, cover a wide spectrum of economic and social fields such as natural resources, science and technology, social development, trade, industry, training and human resources and transport and communications.

2. INTER-INSTITUTIONAL CO-OPERATION AND ECA

The institutions established by ECA were all designed to foster economic and social development and are, by implication, mutually complementary in their aims and activities and should therefore help in each other's development. Horizontal co-operation among them is accordingly most important. For instance, the Centre for Services in Surveying, Mapping and Remote Sensing in Nairobi, Kenya, is closely related in its aims and activities to its sister Regional Centre for Training in Aerial Surveys at Ile-Ife in Nigeria and to the African Remote Sensing Council based in Bamako, Mali. The African Regional Centre for Technology based in Dakar, Senegal, should receive specialized inputs from the Industrial Property Organization for English-Speaking Africans with headquarters in Harare, Zimbabwe; the linkages between the African Regional Organization for Standardization in Nairobi, Kenya, and the African Regional Centre for Engineering Design and Manufacturing in Ibadan, Nigeria, are also palpable; and, the African Institute for Higher Technical Training and Research in Nairobi, Kenya, and the Eastern and Southern Africa Management Institute in Arusha, the United Republic of Tanzania, have many things in common.

Many more examples of the mutual links between other African multinational institutions sponsored by the Commission exist and, most appropriately, the Inaugural Conference of Chief Executives of ECA-Sponsored Regional and Subregional Institutions held in December 1980 classified the institutions for the purposes of facilitating co-operation and co-ordination of their activities into the categories shown as an annex to this chapter.

During the last 15 years, the ECA secretariat has been restructured to enable it to cope more efficiently and systematically in its institution-building effort. In 1969, a Division of Trade and Economic Co-operation was established. That year also saw the appointment, for the first time, of a Regional Adviser in legal aspects of economic co-operation. Later, a separate Division for Economic Co-operation and Multinational Negotiations was established. This was subsequently replaced by the present Economic Co-operation Office which,

because of its increasingly important role in the promotion of economic co-operation in Africa and in the co-ordination of the economic co-operation activities of the various substantive Divisions, was placed within the Cabinet Office of the Executive Secretary. Thus, with the increasing awareness of the crucial importance of economic co-operation to the economic and social development of Africa, ECA has also geared itself to deliver the goods.

ECA believes that there is a great deal that it can offer to African multinational institutions apart from playing the role of midwife. Indeed, ECA can assist, as it is already doing in respect of some institutions, in the mobilization of resources from bilateral and multilateral donors which would lead to the emergence of a systematic and comprehensive programme of assistance to institutions that would promote stable long-term planning and budgeting and avoid wastage and duplication of effort. The ECA secretariat has also over the years, acted effectively as interim secretariat or executing agency for several important projects such as the Preferential Trade Area for Eastern and Southern African States, the Statistical Training Programme for Africa, the Eastern and Southern African Mineral Resources Development Centre, the African Regional Centre for Technology, the Regional Institute for Technology, the Regional Institute for Population Studies, the *Institut de formation et de recherche démographiques* and the *Centre régional des études de population* of the Central African Customs and Economic Union (UDEAC). Funds put at the disposal of ECA in its capacity as executing agency of projects have also increased substantially over the years. For instance, UNDP's contribution to projects executed by ECA or in association with other agencies of the United Nations system has increased over the past few years by 300 per cent. Similarly, contributions from the United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA) to projects executed by ECA have also risen significantly over the past few years.

ECA's performance as an executing agency should enable it to play a more operational role in the implementation of the various mandates of the multinational institutions. Furthermore, the UNDP Governing Council has decided that the ECA Conference of Ministers should play a more direct and dynamic role in regional programming. Accordingly, ECA jointly sponsored an inter-agency meeting at Addis Ababa in April 1980 where project proposals of some of the multinational institutions were considered for possible UNDP financing and, through its efforts, the sum of $17 million was eventually earmarked by UNDP for some of the project proposals.

Under the constitutions of several of these institutions such as the Regional Centre for Training in Aerial Surveys, the Regional Centre for Services in Surveying, Mapping and Remote Sensing, the Eastern and Southern African Mineral Resources Development Centre, the Eastern and Southern Africa Management Institute and IDEP, the Executive Secretary of ECA is *ex-officio* Chairman of their highest policy organs and this had proved beneficial to the institutions concerned. However, the ECA secretariat is not so closely linked with others, yet it is its bounden duty to do all it can to assist them and, within the limits of its resources, the ECA secretariat has spared no effort to strengthen and enhance the capability of such institutions. As an impartial body that can assess the objectives and monitor the activities of African multinational institutions from the outside, the ECA secretariat is uniquely placed to point out ways and means of assisting such institutions in supplementing the work of each other, in co-ordinating their activities, in harmonizing their operational framework, in co-operating with each other and even in getting to know one another better. These are most important functions if African institutions are not to act in isolation or haphazardly, duplicate their efforts or act in a manner that is counter-productive.

3. PROBLEMS

A great many of the institutions have suffered from the ill-effects of the lack of political will on the part of the very African Governments which pressed for their establishment. This lack of political will finds expression in various ways; the commonest being that, after pressing for the establishment of an institution, and even after having approved the legal document setting up the institution concerned, many African Governments either fail to accede to membership of the institution or, if they do, they fail to give it adequate financial and material support. The net result is that the growth of such an institution is stifled, disillusion sets in and the collective self-reliance of African countries is undermined. African countries must realize that the success or failure of the institutions which have been established at their request for their collective development lies in their own hands. The few African countries which have been courageous in combining to establish multinational institutions in particular fields have continued to shoulder alone the financial burden of running them while their services and facilities have been made available to other African countries and

their nationals. Membership drives which have been intensified, particularly during the past four years, in an attempt to remedy the situation have not yielded spectacular results.

Furthermore, potential donors which promise assistance to multinational institutions at the time of their establishment appear to want to give assistance only if their membership is increased so as to give them a wider regional or subregional character. Also potential members of multinational institutions seem to want to wait in the wings to see how well the institutions develop before deciding to join them. This vicious circle further aggravates the problems facing African countries in building and developing multinational institutions.

The irony of this situation can be further illustrated by the fact that, since 1968 when the Association of African Central Banks was established, African countries have not adhered in numbers to the constitutions or agreements of the multinational institutions which have been established at their request, and the safest and most prudent course which has been followed in the circumstances has been to provide for the minimum possible number of accessions to the constitutions or agreements so that such African countries as are prepared to do so could get on with the business of establishing the institutions. The ECA secretariat has felt that it should not frustrate the establishment of useful multinational institutions where initially only a few African countries show their desire and willingness to embark upon such a venture. It is far better to start and then strive to increase membership than not to have started at all. Indeed a proposal to disband an ECA-sponsored institution which was not enjoying adequate political and financial support of African Governments was rejected by African Governments which continue to ask for the establishment of more inter-governmental institutions.

The lack of financial support for multinational institutions is also the bane of nearly all institutions established under the aegis of the Commission at the request of African Governments, which all operate principally on the basis of contributions from their member States. This lack of adequate financial support is the result of two factors; namely, restricted membership which, in turn, affects the finances of the multinational institutions, and the apparent reluctance of some member States to pay their contributions, or a combination of the two. It is undeniable that, given the limited resources of African countries, multinational institutions are essential to the economic and social development of Africa. What is therefore required is some method of ensuring that such institutions achieve their full membership and that sufficient funds are available to them to ensure their efficient and effective functioning.

Multinational institutions particularly affected by these difficulties are those in the field of natural resources, such as the Regional Centre for Training in Aerial Surveys, the Regional Centre for Services in Surveying, Mapping and Remote Sensing, the Eastern and Southern African Mineral Resources Development Centre and the African Remote Sensing Council. This is a serious state of affairs since Africa's economic development lies in the full exploitation of its abundant natural resources. Other multinational institutions which have also been affected by the lack of political and financial support include the African Regional Centre for Technology, the African Regional Organization for Standardization and the Association of African Trade Promotion Organizations.

African Governments, although acknowledging the vital importance of multinational institutions, have on occasion blamed their lack of interest in certain multinational institutions on their competing demands for scarce foreign exchange resources and their lack of knowledge as to what they really stand to gain from belonging to the institutions. Several schemes have been proposed and rejected for overcoming the first of these objections. Such proposals have included the determination of a common formula which would enable each African country to have a good idea of its aggregate financial commitment to all the multinational institutions to which it belongs or of which it is a potential member. The ECA Conference of Ministers could decide what the annual contribution should be and decide whether there should be, for instance, a biennial meeting of African countries to assess what each should pay in respect of all institutions or whether a modest tax should not be levied in each African country to be used to finance all institutions.

In the absence of any acceptable solution, it has in many cases been left to the various Governments providing host facilities for multinational institutions to struggle on to keep them going when material and financial support has not been forthcoming from other States members of the institutions.

For instance, without the support of Nigeria in bearing the brunt of the financial burden of

running and expanding the activities of the Regional Centre for Training in Aerial Surveys at Ile-Ife, that Centre would not now be what it is. Similarly, the Governments of Kenya, the United Republic of Tanzania, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya and Senegal have provided, single-handedly, substantial financial and other support which has enabled the Regional Centre for Services in Surveying, Mapping and Remote Sensing in Nairobi, the Eastern and Southern African Mineral Resources Development Centre in Dodoma, the African Centre for Applied Research and Training in Social Development in Tripoli and the African Regional Centre for Technology in Dakar to get off the ground. The commitment of host Governments is a most vital factor in the survival and development of African multinational institutions.

ECA is fully aware of the crucial role which multinational, regional and subregional institutions can play in the physical, economic and social integration of Africa as a means of achieving sustained economic and social development in order to improve the quality of life of the African people. ECA is also aware of the important role that these institutions have to play if the Lagos Plan of Action is to be effectively implemented. Many more would have to be established and given full support by African countries. Even in individual developed countries where one would have thought that they would not be needed, one finds in existence many, many more specialized institutions than those that the secretariat has so far succeeded in establishing for the joint use of African countries. With this in mind, ECA, shortly after the adoption of the Lagos Plan of Action, examined the problems facing the multinational institutions with a view to finding solutions to the twin problems arising from the lack of political and financial support by African countries and the ways in which they can play their part in the implementation of the Lagos Plan of Action.

It was decided that the best way of tackling the problem effectively was through multinational institutions themselves and, thus, ECA convened the Inaugural Conference of Chief Executives of ECA-Sponsored Regional and Subregional Institutions in December 1980 to pool ideas and experience and to review, assess and evaluate their progress and effectiveness. Such stock-taking meetings will also enable the institutions to identify the factors which have affected their performance and, where necessary, seek remedies designed to enhance their capability as instruments of economic and social development. The institutions could also consider how best to gear themselves to the successful implementation of the Lagos Plan of Action. The Conference of Chief Executives has been institutionalized as an important annual feature in the calendar of activities of the secretariat and the institutions. The report of the annual meetings and the biennial reports and work programmes of the institutions are submitted to the ECA Conference of Ministers.

The Conference of Chief Executives has addressed itself to finding solutions to the two problems highlighted above. The two-pronged attack on these problems has taken the form of increasing membership by making African countries aware of the importance of the institutions and what they stand to gain by becoming members, and the establishment of a self-help scheme for giving temporary assistance to the institutions in times of criticial need.

Strange as it may seem, except for such prestigious institutions as ADB and IDEP, very little is known, outside the limited circle of ministers and senior civil servants immediately concerned with the institutions sponsored by the secretariat, about those institutions, the progress they are making in the implementation of their important objectives and the way in which they can contribute to the economic and social development of African countries. The Conference of Chief Executives realized that a public relations exercise to make their institutions better known all over the continent was long overdue. Moreover, to inform African Governments fully of what the institutions were all about would also be another way of promoting increased membership and political and financial support of African Governments. It was therefore proposed that, since all the institutions sponsored by the Commission owed their existence to resolutions of its Conference of Ministers, as a first step, a visual, graphic and attractive exhibition of the activities of the institutions should be held at the seventh meeting of the ECA Conference of Ministers which took place in Freetown, Sierra Leone, in March-April 1981.

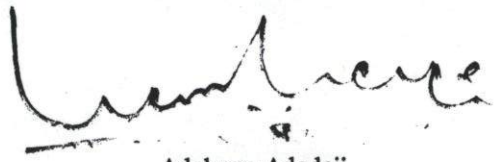
Apart from the exhibition, the Chief Executives decided that a bulletin on their activities should be published periodically. The publication of such a bulletin was deemed most important if the activities of the institutions were to be disseminated as widely as possible and in the right quarters and what African Governments stood to gain illustrated. Very few know, for instance, that the Regional Centre for Services in Surveying, Mapping and Remote Sensing, during 1981-1982, repaired 87 optical instruments for one of its member States, Kenya, at the cost of 108,962 Kenyan shillings whilst the same repairs at

on the Commission, "presently the "Achilles' heel" in the implementation of the restructuring mandate". 2/

It is my belief that the contents of this publication amply demonstrate the Commission's increasing ability to be responsive to the challenges that it faces in serving its 50 independent member States. The Silver Jubilee provides an excellent opportunity to take stock of past successes and failures so that ECA can remain a dynamic institution which will not only build on the solid foundations of the past 25 years but will also mature further as it enters the prime of its life. It is for this reason that the fifth chapter of this publication attempts to assess the Commission's potential for the future. As is stated, prediction is an imprecise art and all the more so, given the pace of change, innovation and development in the modern world. Nevertheless, the last chapter shows that the Commission and its secretariat are fully aware of the need to maintain a dynamic approach to the future in the context of the Lagos Plan of Action.

If the Commission is to succeed, the constraints it faces cannot be ignored. Despite the noble efforts made by many African States and institutions in contributing to the United Nations Trust Fund for African Development as a manifestation of their belief in the concept of self-reliance, budgetary constraints are expected to continue to bedevil the Commission. Nor is it expected that the present shortage of skilled manpower will disappear overnight, notwithstanding the various training programmes which the Commission has introduced in many fields. Moreover, it is recognized that, while the Chief Executive and staff of the secretariat must constantly strive to improve their performance, the Commission must equally continue to enjoy the full confidence and acceptance of its member States and their political good-will must be manifested in practical terms so that, together, member States and the secretariat can advance along the course they have set for themselves.

It is, therefore, my fervent hope that member States, the entire international community and the United Nations will strengthen and increase their support - financial, material and moral - to the Commission so that in the coming 25 years the Commission may apply itself with renewed dedication to the lofty cause of promoting the well-being and prosperity of the teaming millions of Africans. We must never forget that African countries still remain, by and large, the most "satellitized" and exploited countries coerced into the periphery of the global economic system. The challenge which lies ahead all of us is how to bring the continent into the mainstream of the international economic system on the basis of genuine interdependence.



Adebayo Adedeji

United Nations Under-Secretary-General
and Executive Secretary
Economic Commission for Africa

2/ Joint Inspection Unit, *Report on the Economic Commission for Africa: Regional programming, operations, restructuring and decentralization issues (JIU/REP/82//1); p. 22.*

III. THE COMMISSION

ITS ORIGINS, STRUCTURE AND ACTIVITIES

A. BASIC FACTS

B. ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL SURVEY OF AFRICA, 1958-1983

C. PROGRESS IN INSTITUTION-BUILDING

D. HIGHLIGHTS OF ECA ACTIVITIES

E. PERFORMANCE OF THE SECRETARIAT AS AN EXECUTING AGENCY

F. ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND INTEGRATION

A. BASIC FACTS

1. GENESIS

The genesis of regional economic commissions may be traced back to the origin of the United Nations itself when its Charter was ratified on 24 October 1945 by the 51 founding Members. By virtue of Article 7 of the Charter, one of the principal organs of the United Nations is the Economic and Social Council which was made responsible, under the authority of the General Assembly, for the economic and social activities of the United Nations. Article 68 empowered the Council to set up commissions in economic and social fields.

In March 1947, in the light of reports submitted to it on the economic reconstruction of war-devastated areas, the Economic and Social Council established the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) and the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE), subsequently renamed the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), and laid down their terms of reference. Later that year, the Council established the third Commission, the Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA).

While establishing the Economic Commission for Europe, the Council had noted that it had received no report on the post-war reconstruction problems of North Africa and Ethiopia and expressed the view that it was essential that the United Nations should give simultaneous consideration to all devasted areas. A resolution was submitted to the Council calling for the establishment of an economic commission for North Africa and Ethiopia, but no action was taken. In 1950, when the request was repeated, it was argued that the creation of such a commission would be premature. Instead, the Secretariat was requested to prepare a review of economic conditions in Africa. Subsequent requests in 1951 and in 1956 were also turned down by the Economic and Social Council.

The matter was raised again in 1957 at the twelfth session of the General Assembly. It was argued that African countries needed an organ which would help to assemble information on African economic problems and promote concerted action to solve them in order to expedite economic development. Those holding the contrary view claimed that Africa was not a homogeneous region and that a commission might not be able to cope with the complexities of the continent. On the recommendation of the Second Committee, the General Assembly, however, by resolution 1155 (XII) of 26 November 1957, requested the Economic and Social Council to give prompt and favourable consideration, at its next session, to the establishment of an economic commission for Africa for the purpose of giving effective aid to the countries and Territories of Africa in accordance with Article 68 of the Charter.

Accordingly, the Council, by its resolution 671 A (XXV) of 29 April 1958, established the Economic Commission for Africa and laid down its terms of reference. At the same time the Council decided, by ballot, upon Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, as the headquarters of the Commission.

In August 1973 the Council established the Economic Commission for Western Asia (ECWA), the youngest of the five regional commissions.

Although the initial purpose behind the establishment of ECE and ESCAP was the economic reconstruction of war-devastated areas, subsequent concern in all the Commissions was directed towards the wider field of economic co-operation and development. The basic aim of all the regional commissions is to assist in raising the level of economic activity in the respective regions and to maintain and strengthen the economic relations of the countries in each region both among themselves and with other countries. At the time ECA was established, the then Secretary-General of the United Nations, Dag Hammerskjold, defining the role which the United Nations expected the Commission to play, said:

"New States are emerging in the historical process with geographic boundaries which, in most cases, are not best suited to the requirements of rapid economic growth. If such growth is to take place, concerted action and joint endeavours will be needed among countries and Territories, each with its own complex economic and social patterns and with its own particular political status. New economic links are to be forged among entities belonging to different monetary areas. And all of this should be achieved without losing the present advantages deriving from existing relationships with the rest of the world. These complicated processes can be greatly enhanced and facilitated by the existence

of some flexible institutional arrangement such as the Commission can provide." 1/

The Commission's terms of reference 2/ were laid down by the Economic and Social Council. In addition to its responsibility for promoting the continent's economic development *per se*, the Commission also takes into account the social aspects of economic development and the interrelation between economic and social factors. It is empowered to make recommendations on any matters within its competence to the Governments of the region and to the specialized agencies; however, it is required to submit for the Council's prior consideration any proposals for activities that would have important effects on the economy of the world as a whole. All recommendations are submitted to the member States concerned and compliance with them is voluntary. The terms of reference specifically provide that the Commission can take no action with respect to any country without the agreement of that country.

Regional commissions operate under the general supervision of the Economic and Social Council and of the General Assembly. Within the framework of the policies of the United Nations, the Commissions provide a means whereby regional groups of Members may jointly develop their own policies and take practical action for economic development. By promoting concerted intergovernmental action and a continuous exchange of experience on common problems, the services rendered are increasingly appreciated by the participating States. The General Assembly, particularly by its resolutions 32/197 of 20 December 1977, 33/202 of 29 January 1979 and 34/206 of 19 December 1979, has endorsed the trend to decentralize the economic and social activities of the United Nations and strengthen the role of the regional commissions.

In interpreting its mandate and designing its activities, ECA has had to take into account the unique historical situation of a continent in transition from colonial rule to independence. When the Commission was established on 29 April 1958, the Economic and Social Council opened full membership, as then defined, to the following eight independent African States: Ethiopia, Ghana, Liberia, Libya, Morocco, the Sudan, Tunisia and the United Arab Republic. In addition the then colonial Powers in Africa - Belgium, France, Italy, Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom - were full members, as was the Union (now Republic) of South Africa. Provision was made for subsequent membership of any other State in the region which might later become a Member of the United Nations. On 12 December 1958 Guinea thus became a member of ECA. At the end of 1958, therefore, full members of the Commission comprised nine independent African States (excluding South Africa) and six colonial Powers.

The associate members admitted by the Council on 29 April 1958 were: the Federation of Nigeria, Gambia, Kenya, Zanzibar, Sierra Leone, the United Kingdom-administered Somaliland Protectorate, Tanganyika and Uganda. On 28 July 1958, the Italian-administered Trust Territory of Somaliland was also admitted to associate membership.

Between 1958 and 1982, 41 other African countries achieved independence and subsequently became full members of the Commission. Inevitably, in the first ten years, the Commission's work and preoccupations were determined by this historical experience; and it had, above all, to cope with the fact that the rapid transition from political dependency to self-rule imposed great strains upon the Governments of the emerging nations, not the least of which were those arising from an acute shortage of trained personnel.

The African States members of the Commission from the earliest years were concerned that certain non-self-governing Territories were not represented in the Commission as associate members, whereas certain non-African States with territorial responsibility in Africa were full members. The African members were firmly of the view that it was their collective responsibility "to take decisions affecting Africa without the said decisions being influenced by the opposing votes of non-African Powers" and they therefore insisted on the full membership status of the colonial Powers being altered or terminated and on African participation on behalf of non-self-governing Territories.

Italy ceased to be a member of the Commission in 1960 upon the termination of its territorial responsibility for what has now become Somalia; Belgium in 1962 upon the achievement of indepen-

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1/ *Official Records of the Economic and Social Council*, twenty-eighth session, supplement No. 10, Report of the first session of the Commission.

2/ E/CN.14/111/Rev.8.

dence by Rwanda and Burundi. France, Spain and the United Kingdom eventually agreed to a reduction in their status to associate membership and to allow, in accordance with the will of the Commission, the non-self-governing Territories still under their administration direct representation as associate members. This position was ratified by an amendment to the terms of reference in 1963. 3/ Thus, in 1963 Fernando Po and Rio Muni (administered by Spain) and Mauritius, Basutoland (now Lesotho), Bechuanaland Protectorate (now Botswana), Swaziland, and the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, all administered by the United Kingdom, became associate members. In 1964 Fernando Po and Rio Muni were, on their own request, admitted as a single associate member under the name of Equatorial Guinea. After the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland (the Central African Federation) was dissolved, Northern Rhodesia (now Zambia), Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe) and Nyasaland (now Malawi) attended as separate associate members in 1964.

African member States expressed opposition to the *apartheid* policies of South Africa, which was originally a full member of the Commission. Because of this continuing opposition, in 1963 the Economic and Social Council, eventually suspended South Africa from participation in the work of the Commission "until conditions for constructive co-operation have been restored by a change in its racial policy". 4/ In the same year, the Council expelled Portugal from membership of the Commission for non-compliance with resolutions of the Commission and the General Assembly. 5/

There are now two categories of membership: (i) full member and (ii) associate member. To qualify for full membership a country must be independent, a Member of the United Nations, and belong to the African continent and its associated islands. Associate membership is conferred upon non-self-governing Territories in the African region. Associate membership confers the right to participate in the regular sessions of the Commission but without a vote, although representatives of associate members may participate and hold office in the subsidiary bodies of the Commission. As of June 1982, Namibia is the only associate member of the Commission.

Today, membership of the Commission comprises 50 independent African countries, excluding South Africa. They are: Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burundi, Cape Verde, the Central African Republic, Chad, the Comoros, the Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, Gabon, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, the Ivory Coast, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, the Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, the Sudan, Swaziland, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, the United Republic of Cameroon, the United Republic of Tanzania, the Upper Volta, Zaire, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

The Commission may also invite any national liberation movement recognized by the Organization of African Unity to send observers to participate in its consideration of any matter of interest to that movement. Such observers have the right to submit proposals which may be voted upon at the request of any member of the Commission. Accordingly the African National Congress (ANC), the Pan-Africanist Congress (PAC) and the South-West African People's Organization (SWAPO) currently enjoy observer status.

2. INSTITUTIONAL MACHINERY

From December 1958 (first session) to February 1961 (third session), the plenary sessions of the Commission constituted the original machinery of the Economic Commission for Africa. From the third session, held at Addis Ababa from 6 to 18 February 1961, the Commission decided to set up a number of subsidiary organs including standing committees, working parties and conferences to facilitate its work in specific sectors and defined their terms of reference. The first subsidiary organ was the Conference of African Statisticians, followed by a number of standing committees.

In 1965 standing committees were replaced by seven sectoral working parties whose principal function was to assist the Executive Secretary in implementing the Commission's decisions in their respective fields; in ascertaining the wishes of Governments concerning implementation; and in modifying and developing previous decisions for referral back to the Commission. The Commission intended that each working party should be quasi-permanent and that the participants should be regarded as

3/ Economic and Social Council resolution 974 D I (XXXVI).

4/ Economic and Social Council resolution 974 D IV (XXXVI).

5/ Economic and Social Council resolution 974 D III (XXXVI).

specialists in their own right and not as representatives of their Governments. Provision was however made for representation of all the subregions; of the specialized agencies; and of the Organization of African Unity. The working parties were also empowered to co-opt representatives of donor countries, actual and potential. For further details of the early institutional machinery of the Commission in the various sectors, see the account submitted by Mr. R.K.A. Gardiner in chapter IV below.

By resolution 188 (IX) of 10 February 1969 on the institutional machinery of the Commission, the following three organs were established:

(a) The Conference of Ministers, which would be the supreme legislative organ of the Commission and which would meet biennially;

(b) The Technical Committee of Experts, which was a technical advisory body of the Conference of Ministers; and

(c) The Executive Committee, whose main task was to assist the Executive Secretary in the implementation of the resolutions and decisions of the Commission and Conference of Ministers and the work programme of the secretariat.

Subsequently, at the tenth session of the Commission (first meeting of the Conference of Ministers) in 1971, the working parties were abolished. However, the Conference of African Planners (established at the sixth session), the Conference of African Statisticians and the Conference of African Demographers (which met for the first time that same year), were retained.

At the thirteenth session of the Commission held at Kinshasa, Zaire, from 24 February to 3 March 1977, the Conference of Ministers, having noted the existence of institutionalized ministerial conferences dealing with specific sectoral problems in Africa, recommended the establishment of arrangements among African countries for the co-ordination of their development programmes. Subsequently, at its fourteenth session held at Rabat, Morocco, from 20 to 28 March 1979, the Conference of Ministers adopted resolution 330 (XIV) on the restructuring of the inter-governmental machinery for development and co-operation in Africa. It was then decided that:

(a) The Executive Committee and the Technical Committee of Experts should be abolished;

(b) The meetings of the Conference of Ministers should be held annually and be organized in such a way that alternate meetings should, in particular, consider the programme of work and priorities of the Commission, which is examined at two-year intervals by the General Assembly, together with the Executive Secretary's biennial report on the execution of the Commission's biennial work programme, while the other meeting would be held for a much shorter period in the years when the programme of work and priorities of the Commission was not being considered. The latter meeting was to consider such other matters requiring urgent attention as the implementation of programmes and projects and resolutions and recommendations of the General Assembly, the Economic and Social Council, the Organization of African Unity and the specialized and other agencies of the United Nations as they affect the work programme of the Commission;

(c) A Technical Preparatory Committee of the Whole composed of high-level officials representing States members of the Commission should be established to deal with the various matters submitted for the consideration of the annual meetings of the Conference of Ministers;

(d) The existing Conference of African Planners, Conference of African Statisticians and Conference of African Demographers should be combined into a single Conference to be known as the Joint Conference of African Planners, Statisticians and Demographers, which would be held biennially.

The above restructuring exercise was in accordance with General Assembly resolution 32/197 of 20 December 1977 on the restructuring of the economic and social sectors of the United Nations system and Economic and Social Council resolution 1978/74 of 16 August 1978 on regional co-operation and development, whereby the regional commissions were invited to rationalize their structures, *inter alia*, by streamlining their subsidiary machinery. The revised formula was designed to provide the Economic Commission for Africa with a structure which would enable the Conference of Ministers and the subsidiary bodies of the Commission to respond adequately to the challenges posed by the additional and heavy responsibilities which the Commission was expected to discharge during the 1980s and beyond.

The restructuring exercise was carried further at the fifteenth session of the Commission when the Conference of Ministers decided to establish an inter-governmental regional committee on environmental matters, jointly with human settlements and with the participation of all States members of the Commission. It also decided that the Intergovernmental Committee of Experts for Science and Technology Development should continue to operate, with amended terms of reference. The Conference also decided that an institutional machinery for regional co-operation in human resources planning, development and utilization should be established; that the proposed institutional machinery should provide for a technical preparatory committee of officials and a conference of ministers responsible for education, labour and related programmes; and that these bodies should meet every two years to review developments, policies and programmes in the human resource sector and provide guidelines for future action. Finally, the Conference of Ministers decided to institute a Conference of Ministers of African Least Developed Countries which should hold its meetings annually immediately before the meeting of the Conference of Ministers of the Commission.

As we celebrate the Silver Jubilee Anniversary of the Commission, its structure is currently as follows:

(a) The Conference of Ministers, as the main legislative organ meeting annually and advised by the Technical Preparatory Committee of the Whole;

(b) The sectoral ministerial conferences advised by their appropriate sectoral committees of officials, i.e., the Conference of African Ministers of Industry, the Conference of African Ministers of Trade, the Conference of African Ministers of Social Affairs, the FAO Regional Conference for Africa, the Conference of African Ministers of Transport, Communications and Planning, the Conference of Ministers of Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization, the Conference of Ministers of African Least Developed Countries, the ministerial councils of the Multinational Programming and Operational Centres (MULPOCs) and the regional Conference on the Integration of Women in Development;

(c) The specialized subsidiary bodies established by the Commission. These are the Joint Conference of African Planners, Statisticians and Demographers; the Inter-governmental Committee of Experts for Science and Technology Development; and the Inter-governmental Regional Committee on Human Settlements, now extended to include environment and redesignated the Joint Inter-governmental Regional Committee on Human Settlements and Environment.

(a) The Conference of Ministers

The Conference of Ministers as the principal legislative organ of the Commission is composed of the ministers of the Governments of member States responsible for economic affairs, planning and development. From its establishment under resolution 188 (IX) of 10 February 1969, it met biennially up to 1979 and annually thereafter. The main functions of the Conference of Ministers are to:

(a) Consider matters of policy and the priorities to be assigned to the programmes and other activities of the Commission;

(b) Consider intra-African and international economic policy issues and make recommendations on such issues to member States;

(c) Review programme implementation during the preceding year and approve at every other meeting the proposed biennial programme of work and priorities;

(d) Consider reports submitted to it by the Technical Preparatory Committee of the Whole;

(e) Consider questions relating to the representation of the African region on international and inter-governmental bodies dealing with economic and social matters;

(f) Consider and endorse for onward transmission to the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly proposals emanating from sectoral ministerial conferences; and

(g) Consider the work programmes of the MULPOCs and integrate these with the overall programme of work and priorities of the Commission.

(b) The Technical Preparatory Committee of the Whole

The Technical Preparatory Committee of the Whole is composed of high-level officials representing States members of the Commission and coming

principally from ministries responsible for economic planning and development, industry, trade, transport and finance. It is the advisory body of the Conference of Ministers. Its meetings immediately precede those of the Conference of Ministers. The main functions of the Committee are to:

(a) Make proposals on Africa's overall development strategies and policies;

(b) Recommend regional and subregional development objectives and Africa's objectives for each United Nations Development Decade;

(c) In accordance with (a) and (b) above, formulate the Commission's plans and biennial programmes of work and priorities and, in this connection, spell out the programming implications of the decisions of the various sectoral ministerial conferences and the MULPOC ministerial councils, as well as the recommendations of the specialized subsidiary bodies, with a view to including the programmes and projects arising therefrom in the medium-term plans and biennial programmes of work and priorities of the Commission;

(d) Review annually the implementation of the work programmes and priorities of the Commission;

(e) Submit recommendations on the above to the Conference of Ministers of the Commission.

(c) The sectoral ministerial conferences

Each sectoral ministerial conference is composed of ministers of the Governments of member States responsible for the particular development sector. In addition, each conference is assisted by a committee of officials drawn from the ministries responsible for such development sectors and nominated by their Governments on the basis of their specialized knowledge. The meeting of the committee of officials immediately precedes that of the ministerial conference in question.

The task of the sectoral ministerial conferences is primarily to:

(a) Review problems and issues pertaining to their respective development sector;

(b) Formulate regional policies, strategies and priorities on the sector within their respective field of competence;

(c) Identify areas for multinational co-operation and integration; and,

(d) Formulate sectoral work programmes and priorities, which are subsequently harmonized with the overall work programmes and priorities of the Commission by the Conference of Ministers of ECA acting on the advice of the Technical Preparatory Committee of the Whole.

The sectoral ministerial conferences which exist at present and the agencies which participate in the work of these conferences are as follows:

The Conference of African Ministers of Industry (participating organizations: ECA, UNIDO and OAU) which meets biennially.

The FAO Regional Conference for Africa (participating organizations: FAO, ECA, WFC and OAU). The Conference also meets biennially.

The Conference of African Ministers of Trade, whose meetings are organized jointly by ECA and OAU. In view of the major issues now being negotiated in the field of trade and the urgent need to promote intra-African trade, it has been agreed that the Conference should henceforth meet biennially and that its Committee of Officials should hold its meetings immediately before the Conference, as is the case with the other sectoral meetings.

The Conference of African Ministers of Social Affairs (participating organizations: ECA, ILO, UNICEF, WHO and OAU). The Conference takes place every two years.

The Regional Conference on the Integration of Women in Development (participating organizations: ECA, United Nations Headquarters, UNESCO, ILO and OAU). In principle, the Conference is convened every three years to review progress and make proposals in respect of the activities of the African Training and Research Centre for Women (ATRCW) in particular and the integration of women in development in general. The Africa Regional Co-ordinating Committee for the Integration of Women in Development (ARCC) acts as the specialized technical body of the Regional Conference. Committees at the subregional level for the implementation of the plans of action for the integration of women in development are already operating within the MULPOCs.

The Conference of African Ministers of Transport, Communications and Planning (participating organizations: ECA and members of the Inter-Agency Co-ordinating Committee). By resolution 291 (XIII), the Conference of Ministers recommended that the General Assembly should proclaim a United Nations Transport and Communications Decade in Africa. This recommendation was approved by the General Assembly in its resolution 32/160. At its eighteenth meeting, the then Executive Committee, in reviewing progress made in the implementation of this Decade, requested *inter alia* the Executive Secretary of the Commission and the Administrative Secretary-General of the Organization of African Unity to prepare and convene, by early 1979, a meeting of ministers concerned with matters relating to transport, communications, works and planning to define Africa's global strategy for the development of transport and communications, including telecommunications, in the region and to prepare a detailed programme of action for the implementation of the Decade reflecting the aforementioned concerns. The OAU Assembly of Heads of State and Government adopted a similar resolution at its fifteenth meeting in July 1978. After the adoption of the strategy and the detailed programme of action, the Conference of Ministers of Transport, Communications and Planning is responsible for monitoring their implementation and whatever other transport, communications and works problems later emerge.

The Conference of Ministers Responsible for Human Resources Planning, Development and Utilization (participating organizations: ECA, UNESCO, ILO and OAU). Africa has always recognized the seriousness of the manpower constraints it is facing. The bottleneck is felt at all levels of decision-making and the increasing expenditure of scarce foreign exchange resources on experts and consultants and the continuing shortage of bankable projects are a living testimony to this problem. Hence, there is need to pay continuing attention to the problems of manpower development and utilization. The first meeting of the Conference was held in 1981.

The councils of ministers of the Multinational Programming and Operational Centres (MULPOCs). In accordance with Conference of Ministers resolution 311 (XIII), each MULPOC, with the exception of the North African MULPOC, whose structure differs slightly, now comprises a Council of Ministers advised by a Committee of Officials. The Council of Ministers of each MULPOC is responsible for:

(a) Ensuring the effective integration of the MULPOCs into the decision-making machinery of Governments, so that the work programmes of the MULPOCs can reflect the priorities of African Governments individually and collectively;

(b) Formulating the necessary policies and strategies for the MULPOC work programmes in their respective areas of operation;

(c) Taking appropriate decisions relating to programme and project priorities, their formulation and implementation;

(d) Undertaking periodic reviews of the structure and activities of the MULPOCs;

(e) Assisting in the mobilization of the human and financial resources necessary for the efficient and effective execution of the work programmes of the MULPOCs;

(f) Bringing to the attention of the Conference of Ministers of ECA, for its consideration, through the appropriate channels, reports and recommendations affecting the economic and social development activities in the areas of operation covered by the respective MULPOCs.

Under the present arrangements, the work programmes of the Centres are integrated with the overall work programme of the Commission, which means that any decisions of the Councils of Ministers of the MULPOCs with regard to the work programme and priorities and other matters relating to sub-regional integration and development will be submitted to the Technical Preparatory Committee of the Whole with a view to harmonizing such programme activities with the overall work programme and priorities of the Commission for submission to the Conference of Ministers of ECA.

The Conference of Ministers of African Least Developed Countries. The Conference holds its meetings annually immediately before the meeting of the Conference of Ministers of ECA. Its main function is to ensure the co-ordination of efforts, establish priorities, monitor and evaluate progress under the Substantive New Programme of Action adopted at the Paris Conference on the Least Developed Countries in September 1981, undertake periodic analyses and evaluation of progress in African least developed countries with a view in particular to identifying difficulties encountered in programme implementation and to making recommendations on ways and means of overcoming

these difficulties as well as ensuring the effective monitoring, review and evaluation of regional and international activities in favour of the least developed countries.

(d) Specialized subsidiary bodies of the Commission

At present, the following specialized subsidiary bodies have been set up by the Conference of Ministers.

The Joint Conference of African Planners, Statisticians and Demographers, which is a merger of the three previous Conferences, meets every two years. The Joint Conference has, as its main functions, to:

(a) Advise the Executive Secretary of ECA and the African Institute for Economic Development and Planning (IDEP) on annual programmes of work and research in economic and social planning, including projections;

(b) Review and approve the statistical work programme of ECA for the biennium; and

(c) Review, on a biennial basis, the programme of work of the secretariat in the field of population.

The Joint Conference submits its report to the Conference of Ministers through the Technical Preparatory Committee of the Whole.

The Inter-governmental Committee of Experts for Science and Technology Development was established with the primary role of assisting the Commission in the definition and periodic review of the African strategy for science and technology development, and reviewing, on a regular basis, the work of the secretariat in connection with the implementation of the African Regional Plan for the Application of Science and Technology to Development;

The Joint Inter-governmental Regional Committee on Human Settlements and Environment. The functions of the Joint Committee include:

(a) Formulation of policies, priorities and strategies for regional, subregional and transnational environmental management in the African region;

(b) Promotion of the exchange of information and experience on national environmental policies, legislation, programmes and problems;

(c) Review of the work programme and priorities on the environment in the Commission, appraisal of progress made in their implementation and assistance in mobilizing financial and other resources for programming in priority environmental areas in the African region;

(d) Assistance in assembling information on national environmental problems for the preparation of the state of the environment report on the African region;

(e) Promotion of programmes on environmental education for the public through the mass media and for the the training of nationals as specialists to monitor, assess, manage and carry out research on environmental problems;

(f) Promotion of close co-operation on environmental matters between the Commission and the United Nations Environment Programme, and all other United Nations, inter-governmental and non-governmental organizations working within and outside the African region.

3. THE SUBREGIONS AT WORK - THE MULPOCs

With a view to decentralizing the Commission's activities and to improving the efficiency of the Commission, it was decided at the fourth session to establish a subregional office in each of the four subregions in Africa. Accordingly subregional offices were established for West Africa in Niamey; for North Africa in Tangier; for East Africa in Lusaka; and for Central Africa in Kinshasa. As a strategy of development through subregional economic co-operation and integration began to emerge, the role of the subregional offices became more clearly defined, and the Commission decided that they should be strengthened with a view to associating them more closely with the interests of the subregions. Each subregional office was headed by a director and supported by essential secretariat services and, when required, by professional officers from the Commission's headquarters.

In 1975, following financial and other operational problems of the then three United Nations Multinational Interdisciplinary Development Advisory Teams (UNDATs) established in the early 1970s pursuant to General Assembly resolution 2563 (XXIV) and the realization that the ECA subregional offices had not been effective institutions for promoting subregional economic integration, a joint ECA/UNDP Evaluation Mission was appointed

to evaluate the performance of the African UNDATs and recommend the course of future development. One of the key recommendations of that mission was that the UNDATs should be transformed from being mere advisory bodies to more positive operational instruments for development. Instead of confining themselves to conducting studies and rendering technical advice, it was recommended that they should be actively involved in the identification, design and implementation of multinational projects and thus become effective agents for economic co-operation and integration at the subregional levels. This recommendation was endorsed by the Conference of African Planners at its meeting held in Addis Ababa in 1976 and adopted by the fourth meeting of the Conference of Ministers of ECA. In resolution 311 (XIII) the ECA Conference of Ministers reaffirmed that subregional and sectoral integration constituted the foundation for the establishment of an African common market and decided that the three UNDATs and the ECA subregional offices should be phased out and replaced by ECA Multinational Programming and Operational Centres (MULPOCs).

In adopting that resolution, the Conference of Ministers took account of ECA's experience during the last 14 years which had shown that, while it was relatively easy for ECA to establish strategies and programmes of action, follow-up action on implementation of multinational projects was a much more difficult business. The Conference also took account of the fact that institutional machinery which had been created in the past had not been much of a success, because it tended to concentrate on advisory services and was not effectively integrated into the policy organs of Governments.

The ministers also resolved that, in order to ensure that the new MULPOCs would be fully integrated into the decision-making machinery of Governments and would therefore reflect the priorities of Governments, individually and collectively, they should be supervised by inter-governmental policy organs at the ministerial and official levels. The ministerial organ would be a Council consisting of ministers responsible for development planning from all the member States served by a MULPOC. It would act on behalf of the ECA Conference of Ministers. It would be the supreme policy organ of a MULPOC. *Inter alia,* it would take decisions on priority projects and programmes, monitor implementation, make periodic reviews on the activities and structure of the MULPOC and assist in the mobilization of manpower and financial resources. The Council of Ministers would be assisted by a subsidiary body which would be a committee consisting of officials who are permanent or principal secretaries responsible for development planning in their respective countries. The functions of the Committee of Officials would include identification of projects and preparation of a detailed work programme for the approval of the Council of Ministers; monitoring and evaluation of implementation of approved projects; advising on personnel and the administrative structure of the MULPOC; and, assisting in the mobilization of resources. The Committee of Officials might recommend the creation of specialized *ad hoc* sectoral committees. The ministerial council and its subsidiary body would meet once a year. Whenever considered appropriate a supervisory committee of officials could be created.

Since the adoption of resolution 311 (XIII) in March 1977, a family of five African MULPOCs has been created consisting of the Lusaka-based MULPOC for the countries of Eastern and Southern Africa; the Gisenyi-based MULPOC for the Economic Community of the Great Lakes Countries; the Yaounde-based MULPOC for the other countries of Central Africa; the Niamey-based MULPOC for the countries of West Africa (ECOWAS member States); and, the Tangier-based MULPOC for the North African countries.

The Lusaka, Gisenyi, Yaounde and Niamey MULPOCs are supervised by Councils of Ministers and Committees of Officials, as provided for in the resolution. The Lusaka and Yaounde MULPOCs also have supervisory committees. For North Africa, the inaugural meeting of experts, held in March 1978, recommended that the highest policy organ should be a Conference of Plenipotentiaries. The inaugural meetings, in addition to taking decisions on policy organs, established the work programmes for the various MULPOCs.

The establishment of the MULPOCs in the five subregions of Africa was an important step towards the transformation of ECA into an operational institution. It emphasized the practical and operational role which ECA intends to play in promoting subregional co-operation and integration as a step towards regional economic integration. While each MULPOC is primarily responsible for the promotion of multinational and multisectoral projects within its particular subregion in line with the priorities

laid down by its specific policy organs, the five MULPOCs together can be viewed as one regional team with a single purpose - the forging and promotion of subregional common markets as a first step towards a regional common market. Together, they constitute the operational field arm of ECA.

4. THE SECRETARIAT

The secretariat of the Commission is headed by the Executive Secretary who is appointed by the Secretary-General of the United Nations. The staff as a whole forms part of the entire United Nations Secretariat.

The statistics indicate that growth in the staff strength of the secretariat has been considerable since the establishment of the Commission. That growth is of course related to the assumption of more responsibilities by the secretariat as dictated by the pace of socio-economic development in the region and directed by the Commission's policy organs.

Thus the initial staff strength of 52 in 1959, made up of 17 professionals and 35 General Service staff, more than doubled within one year to 105, made up of 42 professional and 63 General Service staff by 1960. By 1965, the figures had risen to a total of 292, consisting of 117 in the professional and 175 in the General Service categories respectively. By the tenth anniversary of the Commission, that is in 1968, the equivalent figures were 373, broken down into 137 professional and 236 General Service staff. At the time of the twenty-first anniversary in 1979 the total staff strength had risen to 734 made up of 247 in the professional and 487 in the General Service categories respectively. As at the end of June 1982, the total number of staff members in the secretariat was 879, comprising 296 professionals and 583 General Service staff.

One issue that has always been a major preoccupation of the Commission since its inception is Africanization, and especially with regard to the senior posts of the secretariat. Thus as far back as 1962 the Commission at its fourth session adopted resolution 51 (IV) on the need to speed up Africanization and set up a Committee on Staff Recruitment and Training which was requested among other things:

> "to assist the Executive Secretary in securing from African members of the Commission a steady supply of competent Africans to the secretariat on a permanent basis or for reasonable periods on secondment,"

and requested the Executive Secretary

> "in co-operation with the Committee, to establish a machinery for keeping in close touch with African universities and African students in overseas universities with a view to recruiting suitable personnel, particularly for the lower professional levels of the secretariat".

The fact that such a resolution was adopted as early as 1962, at a time when it was obvious that many countries of the region had just attained self-rule and did not even have enough personnel for their national needs, shows the degree of importance that the Commission attached to the subject and the urgency with which African leaders considered the issue. Since then, Africanization has been a major subject at almost all sessions of the Commission. Every effort has been made by successive Executive Secretaries to induce as many Africans as possible to work in the secretariat while maintaining the highest professional standards. The concern of African leaders to have the ECA secretariat Africanized, which they saw as a means of getting their problems seen through the proper African perspective and dealt within the proper context, has today borne some fruit.

While in 1962 the proportion of African staff in the professional and higher categories was only 39 per cent, the proportion had risen to 60 per cent by 1968. By 1973 there were 102 Africans out of a total of 151 professional staff on board. In other words 67.5 per cent of the total was African. Available figures show that by 1980 the proportion of Africans had risen to 71 per cent of regular posts or 140 out 194 posts, while in the case of experts the proportion had risen to 76 per cent or 81 out of a total of 105. As at the end of June 1982 there were 239 Africans out of a total of 296 professional posts including experts in the secretariat. The proportion of Africans therefore was 80.7 per cent.

The different sessions of ECA have shown interest not only in the Africanization of the secretariat, in general, but also in the Africanization of posts of high responsibility. The two top posts of the secretariat, those of the Executive Secretary and his deputy, have always been held by Africans since the establishment of ECA. However, the situation

was different as far as the posts of the directors or chiefs of the different divisions are concerned. In the early days of the Commission, almost all the directors of divisions were non-Africans. By 1972, however, considerable progress had been made in this regard. But even then six out of ten chiefs of division on board were non-Africans. As of June 1982 there were only three non-Africans out of a total of 13 directors of division and two of these are from other third world countries. It is also worthy of note that today the top administration of ECA has been fully Africanized. The posts of Secretary to the Commission, the Director of Administration, the Deputy Director of Administration and the Chief of Personnel are all occupied by Africans.

In the early days of the Commission the main problem that militated against the Africanization efforts of the secretariat was the lack of trained Africans. Notwithstanding the very real progress made in recent years if one compares the level of Africanization in, say, 1975 and 1981 to the situation in 1960 and 1965, today the main problem is that of the principle of equitable geographical distribution of the staff of the United Nations Secretariat. Thus, the secretariat is faced with an ironic situation where there are many trained and experienced Africans who cannot be recruited because they are from countries which are already over-represented in the United Nations. At the same time, however, most of the countries which are under-represented do not have trained personnel to offer for recruitment. Until this problem is resolved further Africanization will always be impeded.

Apart from the increase in the number of Africans working in the ECA secretariat, the number of African countries with nationals in the secretariat has also increased considerably. The number has risen from 26 in 1972 to 39 in 1977 and 42 in 1982. Thus ECA can boast of having a truly international secretariat composed of highly qualified men and women drawn from all parts of Africa and beyond.

A history of staff development and Africanization in the ECA secretariat cannot be written without a word about the training programmes of the secretariat designed to help staff to develop themselves further and to become more effective in their respective areas of competence or specialization. The programmes range from the regular and continuous language training courses which are designed to make staff members proficient in the three main working languages of the secretariat, English, French and Arabic, to short-term courses at all levels either at the duty station or at the United Nations Headquarters or at other institutions of higher studies both within and outside the African region, the most recent one being the programme for training English and French translators. These programmes have helped in no mean way in achieving the level of staffing and Africanization the ECA secretariat has today.

In conclusion, in mid-1982, the ECA secretariat had a total of 879 staff members on board. Of these 241 professionals and 529 General Service staff or a total of 770 are stationed at ECA headquarters in Addis Ababa. The rest, comprising 55 professionals and 54 General Service staff, are stationed at the subregional offices (MULPOCs) and various institutions spread over the whole region. Of the total secretariat staff, 239 professionals and 558 General Service staff are Africans from 42 countries of the region while 57 professionals and 25 General Service are from 30 non-African countries. Thus over a period of 25 years the ECA secretariat has managed, although with considerable difficulty, to achieve a large measure of Africanization without compromising on efficiency and at the same time to have kept its international character as expected of it. Although a lot has been achieved by the ECA secretariat in terms of staff strength, a lot more is still needed in order to make it possible for it to implement its work programme in full as expected by the States members of the Commission.

5. FINANCIAL RESOURCES (REGULAR BUDGET)

The programme budget of the Commission is financed from the resources of the United Nations.

The General Assembly steadily increased appropriations of the ECA regular budget to finance its expanding responsibilities under its work programmes until the end of the 1970s. These resources rose from a meagre $US 500,000 in 1959 to $1,033,800 in 1960; from $1,645,400 in 1961 to $5,449,800 in 1970 and from $6,524,000 in 1971 to $13,198,000 in 1980.

However, this situation changed abruptly by the 1980s as the budget of the United Nations was no exception to the deteriorating world economic conditions. The financial constraints that faced member States led to a restricted resource increase for the ECA secretariat in the 1980s. The biennial budget of ECA could increase only from $23,679,000 in 1978-79 to $27,120,300 in 1980-81, representing

a growth rate of only 1.5 per cent and in 1982-83 ECA was appropriated only $35,945,700 which represented a growth of 0.6 per cent over the resources appropriated for 1980-81.

The increase in resources of the ECA budget mainly centred on objects of expenditure pertaining to established posts, consultancy, travel and supplies of materials. Manpower resources accounted for the largest share of the budget. This was no accident. The work of the secretariat consists mainly of research and studies carried out by professional staff. The resources for established posts therefore increased from $639,500 in 1960 to $3,362,000 in 1970, representing a growth in professional staff from 50 in 1960 to 142 in 1970; and between 1971 and 1981, manpower resources increased from $3,456,000 to $8,563,300 respectively, which represented a growth in professional staff from 164 in 1971 to 194 in 1981. In 1982 there were 199 professional staff posts approved under the main ECA budget (i.e. excluding experts).

It should be noted that, although the responsibilities of the secretariat have continued to increase especially as a result of the present adverse economic situation which has particularly affected the States members of ECA, manpower resources of the secretariat have increased only slightly in the 1980s. In the 1980-81 biennium only three new posts were created and in the 1982-83 biennium, ECA could just manage to secure five new professional posts, three of which were specifically created to establish the Least Developed Countries Section under the development issues and policies programme.

Nevertheless, as a result of the diversified development requirements of the member States and the increased demand for services of the secretariat in specialized fields, ECA regular staff started to be supplemented in 1966 with the services of consultants. Consultancy resources were then budgeted under the general temporary assistance object of expenditure. But as the volume of work in specialized sectors continued to increase, it became necessary to programme the work performed by consultants more elaborately, and in 1974 a separate budget line for consultancy services was created in the ECA budget for the first time. The level of these resources has varied over the years in accordance with the specialized services required during a particular period. For example, to enable the secretariat to handle the varied technical activities of the Transport and Communications Decade, ECA was provided with an additional allocation of $178,000 in the 1978-79 biennium to employ consultants to deal with technical studies in areas such as postal services, telecommunications and broadcasting.

Despite the increases in travel funds, the high costs of travel within Africa have been a great handicap to the activities of the secretariat which require extensive travel for the collection of data and servicing of meetings. Most of the missions carried out involve air travel which in Africa is an extremely expensive undertaking. Thanks to member Governments which were able to finance missions to their countries, it has been possible for the secretariat to carry out more work than would have otherwise been the case. It is hoped that this worthwhile gesture will continue as it demonstrates the spirit of self-reliance.

Apart from procurements for the normal daily use of the secretariat, the provision of funds for supplies and materials was intended to finance also the requirements of the library services. First established as a one-room library in rented premises that unit of the secretariat moved into three rooms in Africa Hall in 1961. Because of the physical deterioration of the library area and the expansion of the collection, the various units of the library were dispersed in different areas of Africa Hall. However, in 1977, the library moved to the new extension of the Africa Hall complex. The library now occupies three public floors and two basements for library stacks. In addition to serving the research and information needs of the secretariat of the Commission, it serves participants in ECA conferences, seminars and workshops; research personnel of OAU and United Nations agencies and diplomatic missions in Addis Ababa; visiting scholars and students as well as African government departments and individuals from Africa and overseas who seek information on African economic and social development. The ECA library has the largest single collection in Africa on the economies of the African region, and it is now estimated to contain over 200,000 volumes, excluding mimeographed United Nations documents.

In addition to these regular budget resources provided under the main section, the General Assembly has appropriated funds to ECA for certain special programmes. For example, in support of the technical co-operation activities being managed by ECA as an executing agency, regular budget funds have been provided for the technical co-operation programme. The programme relates to advisory assistance to member States and it is manned by 10 senior regional advisers. The services of these

senior regional advisers cover such areas as natural resources, economic surveys, social welfare, transport, national accounts analysis, public finance, development administration and economic co-operation activities.

The language and translators training programmes are another area where regular budget resources have been provided. The language training courses for staff members of the secretariat began in 1976. The courses cover English, French and Arabic. The Translators Training Programme was established as a means of overcoming the drastic shortage that exists in Africa in the field of translation staff. The first course was organized at the secretariat in 1978-1979; the second took place in 1979-1980, while the third was held in 1980-1981; and another is now in progress.

Africa Hall, which is the name given to the complex of conference facilities and offices of the Commission was donated by the Government of Ethiopia to the United Nations in accordance with a directive issued by the then Emperor of Ethiopia in November 1958. However, in view of the increased activities and responsibilities of the Commission, an extension of the Africa Hall was constructed in the 1970s. The construction, which was commenced in 1973 and was completed in 1976, consists of a ten-storey office building, a five-storey library building and a three-storey cafeteria building. It cost the United Nations $US 7.5 million.

B. ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL SURVEY OF AFRICA, 1958-1983

1. INTRODUCTION

When the Economic Commission for Africa was established in 1958, the vast majority of African States were still under the yoke of colonial rule. The scramble for Africa which had resulted in the balkanization of the region into many small States had, by then, consolidated the orientation of the African economy. Indeed, by 1958 the African economy had already been characterized by a system which inhibited the development by the region of its own resources for its own use and benefits. The total production structure and its supporting infrastructure had all been established to ensure only the production and transportation of raw materials for export to the colonizing countries. The consumption pattern had also been such as to ensure maximum dependence on imports. Thus, Africa was producing what it did not consume and consuming what it did not produce.

In view of the limitations of data and aggregation, the following represents only a broad outline of the salient features of Africa's development at the macro-level of production sectors, investments, consumption and trade together with an indication of demographic and social trends. Even in this broad effort, the scarcity of data, especially for the early part of the 1960s, has greatly limited the depth and detail of analysis. It is, nevertheless, hoped that the broad review will give some useful indication of the economic performance of Africa since 1958.

2. DEMOGRAPHIC TRENDS

The total population of independent African countries in mid-1980 was estimated at 434 million. During the two decades 1960-1980, the annual growth rate of the population averaged 2.8 per cent and is projected to grow at 2.6 per cent during the last decade of this century. The available medium variant projection shows that by the year 2000 the total population will almost double to reach 790 million. In general, the estimated and projected annual growth rates of the population have been higher in the North, West and Eastern subregions than in the Central and Southern subregions (see table 1).

In 1960, 41.4 per cent of the estimated total population comprised children under 15 years of age and 3.4 per cent people over 65 years. The corresponding proportions by 1980 were 43.7 and 3.3 per cent respectively. The implied dependency ratio as at mid-1960 was 83 as against 89 in 1980 and it is projected at 85 for the year 2000 for the region as a whole. Fertility and mortality rates have remained high during the last two decades. The crude birth and death rates were about 46 and 17 per thousand respectively in 1980 compared with 48 and 25 per thousand respectively in 1960. The mean life expectancy at birth estimated for the region increased from 40 years for males and 42.9 years for females in the period 1960/1965 to 49 years (males) and 52.3 years (females) during 1980-1985.

Table 1. Estimated and projected total population (in thousands) and annual growth rates (in percentage) by subregion for independent Africa, 1960-2000

Subregion	Total population ('000s) a/							Annual growth rate (%)							
	1960	1970	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	1960/ 1965	1965/ 1970	1970/ 1975	1975/ 1980	1980/ 1985	1985/ 1990	1990/ 1995	1995/ 2000
North Africa b/	64 545	82 562	108 693	125 471	144 008	164 545	186 256								
	(25.5)	(25.4)	(25.0)	(24.8)	(24.5)	(24.1)	(23.6)	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.1	2.9	2.8	2.6
West Africa c/	79 884	105 156	142 772	167 453	195 861	230 920	269 331								
	(31.5)	(32.3)	(32.9)	(33.2)	(33.3)	(33.8)	(34.1)	2.5	2.5	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.8	2.7	2.7
Central Africa	29 746	35 969	46 018	52 629	60 354	69 251	79 312								
	(11.8)	(11.0)	(10.6)	(10.4)	(10.3)	(10.1)	(10.0)	1.5	1.7	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.5
Eastern Africa d/	77 149	99 809	133 917	157 008	183 715	214 737	249 992								
	(30.5)	(30.6)	(30.9)	(31.0)	(31.3)	(31.4)	(31.7)	2.4	2.6	2.7	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.8	2.8
Southern Africa e/	1 739	2 121	2 705	3 113	3 578	4 093	4 635								
	(0.7)	(0.7)	(0.6)	(0.6)	(0.6)	(0.6)	(0.6)	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.6	2.9	2.9	2.7	2.5
All ECA member States	253 063	325 617	434 105	505 674	587 516	683 546	789 526								
	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	(100.0)	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.6

Source: Prepared by the ECA Population Division in collaboration with the United Nations Population Division, New York (1982 round of demographic estimates and projections).

a/ The figures in brackets are proportions of the total population of all ECA member States.

b/ Excludes Western Sahara.

c/ Excludes St. Helena.

d/ Excludes Reunion.

e/ Includes only Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland.

prevailing commercial rates would have amounted to 359,900 Kenyan shillings, or over three times what the Centre charged. Uganda alone has had repairs of surveying equipment worth $200,000 carried out by the same Centre which saved the country a considerable amount of foreign exchange.

With respect to ensuring financial resources for the multinational institutions, it was thought more prudent at that stage for the institutions to demonstrate their own collective willingness and capacity to solve their problems of lack of funds before seeking help from other sources. The Conference of Chief Executives therefore decided to establish a Buffer Fund to which, as a mark of their belief in collective self-reliance, their institutions would make initial voluntary contributions. The Buffer Fund would be used to advance monies to tide over institutions in temporary financial difficulties. It was felt that the example of the institutions in establishing the Buffer Fund would encourage donor countries and agencies to follow suit. The eighth meeting of the ECA Conference of Ministers welcomed this initiative taken by the Conference of Chief Executives and called on African Governments to make contributions to the Buffer Fund.

Other steps have been taken by the ECA Conference of Ministers which are intended to strengthen and promote the multinational institutions. The Conference decided that biennial reports on the activities and work programme of the multinational institutions should be submitted to it in order to bring to the attention of the important forum, on a regular basis, the vital roles which the multinational institutions have to play and are playing in the economic and social development of Africa. The Conference of Chief Executives realized the enormous value of this decision in promoting their institutions in the highest African governmental circles and submitted the biennial reports and work programmes to the eighth meeting of the ECA Conference of Ministers which was held in April 1982 at Tripoli, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya.

That same meeting requested the Executive Secretary to continue to co-ordinate the work of the multinational institutions so as to determine the extent to which it conformed to the Lagos Plan of Action; how duplication of efforts could be avoided; how the best use could be made of available scarce human and other resources; how the work programmes of the institutions could be co-ordinated and harmonized; and, how the ECA secretariat could assist in achieving those results. This is a challenge which the ECA secretariat has been happy to take up. The wisdom of institutionalizing the Conference of Chief Executives has clearly been demonstrated and the third Conference of Chief Executives held from 29 November to 2 December 1982 was attended by two United Nations organs - the United Nations Volunteers programme and the United Nations Environment Programme solely for the purpose of exploring the possibility of assisting the institutions.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The activities of the ECA secretariat in the important process of institution-building constitute a lasting practical manifestation of the usefulness of ECA since its establishment 25 years ago. The role of the Commission has not been confined merely to the dream leading to the creation of the multinational institutions but has extended to that of midwife and beyond to that of the conscientious parent anxious about the development and welfare of its offsprings.

The ECA secretariat has provided legal expertise in the preparation of the basic constitutions or agreements establishing the multinational institutions. After their establishment, the secretariat has continued to render, free of charge, valuable management, legal and other services to several of them and assigned staff members to perform technical and accounting services for multinational institutions such as the Regional Centre for Services in Surveying, Mapping and Remote Sensing and the Eastern and Southern African Mineral Resources Development Centre.

The important issue of assistance by the ECA secretariat to the many multinational institutions which could not afford to employ full complements of staff was discussed at the Conferences of Chief Executives of ECA-sponsored Regional and Subregional Institutions. The institutions were most appreciative of the assistance being given by the ECA secretariat and requested more assistance on a regular basis. The secretariat has taken this challenge very seriously for, if the many useful multinational institutions sponsored by the Commission are to develop, their limited manpower and other resources must be supplemented by the ECA secretariat. Apart from the vital and valuable assistance which the ECA secretariat has rendered by seconding its operational technical staff members to multinational institutions and providing backstopping services for them, it is taking steps to gear itself to provide, on a permanent basis, common legal, administrative, management and audit services to many multinational institutions which clearly need them.

The practical interest of the ECA secretariat in the multinational institutions that it has helped establish under the aegis of the Commission is a continuous one which, in many cases, has been the factor that has kept these institutions from declining. The ECA secretariat has provided temporary homes for several multinational institutions at critical junctures of their lives and has acted as an unpopular collector of unpaid contributions that have breathed life into faltering institutions. The role of the Executive Secretary of ECA as Chairman of the governing councils of many of the institutions has given robust and effective direction to the development of the institutions and substantially increased their ability to mobilize extrabudgetary resources.

In all this, ECA, in the name of collective self-reliance, has been proud to have played its part not only in helping to create but also in promoting the development of the multinational institutions which African Governments still believe are crucial to the economic and social development of the balkanized continent of Africa. It is also the firm belief of the ECA secretariat that more and more multinational institutions for the collective economic salvation of the African continent will be established and flourish.

BREAKDOWN OF MULTINATIONAL INSTITUTIONS BY CATEGORY

I. Financial and banking services

African Development Bank
Association of African Central Banks
African Centre for Monetary Studies
West African Clearing House
Association of African Tax Administrators

II. Earth resources services

Regional Centre for Training in Aerial Surveys
Regional Centre for Services in Surveying, Mapping and Remote Sensing
African Regional Remote Sensing Council
Eastern and Southern African Mineral Resources Development Centre

African Association of Cartography
African Regional Centre for Solar Energy
Regional Centre for Remote Sensing

III. Industrial development and services

African Regional Centre for Engineering Design and Manufacturing
African Regional Centre for Technology
African Regional Organization for Standardization
African Institute for Higher Technical Training and Research
Eastern and Southern African Mineral Resources Development Centre
Industrial Property Organization for English-speaking Africa

IV. Social, economic development planning and management

African Institute for Economic Development and Planning
Regional Institute for Population Studies
Institut de formation et de recherche démographiques
African Centre for Applied Research and Training in Social Development
Eastern and Southern Africa Management Institute
African Regional Centre for Technology

V. Trade and transport

Association of African Trade Promotion Organizations
Port Management Association of West and Central Africa
Port Management Association of Eastern and Southern Africa
Port Management Association of North Africa
African Regional Organization for Standardization
Trans-African Highway Authority
Trans-East African Highway Authority

VI. ECA Multinational Programming and Operational Centres

West African (Niamey-based) MULPOC
Eastern and Southern African (Lusaka-based) MULPOC
Central African (Yaounde-based) MULPOC
Economic Community of the Great Lakes Countries (Gisenyi-based) MULPOC
North African (Tangiers-based) MULPOC

D. HIGHLIGHTS OF ECA ACTIVITIES

1. AGRICULTURE

(a) Introduction

Africa in the early 1950s was mostly rural with over 90 per cent of its population living on farms and agriculture constituted the largest single area of human activity. In relative terms, however, the agricultural population has been the poorest segment of African population and contributed not more than 40 per cent to GDP. It lacked skill, technology and financial resources, and depended largely on human labour faced with poor nutrition and poor health. There was thus a vast disparity between the productivity of agricultural labour and non-agricultural labour. The low level of productivity of farm labour, in terms of output *per capita,* has been responsible to a considerable extent for the share of the subsistence sector in the African economy. African agriculture was also affected by a discrepancy between the rate of growth of domestic food production and population. Whereas annual population growth was below the agricultural growth rate prior to 1955 the situation since then has been the reverse.

At the time of the creation of ECA in 1958, the vast majority of Africa was suffering under the yoke of colonialism, and the economy was exploited exclusively for the benefit of the respective metropolitan Powers. Thus agricultural development policies were determined by and with emphasis on the needs of the colonial Powers. This pattern of development continued after the immediate post-independence period.

The objective of resolving some if not all the economic problems of food and agriculture in Africa was clearly identified as the joint responsibility of ECA and FAO. ECA has to study these matters in relation to all other socio-economic sectors of Africa, and in relation to other economic regions influencing the African economy. In order to avoid duplication and competition in areas of mutual interest it became necessary that a programme of work should be carried out jointly by the two secretariats in the field.

Accordingly, the Joint ECA/FAO Agriculture Division (JEFAD) was established in 1959 by the signing of the first Memorandum of Understanding between Mr. M. Abbas, the then Executive Secretary of ECA, and Mr. B.R. Sen, Director-General of FAO, in order to establish a firm basis for effective collaboration between their respective organizations.This was followed by the second Memorandum of Understanding signed in 1966 between Mr. R.K.A. Gardiner, Executive Secretary of ECA, and Mr. B.R. Sen, Director-General of FAO, this time in order to develop a fruitful and comprehensive programme of collaboration. The third and most recent agreement was

signed in Rome in April 1977 between Mr. A. Adedeji, Executive Secretary of ECA, and Dr. E. Saouma, Director-General of FAO. This latest agreement signifies a turning point in the status of the Joint Division. It is not only charged with meeting the objectives of the ECA programme of work and FAO regular programmes but it also undertakes field projects at both the regional and the subregional levels with technical and policy backstopping from the FAO Regional Office in Accra and its headquarters.

(b) Regional Food Plan for Africa and the Lagos Plan of Action

Whilst in its early years the Joint Division concentrated mainly on background studies and the establishment of such inter-governmental organizations as the West African Rice Development Association and the Association for the Advancement of Agricultural Sciences in Africa, in view of the deteriorating food situation in Africa and the consequent Freetown Declaration of 1976, a Regional Food Plan for Africa (AFPLAN) was prepared jointly by FAO and ECA, adopted by the FAO Regional Conference of Ministers of Agriculture in Arusha, United Republic of Tanzania, in 1978, and endorsed by the fifth meeting of the ECA Conference of Ministers in Rabat, Morocco, in 1979.

The major objective of AFPLAN is to achieve relative food self-sufficiency.

AFPLAN analyses the food situation and food prospects. It proposes policies and programmes and identifies investment needs and the areas of investment. it suggests action at two levels: national and inter-governmental. At the national level, Governments are to prepare and implement priority policies and projects for food self-sufficiency. At the intergovernmental level, the African countries are to undertake joint ventures for increasing food production and intra-subregional and regional trade.

The 50 independent countries of Africa are taking action at the national level in line with AFPLAN and the Lagos Plan of Action (see below) with the help of both FAO and ECA. ECA is devoting its attention to food development in countries by providing assistance through African inter-governmental organizations.

In this connection ECA evaluated the on-going and planned programmes and projects and potential contribution to food development of 40 inter-governmental organizations directly or indirectly engaged in food development and proposed guidelines for new programmes and projects. This evaluation was based on deskwork using all available information followed by full field investigations and discussions with 25 inter-governmental organizations.

A summary evaluation report entitled: "the Regional Food Plan for Africa: Evaluation of programmes and projects of inter-governmental organizations" (E/CN.14/751) was submitted to the ECA Conference of Ministers in April 1980. The full subregional reports were discussed with the policy-making organs of the MULPOCs and, as a result, a number of projects were incorporated into the programmes of work of the Niamey, Lusaka, Gisenyi and Yaounde MULPOCs. A process is under way, particularly in the West African subregion (Niamey MULPOC) where large number of the inter-governmental organizations have their headquarters, to streamline the programmes and activities of the organizations, eliminate duplication and bring about better co-ordination for accelerated food development.

Based on the subregional AFPLAN reports, and missions in the field and discussions with the inter-governmental organizations, new food development projects have been identified. More are in the process of being formulated. In so doing, care is taken to give highest priority to the most urgent programmes and activities which can produce significant results in the shortest possible time, namely the reduction of post-harvest losses, establishment of food security programmes and the expansion of crops (tropical cereals), livestock and fisheries as specified in the Lagos Plan of Action.

A report entitled "Implementation of the Regional Food Plan for Africa: Progress, problems and prospects", was submitted to the eighth meeting of the ECA Conference of Ministers in April 1982.

The worsening agricultural and food crisis and the nutritional status in Africa have made it clear that the only option is to promote individual and collective food self-sufficiency as the major objective of agricultural development in the region. The 1978 AFPLAN laid down the medium-term actions and strategies needed to promote food production and the long-term perspectives for agricultural development in Africa.

The Lagos Plan of Action concretizes the objectives and strategies of AFPLAN further by focusing on short-run priority measures which should be taken during a five-year period 1980-1985 with a

view to bringing about an immediate improvement in the food situation while laying the foundation for the long-term objective of achieving food self-sufficiency as envisaged in AFPLAN. An inter-agency group was convened jointly by OAU and ECA and comprising OAU, ECA, ADB, FAO, WFC and IFAD. The Group prepared a programme of action for the development of food and agriculture in Africa, 1980-1985 which was adopted at the sixth meeting of the ECA Conference of Ministers in April 1980. Later in the same month with the necessary amendments, the extraordinary session of the OAU Assembly of Heads of State and Government adopted the programme as part of the overall Lagos Plan of Action.

In accordance with the Lagos Plan of Action, every member State is required to adopt a coherent national policy to:

(a) Achieve a large and sustained increase in food production, particularly a rapid increase in tropical cereals (rice, maize, millet and sorghum), roots and tubers, livestock, fishery and forestry production;

(b) Reduce post-harvest food losses by 50 per cent between 1980 and 1985;

(c) Establish strategic food reserves at 10 per cent of total annual food production;

(d) Provide adequate services and institutions such as marketing, research, extension and rural credit; and

(e) Establish implementation and monitoring services.

In order to implement the above objectives, the Lagos Plan of Action has emphasized the adoption of appropriate strategies and a change in course through the re-orientation of social and economic systems and the application of national policies that result in increased food and agricultural production. For long-term self-sustained development and food self-sufficiency, the agricultural sector must receive more attention than hitherto, through increased investment of human and financial resources in the sector from both internal and external sources. In order to give credence to the goals of individual and collective self-reliance, however, reliance must be placed increasingly on domestic sources of resources.

In order to translate the Plan's stated goals and targets into concrete programmes and projects aimed at making an impact on African development policies and plans, ECA has undertaken a number of activities including the reduction of food losses, food security, food development and intra-regional marketing.

(c) Other activities

Other major activities in which the Joint Division is engaged with a view to implementing the objectives of AFPLAN and the Lagos Plan of Action include livestock development projects, projects relating to the reduction of food waste and losses, forest resources development and conservation, improvement of agricultural marketing institutions and the promotion of intra-subregional co-operation and trade in agricultural products.

2. INDUSTRY

(a) Introduction

At the time when a provision was made for industry in the ECA organizational structure most of the member States had just become independent. Their economies were designed to support the metropolitan industries through the supply of agricultural and mineral raw materials and to serve as captive markets for goods of those industries. Whatever industries (which in many instances were not meant to cater for the masses) were established were owned and managed by foreign industrial entrepreneurs and companies whose objectives did not usually coincide with those of the African States themselves.

Having won political independence, African countries found themselves faced with economic dependence, including in industry. The major problem was to decolonize their economies which meant, in particular, the establishment of policies and strategies which would give industry a fundamental place in economic and social development, a position which it did not occupy during the colonial period. They needed to devise new industrial policies, objectives and strategies; to formulate priorities; and to promulgate legislation which would enable them to plan and establish industries and related infrastructures geared to their needs and capacities as well as to restructure their industrial relationships with the metropolitan countries in the light of changing world trends.

Such were undoubtedly among the reasons that prompted the Commission to adopt resolution 18 (II) of 1960 requesting the Executive Secretary to pay particular attention to the problem of indus-

trialization in Africa. As a result, the Division of Industry, Transport and Natural Resources was established in 1961. In recognition of their crucial roles, industry and natural resources were subsequently given high priority in the work programme of the Commission and a Standing Committee on Industry and Natural Resources was established in 1962 pursuant to resolution 43 (IV) adopted by the fourth session of the Commission in February 1962.

Apparently because of the increasing activities and complexities of the Division, it was found necessary to create a separate unit for industry - hence the birth of the Industry Division in 1962. In 1963 activities related to housing, building and physical planning were brought under its responsibility, on account of the emphasis put on the building and construction aspect at that time. A Standing Committee on Housing and Physical Planning was set up and its first meeting held in 1964. In order to reflect the added functions, the Division was renamed the "Industry and Housing Division" in 1967.

The member States, recognizing the need for action in respect of industrialization in the region, also adopted Conference of Ministers resolution 249 (XI) on the creation of a Joint ECA/UNIDO Industry Division. Following an agreement signed between the Executive Heads of ECA and UNIDO on 25 June 1973, the Joint Division became operational on 1 January 1974.

In its efforts to institutionalize co-operation with relevant organizations, ECA had also organized the first ECA/OAU Conference of African Ministers of Industry in May 1971. The Conference adopted the Addis Ababa Declaration on Industrialization in the 1970s in which the determination of African countries to ensure self-reliance in the 1970s and to pursue concerted action was reaffirmed. This Declaration was endorsed by the eighth Assembly of Heads of State and Government of OAU in June 1971. The second and subsequent meetings of African Ministers as well as the Follow-up Committee on Industrialization in Africa, the subsidiary organ of the Ministers which held its first meeting in September 1974, were and continue to be sponsored by ECA, OAU and UNIDO. Decisions made at the second Conference of African Ministers of Industry held in Cairo in December 1973 included the promotion of policies and programmes aimed at developing African skills to cope with all industrial activities in the region and to process, to the greatest extent possible, the region's natural resources.

Decisions made by the Conference of African Ministers of Industry after 1973 reflected the deteriorating situation of African economies resulting partly from the 1973 energy crisis. Judged by the agreed conclusions and resolutions adopted by the successive ministerial meetings, member States have apparently come to realize that their industrial potential can be realized only through multinational co-operation. In this connection, it should be noted that the Conference of African Ministers of Industry played an important role also in having the General Assembly declare the 1980s as the Industrial Development Decadè for Africa [see resolution 35/66(B) of 15 December 1980].

(b) Industrial research and investment promotion

The earliest contribution of the Commission was in the field of research aimed at identifying major issues, problems and constraints which confronted the African region in its effort towards industrialization. As more information was generated, these activities were supplemented by surveys of industrial trends and research in problems concerning the relative allocation of investment among industrial subsectors.

These research activities were in time supplemented by industrial promotion research. These activities included assessment of different types of industrial investment codes, investment climate and investment incentives to facilitate the flow of industrial capital investment in the region. Hand in hand with these activities, the Commission also accorded priority to the identification of specific industrial projects, the preparation of project profiles and the promotion of these projects vis-à-vis investors.

(c) Reorientation of industrial policies and planning

While these activities continue up to the present, later on, because of the lack of linkages among projects and other emerging problems and the need to look at long-term prospects for industrial development, it became necessary to devote more resources to a continuous review and appraisal of the industrial development policies and strategies of African countries as a means of assisting member States to reshape their development strategies and policies. Studies undertaken by the Commission have been regularly submitted to member States individually, to intergovernmental organizations and MULPOCs and have also been considered by the Conference of African Ministers of Industry. The policy adjustment activities of the Commission culminated in the organiza-

tion of a symposium on the same subject in 1979 which marked the turning point in the clarification and adoption of development policies and strategies consistent with social and economic independence which are now increasingly being followed by individual African countries. All these and related activities have contributed more indirectly than directly to the choice of more appropriate industrial priorities and projects.

The contribution of the Commission in the field of industrial planning in Africa derives from activities related to technical assistance given on request as well as the occasional preparation, publication and distribution of subsectoral studies jointly carried out in collaboration with UNIDO and FAO in such areas as metallurgical, chemical, building materials, engineering, food processing, forest and small-scale industries. In some cases, these sectoral reviews which deal with constraints and development prospects have been considered by African industrial planners at special workshops and inter-governmental meetings.

(d) Indigenization of industrial entrepreneurship

In view of the great importance African countries attach to self-reliance and hence to the substitution of foreign industrial entrepreneurs and management in industry by indigenous ones, major attention has been directed to the promotion and support of the indigenous industrial entrepreneurs. In recognition of the important role that the private and public indigenous industrial entrepreneurs will have to play in the process of the decolonization of the African industrial sector as well as in the promotion of self-reliance, the Commission has been actively supporting and promoting measures and policies which boost African industrial entrepreneurs. More recently, the Commission has been engaged in the promotion of associations of industrial entrepreneurs at the sub-regional and regional levels.

(e) Industrial information and training

The activities of the Commission have included the organization of study tours to other developing countries, utilization of indigenous experts in the study of African industrial problems and organization of consultations and negotiations among African countries at both the regional and the subregional levels.

The identification of the areas and modalities of possible co-operation among African countries to widen the market for industrial products, ensure complementarity in industrial raw materials and facilitate the pooling of resources among different countries has been one major area of activity of the Commission.

Major instruments for contributing to the development of African industry have been the organization of various training workshops, as well as the establishment of the Conference of African Ministers of Industry in 1973. This Conference, which is organized jointly by the Commission, OAU and UNIDO has, and continues to be, the main instrument for the exchange of experience among African Governments, for the identification of common problems for conducting negotiations among themselves and for preparing a common position on international issues.

Another means used by the Commission to assist African countries in the solution of their common problems is the continuous diffusion of industrial information to as many countries as possible through the regular publication of documents as well as a publication entitled "Investment Africa". These have been used as supplements to other means of communication with Governments and other actors in the industrial sector. All these activities have led to a better appreciation and understanding of the industrialization process thereby enabling African countries to make more informed choices and decisions. Moreover, exchanges and information provided in the various studies have led to a greater appreciation of the vital role of industrial co-operation as a means of achieving national industrial development objectives.

(f) Industrial institutions

Besides conducting research and studies on these aspects of development the Commission has been engaged in the development and promotion of technical capabilities related to project preparation. Industrial institutions play an important part in the development, organization and utilization of technical industrial capacities for development. The development by the Commission of industrial institutions of various types at the national level and more recently at the regional level is one of the means of assisting African countries in their efforts. The most important of such institutions created or under creation include the African Regional Centre for Engineering Design and Manufacturing (ARCEDEM) established in 1980 and located in Ibadan, Nigeria, and the African Industrial Development Fund which is being established. The first of these institutions

will assist African countries in the development of engineering design capabilities which is the principal means of embodying technology in goods. The second one is expected, *inter alia,* to provide resources for feasibility studies.

(g) Industrial Development Decade for Africa

Assistance continues to be given by the Commission to individual countries as well as subregional economic groups in the area of industrial planning incorporating the linkages between Africa's natural resources and final industrial needs. Recently, the Commission, in collaboration with OAU and UNIDO, assisted member States in the preparation of a programme for the Industrial Development Decade for Africa (1980-1990) which is designed to implement the industrial chapter of the Lagos Plan of Action. The Decade programme represents the most integrated programme ever prepared for the African region in the industrial sector and incorporates the major findings on this sector as well as the aspirations and goals of the African people.

The objectives of the Decade include changes in production structure, whereby industry will not only produce final consumer goods to meet the essential basic needs of the population but also produce inputs for further industrial production and inputs to agriculture, transport and energy, the development of indigenous technical and managerial capabilities, widening of national markets, and the establishment or strengthening of integrated core industrial projects. While the programme focuses on self-reliance and self-sustaining development, it also provides wide scope for economic and technical co-operation among African countries, other developing countries and developed countries.

The programme deals with the broad strategies as well as issues and priorities for the strategies for the development of specific industrial subsectors and also identifies some broad project ideas. The subsectors include food processing, textiles, forest industries, building materials and substantial matters for basic chemicals, engineering and small-scale industries. It also covers major inputs such as energy and the packaging industries. The major actions and capabilities to be developed at the national, subregional and regional levels for the implementation of the Decade are outlined.

The emergent dynamic market for industrial raw materials and intermediate goods in the region and in other developing countries in the context of the Industrial Development Decade would be effectively exploited through the rationalization of the market, joint ventures, long-term purchase arrangements and complementarity through trade and barter. This opens up promising prospects for raising Africa's industrial production and enabling the region to move more rapidly, increasing share of its development and consumer needs produced directly from the exploitation of its natural resources.

In order to assist African countries in the implementation of the Decade programme the Commission is now using the programme as a basis for technical assistance to economic co-operation groupings in the formulation of specific programmes taking into account their resource endowment. Moreover, in collaboration with UNIDO and OAU, the Commission has prepared and submitted special guidelines for use at the national and subregional levels in order to facilitate effective action.

3. PAN-AFRICAN DOCUMENTATION AND INFORMATION SYSTEM (PADIS)

(a) Introduction

At successive meetings of the various organs of ECA over the years, member States had expressed serious concern about the poor state of numerical and non-numerical information and documentation services on the continent, since they fully realized that no new approach to the economic and social development of Africa could succeed without adequate national, subregional and regional data bases, with emphasis on internally generated information and documentation.

After the issue had been discussed at the fifteenth session of the then Executive Committee and by the Heads of State of OAU at Libreville in 1977, the ECA Conference of Ministers, in 1979, adopted resolution 359 (XIV) on an African data bank.

In response to that resolution, a feasibility study was prepared by a joint mission composed of ECA, OAU and IDRC in collaboration with UNESCO, the United Nations Department of International Economic and Social Affairs and UNDP. The study proposed the creation of a Pan-African Documentation and Information System (PADIS) for social and economic development. The PADIS Central Co-ordinating Office located at ECA headquarters was officially inaugurated on 30 January 1981. The

PADIS system is supported by financial contributions from ECA, UNDP, ADB and IDRC.

(b) Objectives

The objectives of PADIS are fourfold: firstly, to identify, collect, process and disseminate Africa's information resources by creating an efficient system for the utilization of information by member States and specialized regional and subregional organizations; secondly, to promote information exchange among African countries in support of regional and subregional technical co-operation and economic integration; thirdly, to provide direct assistance to African Governments and organizations in improving their information handling capabilities; and, fourthly, to establish the necessary linkages with information systems situated outside Africa as additional sources of technical and scientific information relevant to African development.

(c) Structure

The PADIS system was designed with the following components and structures to enable it to realize the aforementioned objectives.

The bibliographic reference services consist of the PADIS-DEV and PADIS-COM files. PADIS-DEV is the economic and social development information component to be built as a reference file including the development plans of African countries as well as facts, trends, analyses, prescriptions for decision-making, official policies, programmes and arrangements, operational experiences, consequences, evaluations, tools for development and other related information concerning development activities in and on Africa. PADIS-COM is the collection of complementary (sectoral) reference files on agriculture, manufacturing, transport, communications, trade, labour and manpower, population, environment, women and development, etc. to be prepared in collaboration with competent regional and subregional institutions, national documentation centres, co-operating information systems of the United Nations system as well as the substantive divisions of ECA.

The numerical data bank services consist of PADIS-STAT and PADIS-TEND. PADIS-STAT is the collection of statistical files on national accounts, population and demography, production and distribution, etc. to be prepared in liaison with the ECA Statistics Division, the United Nations Statistical Office, statistical offices of member States and other competent organizations. PADIS-TEND is the collection of factual numerical files on commodities, manufacturing, products and processes, patents, etc. to be prepared in collaboration with competent African and United Nations organizations.

The descriptive inventory services consist of the PADIS-CORE and PADIS-PROM files. PADIS-CORE will be a common register and referral system on African capabilities, i.e. expertise, institutions, training programmes, on-going research, etc. in support of technical co-operation among developing countries in Africa and between Africa and other developing regions. PADIS-PROM will be a management and referral system on on-going development projects in the African region.

A Central Co-ordination Office at ECA headquarters is directly responsible for the implementation of the ten-year, three-phase programme. Ultimately, PADIS will be a network of national, subregional and institutional participating centres which use similar approaches. The Central Co-ordination Office will develop common norms, standards, methodologies and tools based upon international guidelines for use by all participating centres to ensure utmost compatibility among the participants. The Office will provide advice to participating centres and prepare guidelines regarding suitable hardware and software configurations on the basis of compatibility, cost, supply and maintenance factors. It will provide training to staff of participating centres to overcome the severe shortage of information specialists such as documentalists, data base managers, software and hardware specialists, etc. Moreover, it will serve as the link between African data bases and those situated in the industrial world as well as in other developing regions to furnish vital scientific and technological information generated outside Africa.

Five subregional offices will be established in conformity with existing arrangements for political and economic co-operation, mainly according to the subregional groupings of the ECA MULPOCs. The subregional centres will provide direct assistance to national information and documentation centres, particularly during the early stages of their development and to subregional co-operation bodies, thereby enhancing the smooth flow of information and the exchange of experience among the partner States. Moreover, each subregional office will be linked to

other subregional centres and the Central Co-ordination Office.

It is envisaged that national documentation centres will co-ordinate the activities of the government units engaged in information and documentation affairs at the ministerial and institutional levels. In view of the limited resources that will be available for the acquisition of modern information processing technologies, the need to avoid duplication of effort and the proliferation of information focal points, the National Information and Documentation Centres are expected to co-ordinate the activities of all institutional users within the country. Simultaneously, the Centre will be a participating centre of the PADIS subregional office and therefore will serve as a link between external sources of information and national users.

The creation of institutional participating centres is accorded paramount importance in order to acquire the wealth of information existing within specialized institutions. Since PADIS is a multidisciplinary system, the contributions of specialized institutions to the PADIS complementary files will be important. PADIS will assist African regional inter-governmental organizations to enable them to obtain the required infrastructure and manpower.

These hierarchically arranged centres at the national, subregional, institutional and regional levels will be linked using up-to-date data transmission technologies including remote interrogation terminals and satellite communications. The last phase of the ten-year PADIS programme will be heavily committed to the creation of participating centres and their interlinkage using a special telecommunication satellite.

Since its creation in January 1980, the PADIS Central Co-ordination Office has expanded considerably both in its scope of activity and in its technical competence. At present, it consists of the Computerized Documentation Section, the Computer Operations Section and the Reprographic, Printing and Maintenance Section.

An HP 3000/III computer configuration with a 2 megabyte core memory and 240 megabyte peripheral memory (2 disc drives and 2 tape drives) was installed in 1980 in accordance with the recommendations of a study team taking into consideration compatibility with other systems and the availability of suitable software. Other equipment installed includes 24 interactive terminals, six line printers and a high performance photo-reproduction machine. The high efficiency achieved from and the limited repair and maintenance work required on this equipment justifies its acquisition elsewhere. During phase I, essential software requirements for the statistical and documentation activities envisaged for the period have been met. The following software packages have been acquired at minimal or no cost to the project: MINISIS, a software package for bibliographic information storage, processing and retrieval; SPSS, a statistical package for the social sciences, which is a suitable tool for the storage and analysis of statistical and demographic data; ISEA, an on-line software for econometric analysis; IPACS, an on-line package for planning and budget control; TDP, a text and document processor; and ASK, the data base interrogating and reporting software. The Central Co-ordination Office is studying suitable softwares available in the market for the management of its numerical files to be created during phase II of its programme.

The Central Co-ordination Office has offered about six months of intensive training and one year of on-the-job training to its documentalists and data base managers. Moreover, several short training courses have been organized for staff members of the Statistics Division, the Socio-Economic Research and Planning Division and the ECA Population Division. More recently a four-week training programme has been organized for English-speaking African countries to enable them to use new software designed mainly for handling census and survey data. Two workshops on documentation and microfiching techniques were organized in collaboration with the Government of Zimbabwe and the African Development Bank in 1981.

The Office has drawn up the "PADIS manual for document analysis" and a worksheet to prepare inputs. Both tools have been submitted to two international technical meetings and have been found satisfactory. ECWA and ECLA have expressed interest in adopting these tools. The Computerized Documentation Section has analysed and processed the first 2,000 records for the PADIS-DEV component during phase I. The first issue of DEVINDEX-Africa, an index to documents on the social and economic development of Africa, has been published and widely circulated. The next four issues have been sent for publication. The Development Information System of the United Nations Department of International Economic and Social Affairs has provided the Office with a portion of its data base amounting to 3,500 bibliographic entries which are of relevance

to African development. This data base is now available on-line for interrogation.

Negotiations have been concluded with ILO and the FAO International Information System for the Agricultural Sciences Technology for co-operation in the exchange of sectoral information concerning Africa. Accordingly, PADIS has acquired 40,000 bibliographic records from ILO. Thus, the first complementary (sectoral) file, ILIS-Africa has been created and is now available for on-line interrogation. The design of the following complementary files is under way: the African Regional Centre for Technology information system (ARCTIS); the information system for African legislation, treaties, agreements and other legal texts (LAW-AFRICA); the trade and finance information system (TF-AFRICA); the African information system on population activities (POPIN-AFRICA); and the African documentation system on environment and human settlements (HABITAT-AFRICA).

ECA, with the collaboration of the French Government, had conducted an intensive survey on the nature, structure and availability of statistical data in African countries. The recommendations resulting from this study form the premise for structuring the statistical file (PADIS-STAT) which is comprised of country profiles and statistical data useful for projections and other time-series analysis. PADIS-STAT became operational towards the middle of 1982. The first draft for the design of the second component of the numerical files, PADIS-TEND, comprising numerical and technical data concerning resources, trade, production, commodities, patent information, etc., is under preparation. PADIS in collaboration with the European Space Agency, has concluded a preliminary study to assess the feasibility of installing a pan-African satellite communication network with international linkages for tele-data transmission of bibliographic and numerical information.

In accordance with the objectives and work programme laid down for the first phase of the PADIS project, the Central Co-ordination Office has submitted to all member States proposals for the creation of national information and documentation centres. Consequently, the Government of Morocco has designated the "Centre national de documentation" as a PADIS participating centre; the Governments of Algeria, Egypt, the Sudan and Tunisia are considering the designation of already established centres; the Governments of Benin, Ethiopia, Guinea and Nigeria are in the process of creating their centres. All remaining member States have been approached and positive discussions have been held.

Discussions are being finalized with ADB, ARCT and the African Training and Research Centre in Administration for Development for the creation of institutional participating centres. Others, like ESAMI, ARCEDEM and IDEP, are being approached in an effort to enhance the participation of regional and subregional institutions which are both primary generators and users of information.

4. TRANSPORT, COMMUNICATIONS AND TOURISM

(a) Introduction

The transport facilities which existed in individual countries in the region in 1958 had been designed by the metropolitan Powers primarily to transport raw materials to ports for shipment abroad and to import merchandize. This situation constituted a serious handicap, especially for the land-locked countries, which had to export their commodities by routes which were not necessarily the most economical, but which led through areas controlled by the same metropolitan Power.

Taking this inherited situation into consideration, the Commission at its first session requested the secretariat to study possibilities of co-operation in the use of roads, railways and harbours. At its second session the Commission reiterated its concern about the transport situation in Africa and requested the secretariat to examine the problems of transport in African States in their national and regional contexts, i.e. in terms not only of co-operation between neighbouring States, but also of the establishment of links between the various regions in Africa.

Over the years the Commission has set up a variety of subsidiary bodies to facilitate the work in specific sectors (For further details see chapter III A above and chapter IV below). With regard to transport, for example, at the fifth session, the terms of reference of the Standing Committee on Natural Resources and Industrialization were expanded to include transport. In 1965 the Standing Committee was replaced by a Working Party on Transport and Telecommunications.

The administrative organization of the secretariat has also reflected the sectoral preoccupations of the Commission. The Division of Industry, Transport and Natural Resources was set up in 1960-1961.

At that time as in many other fields, the secretariat's activities focused on the organization of meetings and general and sectoral studies. Accordingly a study was carried out on transport in West Africa and presented to the third session of the Commission. Many delegations emphasized the importance of an integrated transport system and the need to plan transport development for the whole region. In 1964-1965 more sectoral research was conducted covering roads, railways, air and maritime transport as well as tourism.

In 1967 resolutions were adopted recognizing the importance of the various transport modes in the economic development of the region and requesting the Executive Secretary of ECA to undertake further studies and other activities in the field of transport and to take measures to implement the Pan-African Telecommunications Network project (PANAFTEL), a field in which the secretariat already co-operated with ITU.

The administrative organization of the secretariat was further modified in the light of those resolutions. A new Natural Resources and Transport Division was created including a Transport Section with six professional staff, a telecommunication programme with three regional advisers provided by ITU and a group of three regional advisers provided from project funds. In 1968-1969 the Transport Section became a Transport and Telecommunications Section with a professional staff of seven in 1969 increasing to nine in 1970-1971 and a group of six regional advisers, and in 1970-1971 a Tourism Section was added.

The work programme of the Section at that time covered all transport modes, telecommunications and tourism and included studies and research and the organization of conferences and seminars, as well as assistance to African Governments. At that time also the Trans-African Highways programme was launched and a Trans-African Highway Bureau was established to serve as the secretariat for the co-ordinating committees of Trans-African Highways and to assist in the establishment of Trans-African Highway Authorities.

As the programme of work in the field of transport, communications and tourism expanded, the Section was upgraded to form the Transport, Communications and Tourism Division and new areas of activities such as postal services, broadcasting, and satellite communications were introduced.

In 1977 the United Nations Transport and Communications Decade in Africa (UNTACDA) was launched with ECA as the lead agency. As ECA became at this time an executing agency, the work became oriented more towards operational activities as compared with the research-oriented programmes of the past.

The Division was also strengthened by the addition of new posts in the field of transport and in particular by the creation of an UNTACDA Co-ordination Unit. In addition to the 12 professional posts on the regular budget, the Division now has eight project personnel posts, mainly for the Decade, and recruits short-term consultants in specific fields when required.

(b) Road transport

The Trans-African Highways programme was initiated under ECA Conference of Ministers resolution 226 (X) of 1971 approving the first trans-African highway project between Lagos, Nigeria, and Mombasa, Kenya, passing through the United Republic of Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Zaire and Uganda.

ECA has been instrumental in conceptualizing the various trans-African highway networks and their organizational structures; preparing background documents; convening and servicing meetings of their governing bodies; preparing draft headquarters agreements, rules of procedure, financial regulations and staff rules and regulations. ECA serves as the principal Bureau of those Trans-African Highways whose authorities have not yet been established and as a technical advisory bureau for those with authorities.

ECA activities in the highway and road transport subsector have been developed from the premise that the international road infrastructure connecting African countries is poor and inadequate and the fact that roads could provide efficient and cheap surface links among African countries. Thus, the programme has been designed to take into account the following elements: transit facilitation; simplification of documentation and border-crossing formalities; adoption of bilateral/multilateral reciprocal traffic movement agreements; and adequate maintenance of infrastructure. The activities also include harmonization and standardization of regulatory codes, road signs and signals and weight limits as well as appropriate arrangements for multinational training facilities for highway personnel at all levels.

ECA activities for the design of an African Highway Master Plan and the establishment of an African Highway Code are at an advanced stage. The former will establish a basic continental road network and the latter will provide a uniform Highway Code for the entire region.

The Authority of the Lagos-Mombasa Trans-African Highway became operational in February 1981 with its headquarters in Bangui, the Central African Republic. ECA has carried out invaluable work for the establishment of this Authority by drafting and revising its basic legal and other documents, such as the Constitution, the headquarters agreement, the rules of procedure, the financial regulations and the staff rules and regulations. ECA continues to provide technical advisory assistance to the Authority in studies, physical inventory of network conditions and other aspects of its work programme.

In 1981, ECA established the Authority of the Cairo-Gaborone Highway or Trans-East African Highway, which connects Cairo, Egypt, to Gaborone, Botswana, passing through the Sudan, Ethiopia, the United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Efforts by ECA to locate the headquarters of the Authority are still continuing.

The Trans-West African Highway Network consists of the Lagos-Nouakchott (Trans-Coastal) Highway and the Dakar-N'Djamena (Trans-Sahelian) Highway. A single Co-ordinating Committee has been formed by the merger of the two original co-ordinating committees and its terms of reference have been prepared.

During the 1982 meeting of the ECOWAS Transport Commission in Cotonou, Benin, it was decided that the ECOWAS Transport Section would administer the entire network programme rather than establish an independent authority.

ECA has also been instrumental in formulating and promoting the objectives of the Algiers-Lagos Trans-Sahara Road which is now under construction and is studying the feasibility of the following four major highways: Tripoli-Windhoek; Nouakchott-Cairo, N'Djamena-Massawa-Djibouti; and Beira-Lobito.

(c) Maritime transport

Because of the dominant role of maritime transport in Africa's international trade, ECA has taken keen interest in collaborating with appropriate specialized agencies of the United Nations such as the International Maritime Organization, UNCTAD and ILO in promoting the rational development of maritime transport in Africa.

In 1966 a report was published containing results of a preliminary survey of the factors affecting freight rates in African maritime trade. The report emphasized the need to lower and stabilize freight rates by harmonizing maritime transport policies and suggested how to counter the domination of foreign monopolistic liner conferences in Africa.

In June 1974 an interagency meeting of ECA, UNDP, IMO, UNCTAD and ILO was held in Addis Ababa to examine the problems hindering the harmonious development of shipping in Africa and decided that a joint ECA/UNCTAD/IMO mission should investigate the problems.

The mission's report issued in June 1975 pointed out the serious disproportions and gaps in African shipping and also suggested what corrective measures should be taken, including assistance to subregions and countries in compiling essential maritime transport information; and assistance to countries in organizing their maritime transport activities through mastery of appropriate technology, in-service training programmes, seminars and establishment of maritime training institutions.

Major progress has been made in implementing the training activities as a result of two ECA feasibility studies on setting up subregional maritime training institutions and academies in Africa. The other recommendations have not been implemented owing mainly to lack of resources.

(d) Ports

Recognizing the important role of ports as terminal points to maritime transport as well as their pre-eminent role in Africa's international trade and the irrefutable evidence that port handling costs constitute a major portion of maritime transport costs, ECA has emphasized the need for efficient port operations in Africa.

Research has been directed at major port operations issues and problems so as to increase efficiency and maximize investments and also at policies and strategies for planning and designing new facilities in response to increased traffic volume and changing maritime transport characteristics. The

conclusions of such research have been disseminated to African countries for information, debate or direct application.

In 1982 ECA carried out a study of "The main problems of African ports and ways of solving them" which among other things revealed the need for modernization of port facilities; new port installations and cargo handling equipment; and increased containerization. The study recommended that port efficiency could be achieved through the introduction of uniform port statistics and performance indicators; consultations between port authorities and shipbuilders on technological advances in the industry to enable ports to adapt to the new technologies; closer co-operation among African port authorities; tailoring investments in port infrastructures to practical present and future needs; rationalization of policies and port charges; and adequate and regular maintenance of port equipment and facilities.

Another ECA study on port planning in Africa provided economic development officials with policy guidelines for port development, organization, administration and operations and is intended for the widest possible practical application.

ECA staff have provided technical advisory assistance to African port authorities in the preparation of government requests for foreign assistance and loans as well as terms of reference and job descriptions for foreign experts. Between 1978 and 1982 for example, ECA provided technical advisory services to port authorities in Djibouti, Guinea-Bissau, Equatorial Guinea, Guinea, the Comoros, Kenya, the United Republic of Tanzania, Benin, Gabon, Tunisia, the Gambia, Seychelles and Mauritius.

Because the training of high-level personnel could substantially improve port operations, ECA in collaboration with UNCTAD organized a course on port operation problems for 45 African senior port officials in the USSR. As a result of the positive feedback on the first course, a second similar course was organized for 45 other senior port officials in the USSR in 1982.

The Conference of Ministers in 1971 in Tunis approved the establishment of three Port Management Associations for the West and Central, Eastern and Southern and North African subregions with the following objectives:

(a) To promote the improvement, co-ordination and standardization of operations, equipment and services in African ports and harbours in order to increase efficiency;

(b) To ensure co-ordinated development of port activities among States members of the Association;

(c) To establish and maintain close relations with other transport operations, institutions, associations, international and governmental organizations for the study of matters of common interest; and

(d) To provide a forum for exchange of views, ideas and experience on common African port problems.

Since 1974, African port activities have been managed by the three Associations. They have promoted and will continue to promote the efficient management of African ports, which is essential in overall efficient maritime transport.

(e) Inland water transport

ECA activities in inland water transport have been minimal until recently, partly owing to a lack of interest on the part of African countries in the development of this mode and the consequent lack of ECA expertise in this field. Thus far, ECA work in inland water transport has been limited to the following three activities: (a) a preliminary study defining suitable types of vessels for the Zambezi, Kafue, Kabongo and Luangwa rivers in 1982; (b) a study of skill levels, training needs and facilities in 1981; and (c) organization of a three-month course for senior African inland transport personnel in the USSR in 1982.

(f) Air transport

ECA's contribution to the co-ordinated development of air transport in Africa has been pursued through the implementation of regional, subregional and national projects and the establishment of aeronautical bodies and associations.

In 1963, ECA and the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) embarked on a study of air transport in Africa and in 1964 the first African Air Transport Conference was organized by ECA and ICAO.

The Conference considered action necessary to develop air transport within Africa and between Africa and the rest of the world as an instrument for economic and social development and made several recommendations including the establishment of a permanent African civil aviation organ, and the establishment of subregional airlines as the first stage towards setting up a pan-African airline.

In 1969, joint ECA, OAU and ICAO efforts culminated in the convening of a Conference on the Establishment of an African Civil Aviation Commission (AFCAC) which later became a specialized organ of OAU.

Since 1964, ECA has jointly carried out several regional projects and studies with AFCAC, the African Airlines Association (AFRAA), ICAO and other regional organizations, among which were those relating to the African Air Tariff Convention, the ECOWAS study, the OCAM/CEPGL study, etc.

ECA has also organized and taken part in many subregional and regional seminars on air transport in Africa. The latest conference, which dealt with the development of air transport services in Africa, was organized in December 1982 jointly by AFCAC and OAU.

(g) Rail transport

Since the Union of African Railways (UAR) was founded in 1972 through the initiative of ECA and became a specialized agency of OAU with the mandate to standardize, expand, co-ordinate and improve the services of its member railways, ECA has continued to provide it with technical advisory assistance and has collaborated in studies, organization and servicing of conferences, meetings and seminars and execution of its other activities. To strengthen and continue to provide assistance to UAR and African countries, ECA now has a permanent railway expert in addition to short-term experts.

(h) Communications

The need for an adequate African regional communications network to provide efficient services within the region without transiting through outside exchanges was considered by African countries as far back as the early 1960s. As a result of these preliminary considerations, the Pan-African Telecommunications (PANAFTEL) programme was formulated.

In 1963, ECA and the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) concluded a memorandum of understanding to co-ordinate efforts in accelerating the development of telecommunications in Africa. As a result, a joint ECA/ITU mission conducted studies on the ways and means of linking African countries by the most economical methods. The studies revealed many technical and financial problems that had to be overcome before a regional Pan-African Telecommunications Network could be achieved.

Initially the joint ECA/ITU mission recommended the establishment of high frequency (HF) radio circuits across Africa as this appeared to be the most suitable solution at that time, and ECA and ITU jointly recommended that UNDP should finance a trans-African HF pilot link so as to assess as accurately as possible the amount of intra-African traffic.

In 1967, the ECA Conference of Ministers adopted resolution 162 (VIII) requesting ECA and ITU to continue to co-operate in the development of telecommunications in the region in order to facilitate the rapid development of better economic, cultural and trade contacts among African countries and with other regions. A preliminary study of an African Regional Telecommunications Network was undertaken by ITU in close collaboration with ECA and member countries themselves. The study financed by UNDP covered 80 per cent of the ECA member countries in the region.

As a result, ECA, ITU and UNDP, in collaboration with the Governments of the Ivory Coast and Ethiopia, established a high quality HF pilot link between Addis Ababa and Abidjan, providing telephone, telegraph and telex services. The link revealed excess demand and the need for high capacity telecommunications systems in Africa.

Consequent on the above, UNDP provided funds for the preparation of detailed pre-investment studies and route surveys covering 16,000 km which was subsequently extended to 36,000 km of transmission routes and 27 international switching centres.

The results and recommendations of the study and survey were considered in 1972 (Addis Ababa) and 1973 (Lome) by representatives of the African countries concerned and ITU/ECA planning experts.

At ECA's initiative in 1972, PANAFTEL member countries agreed to establish a special fund which was to be managed by ADB and created a Co-ordinating Committee composed of ECA, OAU, ADB and ITU to ensure early implementation of the programme. The 1973 meeting of the OAU Assembly of Heads of State and Government endorsed only the latter aspect and the former was never implemented. Besides the Co-ordinating Committee, the Pan-African Telecommunications Union (PATU) was established as a specialized agency of OAU and is now a member of the PANAFTEL Co-ordinating Committee.

Recognizing the need for assistance to member States in network integration, interface, co-ordination, maintenance and operations, the PANAFTEL Co-ordinating Committee established two specialized expert groups with UNDP assistance and under ITU supervision to assist member States in the preparation and evaluation of tenders, supervision of equipment installation, conduct of acceptance tests and preparation of operations and maintenance manning tables. In view of the vast network covering some 36,000 km, involving 40 countries and 27 international switching centres, subregional co-ordinating bodies were established to assist the Co-ordinating Committee.

Most PANAFTEL projects have been financed through national efforts, bilateral or multilateral sources, suppliers' credits and grants. For those important links which have not yet attracted financing, OAU has requested the Co-ordinating Committee to continue efforts to mobilize funds for their implementation.

The PANAFTEL network project as conceived two decades ago and as being implemented is basically a terrestrial system which cannot meet the growing communications needs of the region. This is partly due to the rapid technological development in electronics in the last decade and their application to telecommunications (terrestrial and space) and to computer communications as well as their collective use for the rapid transfer of messages and information in many forms. The Pan-African Electronic Communication network of the future will integrate the PANAFTEL terrestrial system, satellite system and submarine cables. In addition to the traditional common carrier (telephone, telex and telegraph) communications, the future network will carry data, facsimile and radio and television and aeronautical and meteorological services, etc.

ECA, in collaboration with OAU, UPU and ITU, has been active in establishing regional postal and telecommunications organizations, such as the Pan-African Postal Union (PAPU) and PATU.

(i) Tourism

In the field of tourism, ECA has also provided technical advisory assistance to some African countries, published a bulletin on tourism in Africa and jointly with the World Tourism Organization, organized the first Regional Conference on Tourism and Economic Development in Africa at Banjul, the Gambia, in 1978.

ECA has carried out feasibility studies on the pleasure boat industry in the United Republic of Tanzania and on tourism in the Indian Ocean islands and has done preliminary work on a joint Ethiopia/Kenya integrated rural development/tourism project and has also prepared terms of reference for a survey of the ECOWAS tourism industry.

(j) United Nations Transport and Communications Decade

In 1978, the United Nations General Assembly in resolution 32/160 proclaimed a Transport and Communications Decade in Africa (1978-1988). The resolution called upon the international community to provide technical and financial assistance to Africa for implementing the Decade programme and UNDP provided funds for the preparation of the programme. ECA was designated the lead agency and all relevant United Nations agencies were requested to co-operate and assist in the preparation and implementation of the programme.

The significance of the Decade to ECA's efforts in the transport and communications sector was basically twofold in that, for the first time, a regional problem had been fully recognized as deserving the attention and assistance of the entire international community and Africa's transport and communications problems were to be viewed from an integrated regional perspective, as opposed to the less effective modal approach.

The main objectives of the programme are to promote and develop infrastructure integration; systems co-ordination; harmonization of regulations; development of local human and material resources and research capabilities and the African transport and communications industry; and mobilization of financial and technical resources.

Phase I of the Decade programme, as initially prepared, consisted of 127 road, 41 railway, 52 maritime, 100 port, 175 air, 57 inland water, nine multimodal transport projects, 42 telecommunications, two satellite communications, 93 broadcasting (radio and TV), 58 postal services and 15 manpower and training projects, altogether estimated at some $9 billion. These 771 operational projects covered not only all transport modes and communications subsectors, but also all their subaspects and elements. After an updating exercise, however, the programme was expanded to 1090 projects.

The preparations for the second phase are well under way and the first draft of the programme, which contains some projects carried over from the first phase, will be submitted to the Conference of Ministers of Transport, Communications and Planning at its meeting early in 1983.

As the lead agency, ECA is playing a major role in all Decade activities including formulation of the Decade strategy, project preparation, sensitization missions, preparation and organization of technical consultative meetings and co-ordination of all Decade activities.

5. WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

(a) Introduction

African women have always played a significant role in the social and economic sectors of African economies and thus enjoyed a relatively high status in traditional society. However, withh the advent of colonialism emphasis was placed on the role of African women as home-makers only, notwithstanding their critical contribution to the subsistence economy of African countries. This led to an underestimation of and inadequate attention to the skill requirements of African women who constitute a significant portion of the labour force in the region.

Since its establishment ECA has recognized the potential of women for accelerating the pace of development and realized that, without their involvement, for example, health and education levels, production levels in general and food production in particular, as well as income distribution systems could not be improved.

In the early stages, from 1960 to 1968, the Commission's activities in favour of women consisted mainly in organizing meetings and seminars to stimulate awareness among educated women of the problems facing them and to stimulate action to tackle such problems as illiteracy, poor health and so forth. To augment the effects of such meetings and seminars, the secretariat designed its community development programme, under which women then fell, with emphasis on the leadership role educated women could play in self-help campaigns and women's groups. Between 1969 and 1975, the strategy changed, and with bilateral assistance the Commission embarked on a series of more technical and dynamic meetings bringing together African professional women and technical experts with the aim of eliminating the obstacles impeding women's access to the modern tools of development.

With the establishment of the Women's Programme in the then Human Resources Development Division in 1972, ECA became the first regional economic commission to have a programme designed specifically to accelerate the integration of women in development. This was followed in 1975 by another "first" when Africa established the Training and Research Centre for Women.

Since its establishment in 1975 under Conference of Ministers resolution 269 (XII), the African Training and Research Centre for Women (ATRCW) has endeavoured to fulfil its mandate to assist member States to improve the status of women in the African region. From a modest start, the Centre has expanded not only in terms of staff but also, more importantly, in terms of the scope of activities which it has undertaken to ensure that global, regional, subregional and national objectives are achieved in mobilizing women as effective contributors to and beneficiaries of the development process.

As International Women's Year (1975) coincided with the establishment of ATRCW, and with the subsequent declaration of the Women's Decade by the United Nations General Assembly, ATRCW has received guidance, support and co-operation from United Nations agencies and bilateral and non-governmental organizations. The Centre has operated principally through extrabudgetary financial grants, particularly from the Governments of Belgium, the Federal Republic of Germany, Japan, the Netherlands and the United States of America as well as the Commonwealth Secretariat, the Carnegie Corporation, the Ford Foundation, the International Planned Parenthood Federation, the Intermediate Technology Development Group, the Population Council, the Rockefeller Foundation, ZONTA International, FAO, UNDP, UNFPA, UNICEF and the United Nations Voluntary Fund for the Decade for Women.

(b) Projects

The first seven years of the Centre have revealed first and foremost that the search for and implementation of possible solutions to the plethora of problems facing African women require enormous human and financial resources. Measured against the known needs, the Centre's contribution can best be described as incipient and modest. However, evaluated in terms of efforts to understand and appreciate the situation of African women and evolve modalities for the realization of the ultimate goal, ATRCW has indeed made a significant start.

(c) Training

The technical education and training activities of ATRCW have as a basis the realization and acceptance of the fact that women constitute a vital human resource whose capacities and potential must be fully mobilized, developed and appropriately utilized if Africa is to achieve its socio-economic development goals. Training programmes have thus been directed at both women and men from independent States and liberation movements. Policy and decision-makers, planners, trainers, artisans, grass-roots level workers and other people have all been beneficiaries. Increasingly the Centre is directing attention to young out-of-school females as well as refugees and displaced women in Africa.

Nearly 100 workshops, seminars, short training courses and study tours have been implemented at the national, subregional and regional levels. Fields of training have included home economics, extension, adult education, communications, appropriate technology, handicrafts and small-scale industries, co-operatives, project planning and implementation, development planning, agriculture, rural development and research methodology. There is growing co-operation with educational institutions for the establishment of permanent venues for courses in areas of critical need for the integration of women-in-development components in existing curricula.

(d) Research

ATRCW has embarked on research principally for the purpose of evolving empirical data on the situation of African women as a necessary and objective basis for meaningful project planning, formulation and implementation. Areas in which the Centre has carried out research include appropriate technology, agriculture, women and the law, women in the mass media, women in the marketing of local farm and fisheries produce, women in agrarian reform, child care, nutrition, women in handicrafts and small-scale industries, indicators on the progress of women in development and women in the labour market and the labour force. The Centre enjoys a good relationship with the Association of African Women for Research and Development.

(e) Institution-building

ATRCW has assisted and continues to assist member States in the establishment of national machinery for the integration of women in development. Within the MULPOC structure the Centre has established subregional committees for the integration of women in development and placed a Women's Programme Co-ordinator in each of the MULPOCs. Through the efforts of ATRCW, an Africa Regional Co-ordinating Committee with membership drawn from the subregional committees has also been established and charged with the responsibility of guiding ATRCW in formulating policies, projects and programmes for African women.

(f) Handicrafts and small-scale industries

This project combines three aspects of the assimilation of women into the mainstream of the development process. These are (a) training and upgrading of skills in traditional and non-traditional areas; (b) providing employment opportunities for women in the public or private sector; and (c) utilization of locally available raw materials in handicrafts and small-scale industries. Equally, the participation of women in co-operatives and the establishment of new ones for women have been encouraged.

(g) African Women's Development Task Force

In the spirit of TCDC the project encourages and promotes first and foremost the sharing of skills among African women through a programme of apprenticeship and internship for women trainers and organizers. Special assistance is given to women in newly liberated countries and national liberation movements, refugees and displaced persons.

While income-generating is the most important aspect, there is no limit regarding the fields which have been and could be covered by the Task Force.

(h) Publications

ATRCW strongly believes that compiling and sharing information and experience with others in the field of women and development is indispensable. The Centre has produced nearly 150 publications which are distributed throughout Africa and requests for them have come from all over the world. The publications include technical and policy documents, research reports, manuals, workshop (training) reports, regional and subregional conference reports, bibliographies and occasional papers.

E. PERFORMANCE OF THE SECRETARIAT AS AN EXECUTING AGENCY

1. INTRODUCTION

At its 95th plenary meeting held on 29 January 1979, the thirty-third session of the General Assembly through resolution 33/202, formally conferred executing agency status on regional commissions by deciding that "the regional commissions shall have the status of executing agencies, in their own right..." For a decade prior to that, however, ECA had performed the functions of an executing agency either under decentralized authority from United Nations Headquarters or through arrangements with bilateral donors as approved by Headquarters. Moreover, ECA, in accordance with its terms of reference and in response to requests by African Governments, has been providing advisory services to these Governments through a corps of regional advisers financed under the United Nations regular programme of technical assistance.

In 1970, the first year of any really significant technical co-operation activity, the volume of resources available to ECA for the purpose of technical co-operation activities was approximately $2 million. Today, the annual volume of available resources is roughly $18 million, a substantial increase even allowing for the erosion of value through inflation.

Cumulatively, total resources available during the period 1970 to 1982 stand at $114 million. The single largest contributor has been UNDP which has contributed $40 million. UNFPA, an early supporter of the Commission's technical co-operation activities in the field of population, has contributed $16 million. Bilateral donors together have contributed $30 million of which the longest and heaviest contributors have been the United States of America, the Netherlands, Sweden and the Federal Republic of Germany. A newer source of funding has been the Voluntary Fund for the Women's Decade which has contributed $3.7 million since 1977. Finally, and perhaps the most significant source of recent funding, in terms of self-reliance, has been UNTFAD, through which African Governments provide resources to finance the attack on many of the fundamental problems which beset the African economy. Since 1977, African Governments have contributed $6 million.

The bulk of these resources has gone to finance activities in the fields of human resource development, economic co-operation and integration, industrialization, natural resources development, population, social development (almost exclusively in relation to problems affecting women in development), international trade and finance, agriculture and transport and communications (a relatively new emphasis arising out of the impetus of the United

Nations Transport and Communications Decade in Africa, 1978-1988).

2. GENERAL REVIEW OF THE PROGRAMME

The terms of reference of the Commission state, *inter alia,* that the Commission will "perform, within the available resources of its secretariat, such advisory services as the countries and Territories of the region may desire, provided that such services do not overlap with those rendered by other bodies of the United Nations or by the specialized agencies". Thus, from its inception, the Commission has been engaged in providing advisory services to African Governments at their request. Advice has been given over the years in the fields of economic planning and research; economic surveys; industrial development; housing, building and planning; natural resources; transport and communications; cartography; public finance and fiscal policy; customs administration; social welfare; statistics; and public administration among others.

The regular budget of the United Nations has been a constant source of financing of these activities and has provided, since 1971, some $11 million. Unfortunately, this programme has declined in relative importance over the years as contributions from other sources have increased while resources have remained more or less at earlier authorized levels, being adjusted biennially by the General Assembly to reflect no more than the impact of inflation. Thus, while in 1969 some 38 regional advisers financed by the regular budget were on board, allowing the Commission to provide advisory services in a vast number of subsectors, today only 10 regular budget-financed regional advisers remain on post. These staff members provide advisory services in the following fields: economic co-operation; economic surveys; energy, public administration and finance; social welfare and training; national accounts; and transport.

Since 1970 to date, UNDP's financial contribution to ECA's technical co-operation activities has totalled $40 million, equivalent to 35 per cent of total available resources. Such contributions have increased steadily from year to year, accelerating over the last two bienniums. UNDP has always been a great champion of institution-building in Africa, going back to its early support for IDEP almost two decades ago. Today, the major portion of its contribution goes to support the Commission's regional and subregional activities which have as their prime objective the promotion of collective self-reliance in the region.

The economic integration of the continent continues to be emphasized by African Heads of State and Government and, as a result, a fair share of UNDP assistance has gone in support of the MULPOCs. Substantial assistance has also been provided to a number of technological institutions in the region, notably ARCT in Dakar, Senegal, ARCEDEM in Ibadan, Nigeria, the Eastern and Southern African Mineral Resources Development Centre in Dodoma, United Republic of Tanzania, and the Regional Centre for Services in Surveying and Mapping, Nairobi, Kenya. In recognition of the importance of human resource development and the special need for development planners and development managers, UNDP has decided not only to continue but to increase its support to IDEP.

Other key areas of activities in the economic development of Africa which UNDP has financed over the years include international trade and finance, statistics, and transport and communications.

UNFPA has traditionally supported ECA's efforts in the field of population. Its contribution in dollar terms is $16 million, equivalent to 14 per cent of available resources, and it is the second largest contributor to ECA after UNDP. Much of this support has gone to strengthening the infrastructure of the secretariat's programme in population and to finance regional advisory services in demography and demographic statistics, information activities and national workshops in population and development. Substantial assistance has also been provided in support of RIPS in Accra, Ghana, and IFORD in Yaounde, United Republic of Cameroon.

Since 1977, in furtherance of the objectives of the Women's Decade in Africa, the Voluntary Fund has contributed generously to ECA's efforts to advance the cause of women in Africa and to seek to integrate women fully in the development process. A total of $3 million has been provided and used for strengthening national machineries, for the dissemination of information on women's activities in the region and for training, as well as for infrastructure support of ATRCW. In addition, a number of specific projects have been financed such as a handicraft centre, the development of fuel and energy services for rural women, improved techniques for smoked fish preservation, and skill development/management training in small-scale industries and businness.

Also in support of the regional programme in favour of the integration of women in development, UNICEF has provided $1.3 million since 1977.

In seeking to promote the aims and objectives of the United Nations; ECA has entered into agreements with the Executive Heads of FAO, UNIDO and UNEP under which joint divisions and units have been established. The purpose of these arrangements is, basically, to ensure harmony between global and regional work programmes. These three organizations all finance staff posts and other infrastructure support within ECA in furtherance of these aims. In addition, they have contributed to the financing of specific studies which are carried out jointly by ECA and the respective organizations. Examples of studies are, with FAO, a study on co-operation and trade in food, livestock, fishery and forestry products in the ECOWAS region; with UNIDO, a regional symposium on industrial policies and strategies for internally self-sustaining development and collective self-reliance during the period 1978-2000; and with UNEP, the Seminar on Alternative Patterns of Development and Life-styles in Africa.

A significant source of funding over the past six years has been the contributions of African Governments to UNTFAD. These contributions have been pledged in a spirit of collective self-reliance in spite of a range of problems which has severely weakened the economies of the majority of African countries. These pledged resources, totalling $6 million, have, to the extent that they have been paid up, been used to implement a great many projects, several of which have been completed.

The resources of UNTFAD are comparatively small and are, therefore, judiciously used in a catalytic way to begin critical project operations in the expectation that the results of the work undertaken will be successful enough to attract other donors. In some cases, the resources are used to finance key project activities to supplement resources provided by other donors.

In contributing to UNTFAD, a number of Governments make such resources available for specific projects. For example, Nigeria's contribution has been used mainly to provide seed money for such regional institutions as ARCEDEM and the African Institute for Higher Technical Training and Research which have attracted substantial additional support from UNDP and from bilateral donors. Algeria, to cite another example, has made available funds for the following specific projects which are just getting under way: a food security programme for CEPGL; the establishment and strengthening of payments systems; and a feasibility study on the establishment of an African monetary fund.

From resources whose use has not been tied by Governments to specific projects the secretariat has been able to respond quickly to requests for assistance from certain African member States and from national liberation movements. For example, ECA was able to participate, on short notice, in an interdisciplinary mission to Algeria for the elaboration of a project designed to provide assistance to the displaced women and children of El Asnam which was devastated by an earthquake.

In addition to the above-mentioned project activities, the secretariat's role in the following major undertakings, either as a catalytic or participating force, will provide an indication of the scope of activities of the Fund: development of subregional schools of business management and finance; chemical industries development programme; interregional co-operation and trade in food, livestock, fishery and forestry products in the West African subregion, interdisciplinary mission on the evaluation of UDEAC; cartographic inventory in Africa; assistance to the African National Congress; feasibility study on the establishment of a subregional trade and development bank for Eastern and Southern Africa; and establishment of the Central African Mineral Resources Development Centre.

The secretariat has been able to negotiate successfully with donor Governments and institutions of the developed countries for direct grants-in-aid, as well as for the provision of expert services under non-reimbursable loan arrangements in order to respond to the increasing needs of the region for greater technical assistance. From $434,000 in 1970, this programme has increased to approximately $3 million annually today.

The secretariat is particularly grateful to the following countries for their support to the Commission's priority programmes: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany, Finland, France, Greece, India, Ireland, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Pakistan, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the United States of America.

The secretariat has also received with deep appreciation contributions from the following institutions: American Association for Training and Development, Carnegie Foundation, Commonwealth Foundation, Dag Hammarskjold Foundation, Ford Foundation, Friedrich-Ebert Stiftung Foundation, International Planned Parenthood Federation, Intermediate Technology Development Group, Lutheran World Federation, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, Rockefeller Foundation and Savings Bank of Lombardy.

These resources which, since 1970, have totalled $30 million, have gone to finance seminars and training programmes and the implementation of regional and subregional projects in such diverse fields as social development, manpower development, demographic surveys, remote sensing, non-conventional sources of energy, land and water resources for irrigation, economic co-operation, building materials and contruction, small-scale industries, agro-industries, marketing, transport and communications, trade, natural resources and industrial development, among others

3. ORGANIZATIONAL ARRANGEMENTS

The provision of technical co-operation to African Governments by ECA is a multidisciplinary affair. More than one readily recognizes, a multisectoral interaction takes place, at a very early stage, during the preparation of the biennial work programme of the Commission which derives its shape and content from the medium-term plan. The Policy and Programme Co-ordination Office within the Executive Secretary's Cabinet has the responsibility, as lead office, for putting together the biennial work programme, working in close collaboration with all substantive divisions either individually or in select groupings of divisions as the nature of the particular activity demands. The biennial work programme is approved by the ECA Conference of Ministers. It is from this approved work programme that projects are selected for donor-financing.

The Technical Assistance Co-ordination and Operations Office (also within the Cabinet) is the focal point for all technical assistance arrangements undertaken with organizations within the United Nations system, with inter-governmental and non-governmental organizations and with bilateral donors. These arrangements include project design, the mobilization and collection of resources, discussions on financing with the United Nations Controller, inter-agency subcontracting agreements and implementation and follow-up actions.

The directors of the substantive divisions have basic responsibility for project implementation. They fulfil this responsibility with the assistance of project managers and project officers at ECA headquarters in Addis Ababa and with the assistance of MULPOC directors and their substantive staff at subregional level. They provide technical support to these staff by calling upon the full breadth of experience and knowledge within their respective divisions and by drawing also, as required, upon the knowledge and experience of other substantive divisions.

Administrative, financial and conference services support of the programme, a key element in the delivery of technical co-operation, is provided by the Division of Administration.

In getting the above institutional machinery to work smoothly and effectively the secretariat has encountered a number of difficulties. These difficulties are to be viewed in the light of the dramatic increase in resources made available to ECA for the execution of technical co-operation projects over the last six years. It was stated earlier that between 1970 and 1982, a period of 13 years, $114 million had been made available for technical co-operation projects. Of this sum, $85 million has been provided in the last six years and $68 million in the last four compared with $29 million between 1970 and 1976. What this means is that ECA had been performing executing agency functions at a fairly leisurely pace until the beginning of a sharp, upward increase in extrabudgetary resources around 1976/1977. ECA was ill prepared to meet this challenge in terms of the availability of support services as well as in the sense of the psychological preparedness of staff.

The ECA secretariat has been staffed to carry out the functions enshrined in its terms of reference. Nevertheless, it is an indisputable fact that, given the enormity of those problems facing Africa in which ECA can play a role and given the sheer size of the continent, the resources of the secretariat derived from the regular budget of the United Nations are in no way commensurate with the enormity of the tasks which confront it. Although this fact has gained intellectual recognition, the practical effect of limited-growth and zero-growth budgets over the past six years has been very little secretariat expansion over this period of time.

In an attempt to overcome this growth stagnation, ECA has looked to sources of funding outside

the regular budget and has met with some success. This success has, however, brought with it the new problems mentioned above, i.e. inadequate infrastructure and a mental attitude not conducive to delivering a first-class programme of technical co-operation. Beyond these two fundamental problems there are others. Notable among these is the requirement of putting ECA on an equal footing with other independent executing agencies since ECA's performance can be judged only against the standards of these independent agencies. This requirement would call for a maximum of authority decentralized to ECA.

Despite these difficulties, the Commission has been able to record, over the past two years, a rate of programme delivery high enough to place it among the leaders. Nevertheless, the secretariat is cognizant of the seriousness of the problems which confront the Commission and has been responding to the challenge. In terms of staffing it has used the resources derived from overhead income to increase its support staff. Nevertheless, substantial additional resources are required from the regular budget of the United Nations if the Commission is effectively to carry out the tasks entrusted to it both by the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly under its original terms of reference as well as under the expanded functions devolving upon the Commission through the restructuring resolutions. In addition, in order to raise the level of consciousness of staff concerning technical co-operation activities, a number of training programmes in project formulation, implementation and follow-up activities have been organized for programme managers, other professional staff and general service staff.

It is a fact that ECA is a young executing agency. It is tempting, therefore, to use this as an excuse for underachievement since time is expected to heal all wounds. The secretariat is, however, fully conscious that time is not on the side of Africa and will, therefore, move with deliberate speed to continue to introduce management systems, undertake analyses of current management and administration performance, strengthen its training programme, and continuously monitor its performance with a view to ensuring that the very best use is made of the scarce resources available to the Commission in the service of Africa and its people.

F. ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND INTEGRATION

1. APPROACHES TO ALL-EMBRACING PAN-AFRICAN CO-OPERATION LATE 1950s-EARLY 1960s

The emergence of politically independent African countries at the end of the 1950s and during the first half of the 1960s to replace the colonial system was a development of historic significance for the African continent. It brought hope and confidence in the future. After centuries of colonialism, it was generally believed that political independence would bring, within striking distance, the cherished dream of Africans controlling and directing their political and economic destinies. However, the economies inherited from the colonial Powers were poor, dependent, helpless and hapless economies, characterized by the dominance of subsistence output, fragmented national markets which made it difficult to establish viable productive units, underdevelopment and underutilization of material and human resources and dependence on ex-colonial metropolitan countries for consumer manufactures, technology, skills, food and virtually all else. Under these circumstances, it became clear that political independence by itself would not bring about the economic restructuring required for the eradication of the economic aftermath of colonialism and for the improvement of the standards of living of African peoples. It was therefore necessary for African peoples to commit themselves to building a new economic order for the benefit and welfare of the African continent. Because of the problems inherent in small, weak and dependent national economies, multinational economic co-operation was indispensable for the transformation of the African economies.

In the late 1950s and early 1960s there was enthusiasm for pan-Africanism and for all-embracing regional organizations. One recalls the first Conference of Independent African States which was held in Accra, Ghana, in April 1958, at which the African States recommended the setting up of an Economic and Research Committee within each country and a Joint Economic Research Committee composed of representatives from all independent African States whose task would be to consolidate the economic and development policies of the States; promote trade and a common industrial policy among countries; and co-ordinate economic planning among the States towards the achievement of an all-African economic co-operation arrangement. At the second Conference of Independent African States which was held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, in June 1960, emphasis was put on the need for the creation of an African Council for Economic Co-operation and the establishment of a joint African Development Bank and an African Commercial Bank. It was also recommended that a system of preferential tariffs

among independent African countries should be established. The Monrovia, Casablanca and the Brazzaville Groups, all of which were established immediately after the two regional conferences, called for the formation of an African common market, an African payments union and an African bank for economic development. Even before independence, the Pan-African Congress at its fifth meeting held in Manchester, United Kingdom, in 1945 and the Bandung Conference of 1955 had called for pan-African co-operation. For various reasons including the vastness of the continent and lack of adequate transport and telecommunications links, complexity of socio-economic problems during the early years of political independence and differences in political ideologies among the countries, the immediate attainment of economic co-operation on an all-African basis proved illusory.

Today, no all-embracing multipurpose regional African organizations exist except OAU and ECA, the creation of which was the partial answer to preoccupation with continental co-operation during this period. ECA was created in April 1958 and OAU in May 1963. OAU was created essentially as a political organization to promote unity and solidarity among African States; to defend their sovereignty, territorial integrity and independence and to eradicate all forms of colonialism from Africa. But one of the provisions of the Charter of OAU relates to the "co-ordination and intensification of co-operation and efforts of member States with a view to achieving a better life for the peoples of Africa". The spirit and some elements of pan-African co-operation were already embodied in the original terms of reference of ECA which stated, *inter alia,* that ECA "shall initiate and participate in measures for facilitating concerted action for the economic development of Africa, including its social aspects, with a view to raising the level of economic activity and levels of living in Africa; and for maintaining and strengthening the economic relations of countries and territories of Africa, both among themselves and with other countries of the world". The two regional organizations, OAU and ECA, were required to establish close links with each other as reflected in Commission resolution 132 (VII) on "Co-operation between ECA and OAU" which requested the Executive Secretary of ECA to take, in agreement with the Secretary-General of OAU, all necessary measures for an agreement or arrangement that defines in a precise manner the framework of co-operation between OAU and ECA. None the less, ECA was the only regional organization whose sole objective was to promote economic development, co-operation and integration.

The Commission's very first session laid stress on co-operative action among African countries in practically all economic sectors. The first resolution of the Commission called upon the ECA secretariat to establish liaison with all existing inter-governmental organizations in the continent working in the field of economic and social development. At the fourth session, the need for increased co-operation among African countries in order to promote intra-African trade, industrialization and economic co-operation in general, was re-emphasized. Resolution 86 (V) adopted at the fifth session of the Commission in 1963 requested the Executive Secretary of ECA to "undertake intensive studies on major problems of an African Common Market having regard to balanced integration of the economic development of the African countries". Resolution 87 (V) adopted during the same session requested the Executive Secretary to undertake a study on the possibility of establishing a clearing system within a payments union among African countries.

In compliance with these resolutions, the ECA secretariat submitted to the sixth session of the Commission studies and recommendations on a programme of action for the creation of an African common market and a clearing and payments system. The session endorsed the recommended programme of action [resolution 100 (VI)] and requested the Executive Secretary to undertake further studies on ways of removing quantitative restrictions to intra-African trade, increasing the volume of trade through a fairer distribution of productive activities among member States and ensuring a more equitable distribution of benefits of the proposed common market. The Executive Secretary was also requested, in resolution 95 (VI), to convene a meeting of African governmental monetary authorities to consider the recommendations of the study on the African payments union and weigh the extent to which payments difficulties were militating against programmes for developing and intensifying intra-African trade. Resolutions adopted at the eighth session elaborated the framework within which economic co-operation in Africa was to be undertaken.

2. TOWARDS SUBREGIONAL ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION: ECA SUBREGIONAL OFFICES AND INTER-GOVERNMENTAL MACHINERY, EARLY 1960s TO 1970

Beginning around 1962, a more gradual approach to African economic co-operation was adopted. Because of obstacles to continental action in African economic development, the merits of the geo-

graphically narrower, close neighbourhood approach, as opposed to the continental all-embracing strategy, were given recognition in the Commission's first programme of work and priorities. Of particular significance were the following projects: assistance to the North African countries in the development of sea fisheries and esparto grass; studies to determine the agricultural, industrial and other aspects of a Maghreb economic unit; assistance to West African countries in strengthening economic contacts among themselves; and provision of assistance to all member States, at their request, in such sectors as agriculture, industry, transport and development of human skills; focusing on projects with a multinational component. At its third session, the Commission adopted resolution 23 (III) which stated that the best immediate practical approach to overcoming obstacles to regional economic co-operation was to make effective provision for dealing with "economic problems peculiar to subregions". Thereafter integration at the subregional levels quickly became the key element of ECA's development strategy; and the designation of subregions was accepted as a pragmatic approach and the most practical formula for promoting co-operation among African countries.

Based on geographical considerations and the economic and political conditions which existed in the early 1960s, ECA divided the African region into four subregions: Eastern and Southern, Central, West and North Africa.

The Commission adopted resolution 64 (IV) on 3 March 1962 by which it established two subregional offices, one for West Africa and the other for North Africa and invited the Executive Secretary to consider the possibility of establishing two further subregional offices to serve Eastern and Southern Africa and Central Africa. Thus, the West African and the North African subregional offices were established in 1963 in Niamey and Tangiers, respectively, while the subregional offices for Eastern and Southern Africa and for Central Africa were established in 1964 and 1965 in Lusaka and Kinshasa respectively.

The four subregional offices, which were financed from the regular budget of the United Nations, were recognized as part of the organizational structure of ECA. Their objectives were to provide liaison between ECA headquarters and the Governments of the subregions; provide the secretariat with direct information on the needs and problems of the subregion so that effective programmes of assistance could be formulated; collect information and up-to-date documentation on various aspects of the economic and social life of the area; provide advisory services at the request of the countries concerned; give assistance to country experts and advisory teams on the specific problems of the area; and assist in organizing meetings, seminars, study tours, etc., which were to take place in the subregion.

When they were established it was hoped that the ECA subregional offices would be focal instruments for the creation of subregional economic co-operation arrangements, each of which would be supervised by its own inter-governmental policy organs. The establishment of inter-governmental machinery in each subregion capable of taking decisions on joint economic development programmes and projects has been one of the preoccupations of ECA since the decision was taken to promote integration at the subregional level. At its seventh session in 1965 the Commission adopted resolution 142 (VII) which called for "the early establishment at the subregional level of inter-governmental machinery responsible for the harmonization of economic and social development" in the subregions of Eastern and Southern Africa, Central Africa, West Africa and North Africa. For the greater part of the 1960s, ECA devoted substantial resources to assisting in the creation of subregional inter-governmental organizations and in programming their activities.

In Eastern and Southern Africa the launching of ECA's programme for the creation of a subregional economic co-operation arrangement coincided with the signing, in 1967, of the Treaty for East African Co-operation establishing the East African Economic Community, comprising Kenya, the United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda. The groundwork for the Community was laid during the colonial period. The three countries had already entered into various types of co-operation arrangements. As the basic agreement on the Community made provision for other countries to join the Community, Ethiopia, Burundi, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mauritius, Rwanda, the Seychelles, Somalia, Swaziland, the Sudan, Zaire and Zambia indicated their interest in joining. It was in this favourable atmosphere that in October/November 1965 ECA convened a ministerial meeting on subregional economic co-operation which was held in Lusaka, Zambia. The meeting recommended the creation of the Economic Community of Eastern and Southern African States. It was further recommended that an interim council of ministers should be set up to negotiate the treaty and initiate programmes on economic co-operation pending completion of negotiations on the treaty and its ratification.

The first meeting of the Interim Ministerial Council was held in Addis Ababa in May 1966 at which the terms of association to govern the interim arrangements, before the signing of a formal treaty were adopted and signed or initialled by Ethiopia, Somalia, Kenya, the United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia, Malawi, Madagascar, Mauritius, Rwanda and Burundi. In compliance with a decision taken at the first meeting of the Interim Council of Ministers, the Interim Economic Committee of Officials held its first meeting in November 1967 and recommended preparation of a short list of industrial projects of a multinational character on which prefeasibility and feasibility studies were to be undertaken; creation of a Permanent Transport and Communications Committee; negotiations for the elimination of tariff and non-tariff barriers to intrasubregional trade in selected products produced by member States; and the preparation of studies on alternative arrangements for achieving a subregional economic community, in particular on whether the community might be achieved by the accession to the Treaty of the East African Community by the other member States in the subregion or by creating a wider community, *de novo,* to which the East African Community would be integrated as a single unit. It was not however until 1978 that a firm decision was taken to establish a subregional economic community.

Endeavours to establish multinational economic co-operation arrangements in Central Africa began during the colonial period. The process culminated in the creation of UDEAC in 1966. However, UDEAC, as was the case with the earlier arrangements, does not embrace all countries of the Central African subregion as defined by ECA.

The first ministerial meeting on subregional economic co-operation in Central Africa was held in Brazzaville, the Congo, in April 1966. The meeting considered studies prepared by ECA on multinational projects in the fields of transport, agriculture, industry and trade and proposals on setting up a subregional institutional machinery, including the feasibility of expanding UDEAC to embrace other Central African countries. No decisions were taken on specific projects, but the meeting recommended for the consideration of Heads of State and Government that an inter-ministerial committee should be set up to study the problems pertaining to economic co-operation within the subregion and recommended an appropriate programme of action.

During the ninth session of ECA the representatives of the member States of the subregion agreed to recommend to their Governments that a second ministerial meeting on economic co-operation be held in June 1969 to consider follow-up action on the recommendations of the 1966 Brazzaville meeting, especially with regard to subregional intergovernmental machinery for the promotion of economic co-operation. No action was taken on these recommendations until the second half of the 1970s.

In the West African subregion, as in the other two subregions, the multinational integration process started before political independence. The Pan-African Congress at its fifth meeting held in Manchester in 1945 had recommended, with great foresight, the establishment of a West African Economic Union as a means of " . . . ensuring the participation of indigenous people in the industrial development of West Africa". Systems of co-operation designed to group several States into multipurpose, limited purpose or specialized organizations have been created over the years.

The first attempt, after political independence, to establish a multipurpose organization embracing all countries of West Africa was made in November 1963, when a conference on subregional industrial harmonization was held in Bamako, Mali, under the auspices of ECA. This was followed in October 1966 by a subregional conference on economic co-operation held in Niamey, the Niger, to which the ECA secretariat submitted a series of studies on co-operation in the fields of agriculture, industry, transport and communications, trade and natural resources. The Conference made three important recommendations: one on the creation of a permanent subregional transport committee to study the possibility of establishing an intermodal transport network and multinational industries for the production of transport equipment; the second on the creation of a subregional energy committee to develop an integrated subregional energy programme; and the third on convening a meeting of ministers to consider the creation of a subregional inter-governmental machinery for the promotion of economic co-operation.

The following year, in May 1967, Articles of Association for setting up an Economic Community of West Africa were adopted at a subregional meeting on economic co-operation convened by ECA and signed by 12 countries. The stated primary objective of the proposed Community was to promote coordinated and equitable development of the economies of West African countries especially in the fields of industry, agriculture, transport and commu-

nications, trade and payments, human resources, energy and other mineral resources. The meeting recommended the establishment of an interim council of ministers, the principal responsibility of which was to draft the treaty that would govern the community. For this purpose, it was empowered to establish a provisional secretariat, an interim economic committee and any other subsidiary bodies as might be appropriate. The Council held its first meeting in Dakar, Senegal, in November 1967 to discuss the provisions of the draft treaty. The meeting recommended that the treaty should make provision for the establishment of a subregional common market as a step towards a subregional economic community.

The initiatives taken by ECA sparked off the process which led to the creation of ECOWAS. In November 1967 the Heads of State of the Senegal River basin mandated the President of the Islamic Republic of Mauritania to consult the Heads of State of the other West African States about the possibility of establishing a subregional economic co-operation arrangement. In April 1968 a Protocol establishing the West African regional group to look into the matter was signed; and Guinea and Nigeria were assigned the responsibility of preparing priority studies on areas of co-operation, while Liberia and Senegal were asked to prepare a draft treaty and protocols. In 1972 after a period of relative inactivity, the Heads of State of Nigeria and Togo mandated their ministers and officials to work out a framework and strategy for subregional economic co-operation. The momentum generated by the two Governments culminated in the signing, on 29 May 1975, by the Heads of State and Plenipotentiaries of 16 West African countries, of the Treaty establishing the Economic Community of West African States. Thus ECOWAS was born.

Parallel with the formation of ECOWAS, but independent of ECA's initiative, two other subregional groupings were taking shape in West Africa, namely the West African Economic Community (CEAO) and the Mano River Union. The Treaty establishing CEAO was signed on 17 April 1973 by the Ivory Coast, Mali, Mauritania, the Niger, Senegal and the Upper Volta. The purpose of CEAO is to promote the harmonized and balanced development of the economic activities of member States with a view to achieving the highest rate of improvement in living conditions. The main emphasis is on economic co-operation and integration with respect to agriculture, animal husbandry, fishing, industry, transport and communications and tourism and on the development of trade among member States. The Mano River Union, consisting of Liberia and Sierra Leone and, since 1981, of Guinea was formed on 3 October 1973. The principal objective is the establishment of a customs union, the expansion of trade within it and the creation of a system that would ensure a fair distribution of the benefits of economic co-operation. Both CEAO and the Mano River Union have provisions permitting other States to accede to membership if they so wish.

Following the establishment of the North African Tangiers-based subregional office in October 1963, an industrial co-ordination mission was sent to Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia and the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya. The report of the mission was published in February 1964. The Mission recommended co-ordinated action with respect to a number of industries such as chemicals, engineering and energy. In November 1964 a ministerial meeting held in Tangiers under the auspices of ECA made recommendations relating to the strengthening of economic links among the Maghreb member States. A Council of Ministers of Economic Affairs and the Maghreb Permanent Consultative Committee were set up to co-ordinate the programme on economic co-operation. Various specialized committees and commissions were also established including a centre for industrial studies and research.

The first subregional meeting which was attended by representatives from the six North African countries was held in June 1966. No firm decision was taken on the creation of subregional economic machinery. However, agreement was reached on forging co-operation between the Maghreb countries, the Sudan and Egypt with particular reference to maritime and air transport. ECA was requested to prepare studies covering agriculture, industry, human resources, maritime and air transport and tourism. Parallel to ECA's efforts, the Council of Arab Unity, an organ of the Arab League, also initiated programmes for economic co-operation aimed at achieving the economic unity of member States.

Thus, during the decade of the 1960s, ECA not only established subregional offices, but also assisted in promoting subregional economic co-operation arrangements in all subregions. But the record was mixed - disheartening in some respects and inspiring in others; inspiring because the subregional approach had now been generally accepted as the key strategy for promoting economic co-operation in Africa and some results had been achieved; disheartening because it became apparent towards the end of the decade that, after the initial period of enthusiasm, the subregional inter-governmental machineries that had been launched were not taking root. In Eastern and Southern Africa, negotiations on the treaty for the

establishment of a subregional economic community, that had been called for by the Lusaka Conference of Ministers in 1965, were in abeyance. The last meeting of the Interim Council of Ministers, responsible for drafting the treaty, was held in 1966. In Central Africa, the inter-ministerial committee recommended in 1966 by the Brazzaville meeting on subregional economic co-operation had not yet been convened by the end of the 1960s. In West Africa where as a result of the initiatives taken by Nigeria and Togo the ECOWAS Treaty had been signed, the subregional integration process was bedevilled by the multiplicity of intrasubregional inter-governmental organizations. In North Africa activity was moribund.

This state of doldrums brought about a certain disenchantment with multinational inter-governmental machineries, and scepticism about the chances of creating fully fledged subregional organizations capable of decisive action. There were several reasons for this situation. They include the problem of equitable distribution of costs and benefits among the co-operating countries; failure to harmonize national policies with the objectives of the subregional co-operation arrangement, reluctance to surrender part of national sovereignty to the collective good of the subregion, external orientation and dependency links with the former metropolitan countries, emergence of differences in political ideologies leading inevitably to differences in instrumentalities recommended for the programming of the activities of the co-operation arrangement and failure to translate declared collective goodwill into practical action.

While the solution of these problems would depend on decisions collectively taken by the participating countries, ECA could assist in providing the kind of framework and backstopping services that would facilitate collective decisions and action through direct involvement at the grass-roots level by undertaking relevant studies, participating in the programming and implementation of multinational projects and provision of on-the-spot technical assistance on a continuous basis. The ECA subregional offices were created for this purpose, but they were not as effective as had been expected. They operated suboptimally. For one thing, they suffered from the dearth of resources that has plagued ECA itself for many years. For another, they were treated merely as an extension of the secretariat since no mechanism was established to ensure involvement of the Governments in each subregion in their activities and work programmes. At several inter-governmental meetings convened by ECA, the need for additional resources for the ECA secretariat and for the decentralization of its activities and resources to the subregions was emphasized.

At its ninth session and tenth anniversary, the Commission recommended the restructuring of its policy organs and the secretariat with a view to making them more effective. It was decided that the ECA Conference of Ministers should meet every two years. During the intervening period an Executive Committee consisting of ministers from selected countries in each subregion would meet twice a year to consider matters relating to the implementation of the resolutions and work programmes of the Commission. The ECA Executive Committee at its second meeting decided that the secretariat should undertake consultations with member States to determine the criteria for subregional economic co-operation and the ways in which the existing inter-governmental organizations could be strengthened. To this end two missions were mounted in April and June 1970 to the West African and Central African subregions respectively. The missions recommended the strengthening of subregional activities and welcomed the proposal to create UNDATs as a means to improve the operational capability of the subregional offices.

3. THE EARLY 1970s : THE UNDATs

The UNDATs were established in the early 1970s. The UNDAT programme was initiated in response to General Assembly resolution 2563 (XXIV) of 13 December 1969 in which the Assembly, *inter alia*, requested the Secretary-General and the heads of the regional commissions to intensify their efforts to meet more satisfactorily the requirements of member States in development planning, plan implementation, public administration and management, especially by organizing, wherever possible and appropriate, continuing advisory services in these fields. The Economic and Social Council, in resolution 1552 (XLIX) of 30 July 1970 considered that the provision of such technical assistance in the form of advisory services through subregional interdisciplinary teams might be a particularly useful way of assisting some of the developing countries to build up their own services in those fields. In resolution 221 (X) of 13 February 1971, the ECA Conference of Ministers welcomed the resolution of the Economic and Social Council and its decision to place the "African teams under the direction of ECA".

By 1973, three African UNDATs were in existence - the Niamey-based UNDAT for seven West African countries; the Yaounde-based UNDAT

for six Central African countries; and the Lusaka-based UNDAT which was an integral part of the ECA subregional office for Eastern and Southern Africa. No UNDATs were established for North Africa and for the three Central African countries of Burundi, Rwanda and Zaire, primarily because of the lack of financial resources. The West African and Central African UNDATs which did not serve all the member States covered by the ECA subregional offices existed side by side with the ECA subregional offices. Except in the case of Lusaka, their activities were never integrated with those of the ECA subregional offices.

Although the creation of UNDATs made it possible to obtain additional resources for ECA's multinational programmes, those resources were not adequate to make ECA effective as a catalyst in the integration process at the subregional level; and as the Teams were advisory in their orientation they could not be operational instruments for promoting economic co-operation. Moreover, the failure to integrate the activities of the West African and Central African UNDATs with those of the ECA subregional offices was, in a sense, a step backwards. As already noted above, prior to the creation of the UNDATs, a process of subregional economic co-operation had started in these subregions. A further complicating factor was that the UNDATs tended to respond to requests made by individual countries for assistance in national projects with no regard to multinational potential.

It was because of these constraints that in 1973 the ECA Conference of Ministers recommended in resolution 241 (XI) that the terms of reference of the UNDATs should be reoriented in such a way that they would become operational institutions for the promotion of economic co-operation. In 1975 following the realization that the UNDATs were not effective institutions for promoting subregional economic co-operation and because of the financial problems of the three UNDATs that were in existence, a joint ECA/UNDP evaluation mission was appointed to evaluate the performance of the UNDATs and recommend the course of future action. The mission recommended, *inter alia*, that the UNDATs should be transformed from being advisory bodies to more operational instruments.

4. LAYING THE FOUNDATIONS FOR THE CREATION OF SUBREGIONAL ECONOMIC COMMUNITIES: THE PRAGMATIC APPROACH, 1975-1982

The period beginning in 1973 marked a new and important phase in the development of ideas and programmes of action on subregional economic co-operation. Following on the climacteric at the end of the 1960s and the early part of the 1970s, there was a revived commitment to African economic development through collective action as revealed in the resolutions and declarations adopted by OAU and ECA at the time, as well as in the development strategy formulated by the ECA secretariat following the sixth and seventh special sessions of the General Assembly of the United Nations held in 1974 and 1975, and in the recommendations of the ECA/OAU Monrovia Seminar on Alternative Patterns of Development.

The tenth ordinary session of the OAU Assembly of Heads of State and Government held in Addis Ababa in May 1973 adopted the African Declaration on Co-operation, Development and Economic Independence which underlined the importance attached by African countries to collective self-reliance and independence and provided policy guidelines for regional, subregional and sectoral co-operation.

In 1975-1976 the ECA secretariat formulated a strategy and guidelines for an action programme for the implementation of the new international economic order in Africa, within the framework of the guidelines contained in the OAU African Declaration on Co-operation, Development and Economic Independence and the resolutions on development and international economic co-operation adopted at the sixth and seventh special sessions of the United Nations General Assembly. The strategy entitled the "Revised framework of principles for the implementation of the new international economic order in Africa" (E/CN.14/ECO/90/Rev.3), was endorsed by the eleventh extraordinary session of the OAU Council of Ministers held in Kinshasa in December 1976 after it had been considered by the ECA Executive Committee which met earlier in the year. In the following year, the ECA strategy was adopted at the fourth meeting of the ECA Conference of Ministers which met in Kinshasa in February-March 1977 and subsequently by the OAU Assembly of Heads of State and Government held in Libreville, Gabon, in June 1977.

In February 1979, ECA and UNEP in co-operation with the agencies of the United Nations system organized a Seminar on Alternative Patterns of Development. The Seminar reiterated the imperative need for subregional and regional collective

self-reliance, if African countries were to succeed in establishing self-sustaining and internally located processes of development and economic growth at the national and multinational levels. The recommendations of the Seminar were endorsed by the fifth meeting of the ECA Conference of Ministers held in Rabat in March 1979. The Conference also formulated a draft Declaration of Commitment on Guidelines and Measures for National and Collective Self-reliance in Economic and Social Development for submission to the OAU Heads of State and Government. That Summit endorsed the recommendations of the ECA Conference of Ministers and adopted the Monrovia Strategy for the Economic Development of Africa which, *inter alia,* calls upon OAU and ECA to ensure the implementation of the recommendations of the Monrovia Symposium.

At its sixteenth session, the Assembly of Heads of State and Government of OAU meeting in Monrovia, Liberia, in July 1979, following the adoption of the Monrovia Strategy and the associated Monrovia Declaration of Commitment, decided to hold an extraordinary session on economic problems of Africa in Lagos, Nigeria. Accordingly, the Assembly directed "the Secretary-General of OAU in co-operation with the Executive Secretary of ECA" to make the necessary arrangements for the proposed extraordinary session. In consequence, the second extraordinary session of the OAU Assembly of Heads of State and Government was convened in Lagos in April 1980 and adopted the Plan of Action which the ECA Conference of Ministers had prepared at its Addis Ababa meeting early in April 1980, and the Final Act of Lagos which, *inter alia,* enjoin all independent African countries to take, during the 1980s, all necessary steps to strengthen existing regional economic communities and establish other economic groupings so as to cover the continent as a whole - West Africa, Central Africa, Eastern Africa, Southern Africa, Northern Africa - and to promote co-ordination and harmonization among existing and future economic groupings for the gradual establishment of an African Common Market by the year 2000. To implement the Lagos Plan at the various stages, the Assembly directed the Secretary-General of OAU, in co-operation with the Executive Secretary of ECA, to take all appropriate measures and to submit periodic progress reports.

ECA's main instruments, at the subregional levels, for the implementation of the Lagos Plan of Action and the Final Act are the Multinational Programming and Operational Centres (MULPOCs). The MULPOCs, which replaced the UNDATs, were established during the period 1977-1978.

At its fourth meeting, the ECA Conference of Ministers following on the adoption of the Revised framework of principles directed, by resolution 311 (XIII), that ECA Multinational Programming and Operational Centres should be established at the subregional level. In adopting the resolution on the MULPOCs, the Conference took account of the experience gained during the 1960s and the early 1970s especially in the context of the ECA subregional offices and the UNDATs, which had shown that follow-up action on the implementation of resolutions on economic co-operation is a difficult and slow process, and that the operational effectiveness of subregional institutions created by ECA for the purpose would depend on their integration into the decision-making machinery of the Governments concerned; their co-operation with existing intergovernmental organizations and appropriate national agencies; their capacity to be flexible and pragmatic in their approach in the light of the socio-economic circumstances prevailing in each subregion; and the financial resources and professional skills available to them.

Accordingly, the Conference directed that the MULPOCs should assist in generating and cementing the process of subregional economic integration in the subregions they serve as a first and pragmatic step towards the creation of a regional economic community; and that, in the execution of their programmes, they should work closely with the intergovernmental organizations created by the Governments concerned. Resolution 311 (XIII) provides for the creation of policy organs for each MULPOC - a Council of Ministers or Plenipotentiaries and a Committee of Officials as well as specialized sectoral committees as required. Structurally and constitutionally, these policy organs have been delegated full responsibility to approve the MULPOC work programmes and to supervise as well as monitor their implementation on behalf of the ECA Conference of Ministers. The sectoral projects of each MULPOC are an integral part of the work programmes of the appropriate ECA substantive divisions and implemented as part of the whole ECA work programme.

The orientation of the MULPOCs is thus different from that of the ECA subregional offices and UNDATs from the point of view of both their structure and their basic objectives. While the ECA subregional offices were primarily administrative outposts of ECA and the UNDATs primarily advisory bodies, the MULPOCs are substantive and operational arms of ECA and their basic prin-

ciples emphasize that the process of optimum national development in Africa can be fully achieved only through a multinational process and that this is the foundation and objective of subregional economic co-operation arrangements. Hence, subregional co-operation arrangements should be rooted in national restructuring programmes, national development programmes should be related to subregional and regional programmes and each country should internalize co-operation in its national socio-economic policy. Within this framework, the operations of the MULPOCs in the short term aim at providing assistance in creating new and/or strengthening existing appropriate subregional, institutional mechanisms and in identifying and implementing national projects with a multinational potential and multinational projects which are critical for the progressive promotion of a self-reliant and self-sustaining subregional economic development process. In order to keep in constant view the medium-term and long-term objectives of creating subregional economic communities and eventually a regional economic community and in recognition of the sectoral interrelationships and the complementary nature of projects both within the same subregion and between neighbouring subregions, the MULPOCs in neighbouring subregions co-operate very closely in the implementation of sectoral programmes and projects which cut across subregional boundaries. ECA headquarters, on its part, takes the lead, in co-operation with the MULPOCs, in the development of functional intersubregional and regional co-operation arrangements. Most of these take the form of sectoral projects and institutions intended to serve the region as a whole or a large part of it. More than 30 such functional co-operation arrangements have been launched in the fields of natural resources, transport, research and training, trade and finance, and science and technology. The MULPOCs boundaries are, therefore, not sacrosanct, but flexible enough to accommodate the process that will eventually lead to intersubregional and continental co-operation. In the event, Conference of Ministers resolutions 311 (XIII) and 296 (XIII) were a precursor of the Lagos Plan of Action and Final Act, the adoption of which, three years later, put the official seal of the OAU Heads of State and Government on the objectives and operations of the MULPOCs and ECA's functional regional programmes.

Since the adoption of Conference of Ministers resolutions 311 (XIII) and 296 (XIII), a family of five MULPOCs has been established consisting of the Lusaka-based MULPOC serving 18 countries of Eastern and Southern Africa, the Gisenyi-based MULPOC for the three countries which constitute CEPGL, the Yaounde-based MULPOC for seven countries of Central Africa, the Niamey-based MULPOC for the 16 countries that are members of ECOWAS and the Tangiers-based MULPOC for six countries of North Africa.

The priority sectors of the MULPOC work programmes are agriculture, industry, transport and communications, trade promotion, natural resources including energy and human resources. It will be noted that these are identical with the priorities contained in the Lagos Plan of Action. As will be seen from the summary review of the operations of the MULPOCs over the last four-and-a-half years, i.e. 1977 to June 1982, they are making steady, albeit, difficult progress towards the realization of their objectives.

In Eastern and Southern Africa, even before the establishment of the MULPOC, various attempts were being made to revive the momentum started by the 1965 Lusaka Conference of Ministers towards the creation of a subregional co-operation arrangement. During the period 1970-1976, in the days of the Lusaka-based UNDAT, a series of sectoral studies covering trade, agriculture, industry, transport and human resources development was undertaken. These studies were supplemented, during the period of transition from UNDAT to MULPOC, by a multisectoral and macro-economic study undertaken by an ECA interdisciplinary mission mounted in 1975/1976.

A subregional meeting of experts was convened in May 1974 to consider the reports on the sectoral studies which preceded the multisectoral study and prepare appropriate recommendations for submission to a meeting of ministers. This was followed by a Subregional Ministerial Meeting in April 1975, which established a work programme for the Lusaka-based UNDAT for the second half of the 1970s. The Ministers entrusted the task of establishing the biennial priority projects to a special meeting of experts (Lusaka UNDAT Advisory Committee) which met in July 1976.

The collapse of the East African Community in July 1977 and the consequential lack of any intergovernmental organization to foster multinational co-operation in the subregion created a sense of urgency for the formation of a subregional economic co-operation arrangement. Hence the inaugural meeting of the MULPOC Council of Ministers, which was held in November 1977, following the adoption of the work programme and priorities established by the

UNDAT and the consideration of the multisectoral study recommended that a subregional economic community should be established and that an extraordinary meeting of ministers of trade, finance and planning be entrusted with the responsibility of formulating guidelines for the creation of the subregional economic community and mechanisms as well as timetable for negotiating a Treaty should be convened.

In March 1978, the First Extraordinary Meeting of Ministers of Trade, Finance and Planning met in Lusaka, Zambia. The meeting recommended the creation of a subregional economic community over a period of ten years, beginning with a subregional preferential trade area and a clearing and payments system. To this end, the meeting adopted the "Lusaka Declaration of Intent and Commitment to the Establishment of a Preferential Trade Area for Eastern and Southern Africa"; created an Inter-governmental Negotiating Team on the Treaty for the Establishment of the Preferential Trade Area; and established an indicative timetable for the work of the Intergovernmental Negotiating Team. Negotiations commenced in June 1978 and the Treaty was signed at the Summit Conference of Heads of State and Government in Lusaka, Zambia, on 21 December 1981.

Although the Treaty is designated "Treaty for the Establishment of a Preferential Trade Area" its objectives and provisions go far beyond promotion of intrasubregional trade. It provides not only for the liberalization of trade but also for co-operation and intercountry specialization in the development of basic and strategic industries, production of food crops and livestock, development of science and technology, exploitation and utilization of natural resources, human resources development and creation of transport and telecommunications network. The Treaty also provides for the establishment of technical committees in all the key sectors which will identify projects and recommended measures for implementation. The inaugural meetings of the Technical Committees were held in 1982. Article 30 of the Treaty provides for the upgrading of the PTA to a subregional common market and eventually a subregional economic community after a period of ten years from the date of entry into force of the Treaty. Therefore, during the next few years the MULPOC will focus its attention on assisting in technical studies and operational measures required to make the PTA fully operational and upgrading it to a subregional economic community by December 1991.

As noted earlier, West Africa is the only subregion which has accumulated extensive experience in multinational economic co-operation. ECOWAS has been in existence since 1975. However, it exists side by side with a variety of other geographically smaller inter-governmental organizations. Today there are over 30 inter-governmental organizations in the subregion.

Judging by the large number of inter-governmental organizations, it might be assumed that the West African subregion has experienced an irresistible tide towards economic integration and collective self-reliance. None the less, while these organizations may represent concrete action towards the implementation of the principles of regional economic integration, account should be taken of some of the inherent weaknesses in the multiplicity of inter-governmental organizations in one subregion such as fragmentation of already limited markets, competition, duplication of effort, inconsistencies and the financial burden on member States which have to provide financial support to more than one inter-governmental organization. It was in recognition of the inherent weaknesses in the multiplicity of inter-governmental organizations in one subregion that one of the provisions of Conference of Ministers resolution 296 (XIII) invited the member States, *inter alia,* to make all possible efforts to restructure the existing intergovernmental economic organizations and rationalize their operations by establishing appropriate mechanisms for co-ordinating their programmes and by strengthening limited multisectoral organizations and encouraging them to co-operate in the preparation and implementation of their programmes, leading to a greater comprehensive involvement among neighbouring groupings of States. Efforts should also be made to effect a gradual integration of the smaller and limited multisectoral groupings in each subregion into multipurpose and larger co-operation arrangements oriented to a much higher degree of integration.

In compliance with resolution 296 (XIII) and in recognition of the unique characteristics of the West African subregion, the West African MULPOC Council of Ministers at its inaugural meeting directed that the MULPOC should give priority to measures directed to assisting in the creation of mechanisms and implementation of sectoral programmes that would facilitate joint action among the West African inter-governmental organizations.

The MULPOC has made some progress towards this goal. It has prepared a directory of inter-governmental organizations and identified projects which

are common to several organizations in the sectors of agriculture, industry, transport and communications, energy, mineral resources development and human resources. It has also produced the first issue of an information bulletin and assisted in organizing periodic meetings of inter-governmental organizations to exchange information and consider measures for harmonizing their activities in key sectors. In particular, the MULPOC has provided assistance to the three major multipurpose organizations of West Africa, ECOWAS, CEAO and the Mano River Union, in the harmonization of their trade liberalization arrangements. The successful accomplishment of this exercise will lead to harmonious trade relationships among the three West African organizations. With regard to agriculture, industry and transport, the MULPOC has initiated action for the promotion of intercountry specialization in the production of food crops, conversion of some national industrial plants into multinational or subregional plants and the creation of a subregional network of intermodal transport.

To reinforce the progress achieved thus far by providing a clearly articulated development strategy for the subregion and an agreed framework for the co-ordination of the activities of all the inter-governmental organizations and the role they should play in the West African subregion, the fifth meeting of the MULPOC Council of Ministers held in the Gambia in February 1982 directed that the MULPOC should undertake a comprehensive review and evaluation of multinational economic co-operation arrangements in West Africa. The underlying objectives are to draw lessons from past experience, identify obstacles to the subregional integration process and make recommendations on measures for the acceleration of the economic integration process; including measures for joint action by inter-governmental organizations in the programming and execution of projects in common sectors, horizontally and vertically; so that the organizations, acting together, could constitute co-ordinated and harmonized dynamic agents for generating self-sustaining economic development and growth in West Africa. It is expected that this study will be completed by the end of 1982 and the stage will be set to implement programmes for the transformation of ECOWAS into a subregional common market by the end of this decade.

The Economic Community of the Great Lakes Countries (CEPGL), comprising Burundi, Rwanda and Zaire, was established in September 1976. The Gisenyi-based MULPOC, which serves the same countries, was established in October 1977, one year after the signing of the Convention establishing CEPGL. As the technical and ministerial organs of CEPGL were established before the creation of the MULPOC policy organs an agreement was reached during the consultations held with the representatives of the three countries during the fourth and fifth meetings of the ECA Conference of Ministers in 1977 and 1979 respectively that CEPGL and the MULPOC could co-operate very closely with a view to achieving economic co-operation and integration among the three countries. In conformity with this agreement, the inaugural meeting of the MULPOC Council of Ministers directed that the MULPOC should provide logistic support to CEPGL and that its work programme and priorities should be determined in consultation with the secretariat of CEPGL and through the secretariat, with the technical and ministerial organs of the Community. These guidelines were endorsed by the first extraordinary meeting of the MULPOC Council of Ministers held in August 1980 and by the Conference of the Heads of State and Government of the CEPGL countries held in December 1980.

Within the framework of these guidelines the MULPOC is concentrating on activities which are directed towards the establishment of an operational customs union by the end of the 1980s. These include promotion of intra-community trade and co-operation in the fields of customs regulations; transit trade; monetary affairs; industrial development, with particular emphasis on agro-industries; road links; air cargo and lake transport; agriculture, giving priority to food crops and livestock as well as fisheries; human resources development and energy. As will be noted below, the CEPGL countries are now part of a process for the creation of a Central African economic community. It is thus intended that the projects of the Gisenyi-based MULPOC should be harmonized with those of the Yaounde-based MULPOC, so that the two MULPOCs can, together, contribute to the formation of the Central African economic community.

The Central African MULPOC (Yaounde-based), which was established in February 1978, serves seven countries, four of which are members of UDEAC. The UDEAC member States and Chad are also members of the Banque des Etats de l'Afrique centrale. The inaugural meeting of the MULPOC Council of Ministers held in Yaounde decided that the main objective of the MULPOC should be to provide assistance to member States in the identification and execution of programmes and projects that would lay the foundation for the creation of a subregional common market, focusing on co-operation in the fields of trade and monetary affairs;

agriculture, with particular emphasis on agronomic research and staple food crops; transport and communications; mineral resources; and human resources. As in the case of the West African MULPOC, the Council of Ministers also directed that the MULPOC should co-ordinate its activities with the Central African inter-governmental organizations, particularly UDEAC and the Banque des Etats de l'Afrique centrale.

At its fourth meeting in January 1981, the Council of Ministers established inter-governmental negotiating committees in the sectors of trade and monetary affairs, agriculture, industry and transport to select projects in each sector which would facilitate the integration process and negotiate their implementation. The establishment of the inter-governmental negotiating committees was intended to create a favourable environment for strengthening co-operation with the UDEAC secretariat and for the formulation of mechanisms for restructuring UDEAC and enlarging its membership to include Equatorial Guinea, Sao Tome and Principe and Chad, in consequence of a decision taken the previous year by the UDEAC countries.

The Heads of State and Government of the UDEAC countries at their annual regular meeting held in Brazzaville, the Congo, in December 1980, decided that the MULPOC should be requested to undertake an evaluation of UDEAC and recommend measures that would improve its performance in promoting economic co-operation in Central Africa. The MULPOC policy organs, at their meeting in January 1981, welcomed the decision of the UDEAC summit and requested the Executive Secretary of ECA to mount an interdisciplinary mission which would, in addition to the evaluation of UDEAC, consider the feasibility of establishing a subregional economic co-operation arrangement that would embrace all Central African countries. The terms of reference of the mission were drawn up jointly by the MULPOC and UDEAC secretariats. The mission was mounted between July and October 1981. It recommended that, concurrently with the restructuring of UDEAC, negotiations should be undertaken on the expansion of co-operation in Central Africa and that a Central African Conference of Heads of State and Government should be convened to decide on principles and guidelines for such negotiations.

The report of the mission was submitted to the Conference of the UDEAC Heads of State and Government at their regular annual meeting in Libreville, Gabon, in December 1981. The Heads of State and Government of Angola, Burundi, Chad, Equatorial Guinea, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe and Zaire were invited to attend. The Conference adopted the Libreville Declaration by which eleven Heads of State and Government of Central Africa pledged their countries to the establishment of an Economic Community of Central Africa. For the implementation of this pledge a Working Group of the Consultative Committee on the Libreville Declaration was established.

The Working Group, which met in Libreville in January 1982, established the following priority areas of co-operation: agriculture, industry, transport and communications, trade and monetary affairs, science and technology, natural resources including energy and human resources and recommended a draft timetable for negotiations. The secretariats of ECA and OAU were requested to prepare the draft treaty and protocols and relevant technical studies, taking into account the priority areas agreed upon. It was understood that the UDEAC secretariat and the Gisenyi and Yaounde MULPOCs would be associated in the work assigned to ECA and OAU. An inaugural meeting of ministers was convened in March 1982 to consider the *modus operandi* of co-operation in the priority sectors recommended by the Working Group, arrangements for negotiating a treaty, and the timetable for negotiations. The meeting also had before it a draft treaty prepared by the ECA and OAU secretariats which was submitted for a first reading. The meeting mandated the Working Group to undertake negotiations between March and November 1982 when, dependent on the progress made, a second ministerial meeting would be convened to consider the draft treaty and recommend a date for the second Conference of Heads of State and Government to sign the treaty. If the timetable recommended by the Working Group is adhered to, the treaty should be signed during the first quarter of 1983.

In North Africa progress has been rather slower. The ECA Conference of Ministers decided at its fourth meeting that, before the North African MULPOC could be formally launched, a meeting of officials should be convened, in the first instance, ". . . to consider, in addition to the draft work programme . . . the creation of policy organs for the supervision of the North African Centre". An inaugural meeting of officials was convened for this purpose in March 1978. The meeting recommended that the supreme policy organ of the North African MULPOC should be a Meeting of Plenipotentiaries and called on the ECA secretariat "to

convene, as soon as possible, meetings of technical experts to formulate action-oriented proposals in respect of four sectors, namely: agriculture, industry, trade and transport" for submission to the first Meeting of Plenipotentiaries. The technical committees were convened by the MULPOC secretariat in November 1978 and agreement was reached on recommendations to be submitted to the Meeting of Plenipotentiaries. In the event, little progress has been made, notwithstanding the fact that a Meeting of Plenipotentiaries was successfullv convened in March 1982.

It would be unprofitable at this stage to enter into the aetiology of the problems; suffice it to say that various exigencies have made it difficult to convene meetings of the MULPOC policy organs representative of all the countries of the North African subregion at which collective and firm decisions could be taken on a programme of action.

The MULPOCs, as instruments for the promotion of co-operation at the subregional levels are, *ipso facto*, appropriate multinational agents for the promotion of TCDC-ECDC activities within the African region and could be effective focal points for TCDC-ECDC between Africa and the other countries of the world. As the MULPOCs achieve success at the subregional levels, there will be a simultaneous growth of inter-MULPOC programmes and of regional sectoral programmes which would strengthen the operational effectiveness of ongoing programmes between ECA and other regional commissions.

5. LESSONS, PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS FOR THE 1980s

The case for the formation of subregional and regional co-operation arrangements rests on the argument that African economic co-operation will engineer a process of internally-generated self-sustaining development. No single African country can, by itself, achieve this objective. The national economies which emerged at independence are too small, poor and externally dependent and cannot hope to become economically self-reliant or generate a process of inward-looking structural transformation except by joint action.

In the late 1950s and early 1960s all-embracing regional frames of co-operation were being advocated. The belief today is that the approach to regional co-operation has to be gradual. The experience of the last two decades has shown that the prospect of co-operation and integration based on all-embracing regional institutions does not seem, at present, particularly bright. It has now been learnt that co-operation is a gradual process which must have its roots in limited geographical groupings of countries or in some specific sector, and build on the limited groupings or sectoral programmes. But such groupings should be of a size which will enable the participating countries to benefit from economies of scale and complementarities in resources endowment. Their markets and resources have to be large enough to make it possible to establish viable production capacities in the industrial and primary sectors; increase the capacity to develop indigenous technology and to absorb as well as adapt imported technology; promote effective exploitation of complementarities; create viable infrastructural facilities in the fields of transport and human resources development; and take collective action in negotiating with developed countries on the supply and prices of locally produced primary exports. From this point of view, subregional groupings are more advantageous than intrasubregional multinational arrangements.

However, even at the subregional level the approach to integration has to be pragmatic and based on the recognition that subregional economic integration and effective conversion of national economic policies into subregional programmes may take a decade or more to accomplish. The pace cannot be forced in view of specific problems that weaken the subregional integration process. As noted earlier there can be no effective regional or subregional co-operation and integration unless some constraints to the process are overcome. These include economic, political and administrative constraints.

If economic co-operation arrangements in Africa are to make progress in the 1980s, they will have to be structured in such a way that they will provide a framework for endogenous economic development that conforms to the needs of the peoples of member States. Although most African countries are politically independent their economies continue to be integrated in the economies of the former metropolitan Powers. Genuine co-operation is inconsistent with the continuation of the traditional ties with, and dependence on, developed countries. The consequences of this situation are that there will be no interdependence among member States in the same subregion; production and consumption patterns will be geared outwards producing

a divergence between domestic needs and domestic production; the autonomy of the countries will be reduced and the forces which compel African countries to produce what the international economic system wants them to produce rather than what is required for the welfare of African peoples will be strengthened. It will therefore be necessary progressively to sever traditional external dependency ties and relink with other African countries subregionally and regionally, before mutually beneficial processes of economic co-operation can be programmed and implemented.

A related problem is that subregional co-operation arrangements may easily be captured during the early stages, when emphasis is still on trade promotion by extra-regional corporate affiliates of transnational enterprises which will become the main beneficiaries of the larger market, to the detriment of the indigenous agents of production and trade. The dominance of foreign manufacturing and commercial interests will reduce the extent to which gains will be forthcoming and frustrate endeavours to arrive at an equitable distribution of costs and benefits among the States that have entered into a co-operation arrangement.

Moreover, the tendency of the market mechanism to work in an unbalanced manner that produces a polarization of development in some States of the co-operation system to the disadvantage of the relatively poorer States produces strains and stresses that have led to the disintegration of co-operation arrangements. The crucial problem is equitable distribution of new productive activities especially in the industrial field.

This makes it imperative that the co-operating States should undertake concerted planning during the early stages of a co-operation system in the fields of agriculture, industry, science and technology, development of material and human resources and the transport and communications system; with a view to producing coherent and balanced inter-country plans, creating co-operation units and sub-contracting arrangements among production units located in different member States and adopting harmonious rules for governing the inflow and outflow of capital and imports of foreign technology. Co-ordinated planning of productive activities and of crucial infrastructural requirements such as transport and human skills is a necessary condition for the implementation of economic co-operation schemes and for internalizing the co-operation process in national planning policies.

Finally there are institutional and political constraints that have led to the collapse of many integration schemes before they become fully operational. In most African countries there is, as yet, no effective institutional and administrative machinery adequately equipped to translate collective resolutions and declarations into operational development programmes, in such a way that at the national level the development programmes are not at variance with decisions taken at the subregional level. Added to the difficulties arising from lack of effective administrative and institutional machineries are divergences in political and economic ideologies and orientation. Because of these problems, some countries are persuaded to take a short-term view of their national interests and decide to take the easy way out by withdrawing from the co-operation scheme or refusing to accede to a treaty establishing the scheme when there is an apparent clash between the interests of the countries concerned and their neighbours in the same subregion.

The successful implementation of the Lagos Plan of Action and the Final Act will depend on the identification of the problems referred to in the above paragraphs and measures taken to solve them. African Governments themselves will have to take the lead in determining appropriate solutions. The prospects for co-operation in Africa in the 1980s can only be as bright, and no brighter, than the willingness and readiness of member States to reduce their external dependence and adopt inward-looking development strategies. This means institutionalizing a new economic order at both the national and the subregional levels. The MULPOCs were created to assist Governments in this endeavour. They underline the practical and operational role which ECA is now playing in this regard. The objectives and operational activities of the MULPOCs, as already stated, are consonant with the Lagos Plan of Action and the Final Act. However, the operational effectiveness of the MULPOCs will depend on additional financial and professional skills, which it is hoped, will be made available to ECA by the international community and African Governments during the 1980s.

IV. SENIOR AFRICAN and other friends remember

SOME PERSONALIZED ACCOUNTS

- GEORGE DAVIDSON
- ROBERT K.A. GARDINER
- WOLLIE CHEKOL
- ROBERT J. OUKO
- MRS. DELPHINE TSANGA
- MAHDI ELMANDJRA

MR. GEORGE DAVIDSON,

Former President of the Economic and Social Council and Former United Nations Under-Secretary-General for Administration and Management

In April 1958, when the Economic Commission for Africa was born, the world of international, inter-governmental organizations was a vastly different one from that which we take for granted today. No other continent-wide, inter-governmental institution existed at the time to concern itself with the problems, hopes and aspirations of all the African people. ECA was the first of its kind in Africa.

The vast majority of the population of the African continent was still living under colonial rule in 1958. Not more than nine of the 50 States now existing on the African continent had achieved political independence and joined the world-wide community of the United Nations. These pioneers of African statehood and involvement in international affairs included four Mediterranean African States - Morocco, Tunisia, Libya and Egypt (United Arab Republic). Only four other authentically African States south of the Sahara - Ethiopia, the Sudan, Ghana and Liberia - were eligible for full membership in the Commission. These eight countries - under the watchful eyes of South Africa and six colonial Powers - Belgium, France, Italy, Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom - comprised the initial membership of the Commission.

Clearly, one of the first tasks of the Commission, apart from its overriding goal of independence for all African peoples and Territories, was to "decolonize" its own membership and rid itself as quickly as possible of the heavy hand of "colonial Power" influence on its own deliberations and activities. For almost half of the Commission's earliest membership was composed of European States who, in African eyes at least, appeared to be less interested in the early enfranchisement and self-determination of the people of "their" Territories than in the continuation for a further period of their steadily weakening hold upon the rich resources of the continent.

The establishment of the Economic Commission for Africa was not achieved without a struggle, lasting more than a decade. Various attempts were made to get things started, beginning in 1947, following the creation of the first two United Nations Regional Economic Commissions (ECE and ECAFE), and continuing through 1950, 1951 and 1956. All of these initiatives ended in frustration and failure. Meanwhile, ECLA (The Economic Commission for Latin America) came into being, reinforcing further the pattern of regional organization within the United Nations system which was gradually beginning to emerge. Latin America's 20 votes had succeeded where Africa's modest nine votes had failed. But finally, after a further interval of ten long years, on 29 April 1958, the Economic and Social Council, at the direct behest of the General Assembly which had been appealed to at its previous session, approved its historic resolution 671 (XXV), by which the Economic Commission for Africa, whose twenty-fifth year of accomplishment we are celebrating this year, was established.

It was my privilege, as President of the Economic and Social Council for 1958 to preside at the meeting where this resolution - so important for the future economic and social development of this vast continent - was given final approval. Later in the same year, the Council selected, from a number of contending invitations, Addis Ababa as the site of the infant Commission's headquarters.

The creation of the Economic Commission for Africa, the last of four continent-wide regional bodies, proved once again the truth of the old adage - nothing, especially if it affects African hopes and aspirations, is ever achieved without a struggle.

The resources available at the outset to nurture the fledgling Commission were meagre in the extreme. Not only was the initial budget of the Commission less than $1 million, but more serious than the lack of funds was the absence of any meaningful international infrastructure to support and reinforce the Commission's efforts. Compare the situation in 1958 with the widespread, far-reaching international support structure which exists in Africa and throughout the world today, most of it thanks to the United Nations. In 1958, when the Commission was born, there was no Organization of African Unity: it came into existence only five years later and, without claiming too much credit for ECA, it can safely be asserted that it served as an important, if not indispensable catalyst of OAU's creation and "was present at the birth" in the capacity of a mid-wife, if not indeed an expectant and hopeful parent.

In 1958 also it must be remembered, there was no UNDP; no UNIDO; no UNEP; no World Food Programme; no IFAD; no UNFPA; no UNDRO - nothing, in fact, except the moral support and encouragement of the sister regional commissions (one of which, ECWA, was yet to be born), the blessing of the world community with a modest budget provided by the United Nations General Assembly and, more than anything else, the drive, determination and dedication of the eight original African States who had spear-headed the drive to establish the Commission.

What a contrast to the multitude of agencies and institutions working today in Africa and reinforcing the Commission's efforts to assist the member States of the African community in their struggle to achieve a modest level of self-sufficient, self-sustaining economic development and better economic and social levels of living for their people!

The earliest years of the Commission's existence witnessed significant changes in its membership, featured by two important developments. The first of these was the rapidly increasing number of newly independent States, acceding to full membership in the Commission in place of the associate membership status which they had "enjoyed" as colonies. The second was the gradual disappearance of the erstwhile colonial Powers from full membership as colonialism gave way to independence. Italy was dropped from membership in 1960, Belgium in 1962, France, the United Kingdom and Spain stepped down in 1963 from full to associate membership. Portugal was expelled in 1963; South Africa's participation in the work of the Commission was suspended by a decision of the Economic and Social Council "until conditions for constructive co-operation have been restored by a change in its racial policy". That day has yet dawned. By 1965, with the cessation of Southern Rhodesia's associate membership in the Commission, the slate, in one way or another, had been wiped clean. While the Commission's membership was being "purged" in this way of elements alien to indigenous Africa, the numerous colonial Territories, as they achieved political independence, were transferring their associate status into full membership in the Commission with the result that by the middle of the decade of the 1960s, ECA had become totally and authentically African in its composition, having exactly the same membership as the Organization of African Unity which had come into existence in 1963.

While the political evolution of the Commission, which went hand in hand with the emergence of African peoples into the sunlight of self-determination, freedom, statehood and independence, represents a fiscinating and important part of the ECA story, developments on the substantive side of the Commission's work were of comparable, if not equal, importance. What could the struggling Commission accomplish to satisfy the high hopes and aspirations of those who had fought so tenaciously for its establishment? Lacking at first the barest elements of an infrastructure of its own, the Commission could look for little help from the newly emerging independent States which themselves had to face insurmountable problems in building their national infrastructures and setting their own houses in order. With little in the way of financial or skilled human resources to draw upon, the Commission, at the outset, concentrated its initial efforts on research, technical assistance advisory services and training of candidates to meet its own and also national needs. Perhaps more than most of the other Commissions, ECA has concentrated its efforts on social and community development issues, as an integral part of overall development, equally with economic considerations. Possibly this is a reflection of the struggle to achieve the elimination of the last vestiges of colonialism and the eradication of the evil of *apartheid*. Whatever the reason, ECA has directed its attention in equal measure to issues of economic development and social reform - and has succeeded in maintaining an even balance between these two, more successfully than some of the other regional commissions.

Concern with social and related non-economic issues was reflected from the outset in the simple initial structure of the Commission's secretariat, which consisted of three organizational units - Research (economic, social and statistical), Agriculture, (a joint ECA/FAO Division) and Community Development with its emphasis on social welfare services. Gradually, however, as the Commission has gained experience and received increased financial support from the General Assembly, the secretariat structure has expanded, reflecting the increasing concern of the steadily growing number of member States with the crucial problems of economic development. A Division of Industry, Transport and Natural Resources was added in 1960. In 1963, two new divisions - Trade, and Surveys and Research - emerged, along with units concerned with Training, Technical Assistance Co-ordination and Information. By the end of the decade of the 1970s the secretariat structure was further elaborated to cover areas of concern which surely none of the delegates who led the struggle to establish an Economic Commission for Africa would have dreamed of achieving in the space of two decades. It is worthwhile to catalogue the names of the substantive divisions through which ECA, in its third decade, is endeavouring to achieve the goals for which it was created; for the mere recital of these illustrates clearly the wide range of ECA's interests and the multiplicity of areas in which it is striving to assist the Governments which are its members. The ten divisions are as follows: Socio-Economic Research and Planning; Joint ECA/UNIDO Industry; Joint ECA/FAO Agriculture; Social Development; Natural Resources; Transport, Communications and Tourism; Public Administration, Management and Manpower; Statistics; Population; and International Trade and Finance. Other units concerned with policy and programme co-ordination, economic co-operation, technical assistance co-ordination and operations; environmental co-ordination and administration and conference services supplement and support in their respective areas of competence the work of the main substantive divisions. The fact that the three original divisions of Research, Agriculture and Community Development continue to find their place, with certain modifications, in today's organizational structure of the Commission is in itself a tribute to the wisdom and foresight of the early leaders of the Commission's work.

Today, in its structure, and in the programmes which it is pursuing, the Commission represents practically all sectors of social and economic activity in the continent of Africa, and mirrors virtually all the important economic and social concerns of its member States and of their people. ECA's budget has grown from an initial amount of less than $1 million to the not insignificant level of $36 million for the 1982-1983 biennium - almost a 20-fold increase in the 25 years of its existence. With its increasing capacity to undertake important assignments and its central strategic location at the very hub of the African "wheel" of social and economic development ECA stands today as the principal catalyst of economic and social change in the vast continent of which it has become such an indispensable part. More and more the agencies of the United Nations system are turning to it as executing agent or collaborator in fulfilling the tasks which lie within their competence. More and more ECA is evolving as the focal point of the United Nations system as a whole in the continent of Africa.

DR. R. K. A. GARDINER,

Former Executive Secretary of the Economic Commission for Africa

The first request to the United Nations for the creation of a regional Economic Commission for Africa was made in 1950. It was met with arguments that the needs of Africa were being adequately served by the Commission for Technical Co-operation in Africa and other research facilities of the Colonial administration. Then in November 1957, the Economic and Social Council having considered General Assembly resolution 1155 (XII), established the Economic Commission for Africa with among others, the following terms of reference:

(a) Initiate and participate in measures for facilitating concerted action for the economic development of Africa, including its social aspects, with a view to raising the level of economic activity and levels of living in Africa, and for maintaining and strengthening the economic relations of countries and territories of Africa, both among themselves and with other countries of the world;

(b) Make or sponsor such investigations and studies of economic and technological problems and development within the territories of Africa as the Commission deems appropriate and disseminate the results of such investigations and studies;

(c) Undertake or sponsor the collection, evaluation and dissemination of such economic, technological and statistical information as the Commission deems appropriate.

Eight independent African countries participated in the meeting of the Economic and Social Council which took this decision.

The inauguration of ECA was a festive occasion. There was an atmosphere of optimism and triumph as delegates felt that member States had won a victory in securing the approval of the General Assembly of the United Nations for the establishment of the Economic Commission for Africa. All the other continents had their Commissions - Europe's had started as far back as 1947 but Africa's had been delayed because there had been practically no voice with which her predominantly colonial people could make their desires known in the Parliament of Nations.

In the opening address, Emperor Haile Selassie I of Ethiopia set the tone of the meeting when he declared:

> "A short half-century ago, only the most far-sighted individuals dared predict that within 50 years Africa would have so far progressed along the path of political and economic progress that a conference such as this, where representatives of nine independent African nations, as well as representatives of several other African countries, have gathered in solemn conclave to consider the common problems of Africa and the African people, would be possible. And yet this has come to pass, and today we are assembled here for this very purpose. Our heart overflows in the attainment of the moment.
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> "Only a few years ago, meetings to consider African problems were held outside Africa, and the fate of its people were decided by non-Africans. Today, the tradition of

Berlin and Algeciras has been repudiated, and it is thanks to the Conference of Accra and now of Addis Ababa that the peoples of Africa can, at long last, deliberate their own problems and future."

Emperor Haile Selassie I further said:

"Among the reasons for the poverty and hard life of the African peoples must be numbered the fact that heretofore most Africans have not enjoyed the freedom they are now attaining.

"In addition, the lack of capital essential to the development of their economies and the shortage of technically qualified personnel have severely limited Africa's capacity for economic growth . . . But just as we must not be too proud to recognize the facts which face Africa's economic situation as it exists today, so we must not be cast down or discouraged by the magnitude of the problems which face us. For Africa is potentially rich . . . the vista that opens before the Economic Commission for Africa in fulfilling the weighty responsibilities laid upon it by the United Nations General Assembly is vast. The tasks are immense. Much labour and toil will be demanded, not only from those who will constitute the permanent organization, but also from the Governments of all countries and Territories in fulfilling the commitments and discharging the responsibilities resting upon its members and associate members. The economies of the African States have too long existed as separate, self-contained, isolated entities. African countries have too long been forced to nurse their own economies and puzzle out their problems by themselves, or else have them handled haphazardly for them by others."

Continuing, the Emperor asserted that concerted action, co-operation and co-ordinated policies offered the key to "fulfilment of the longings and the hopes of millions of Africans". Expressing the opinion that the United Nations and the older States were 'under a grave moral obligation' to alleviate the economic difficulties of the younger States and Territories, Emperor Haile Selassie I also said:

"The United Nations is a living and tangible testimony to the value of co-operative efforts among all men to improve their way of life and preserve peace."

Africa would be able to draw on the experience gained by its predecessors in Europe, Latin America and Asia and the Far East. Many of the economic and social problems ECA would face were new and "the paths untrodden".

The Emperor pledged the 'highest endeavours' of the Ethiopian Government and people in aiding and speeding the work of ECA and concluded his address with these words:

"We pray that peace may be vouchsafed to all men, and that the labours of this Commission may ever be conducted in an atmosphere of harmony and co-operation."

The Secretary-General of the United Nations, Dag Hammarskjold, described the first session of ECA as a great occasion for the peoples of Africa and the United Nations. He recalled how, in the inter-War years, the Emperor of Ethiopia was looked upon as "the symbol of. . . the principles of international order", and said that it was a vindication of His Imperial Majesty's faith that the United Nations should make its African home in Addis Ababa. The Secretary-General declared "One day we may look to the establishment of the Commission as marking the movement when Africa began to assume its full role in the world community".

He reminded the meeting that only two African countries were signatories to the Covenant of the League of Nations and that only four were signatories and original members of the United Nations. Six African nations had joined the United Nations since its inception, and the increasing membership ensured a fuller representation of Africa in the United Nations and a step towards the fulfilment of the United Nations Charter. The Mandates System had developed into a 'mechanism for peaceful change' and the United Nations trusteeship had functioned as a 'framework for orderly evolution in the process of emancipation'. It was in keeping with the United Nations Charter that an instrument for economic co-operation for the whole of the continent should now be established.

The Secretary-General informed the meeting that the Commission's work would involve concerted action among countries and Territories with different boundaries, physical, social and economic conditions, and different institutional links outside Africa. The Commission would provide to "countries and territories and to regional and subregional groupings, a body of technical service for the study and exploration of common problems as well as a centre for consultation where Governments could freely define and elaborate the forms of their co-operation".

The Secretary-General thought that the Commission could serve as "a well-organized clearing-house for the exchange of information and experience, supplemented by some measure of analysis and critical appraisal", which could have a direct practical impact by shortening the process of trial and error and help to create a body of collective knowledge and wisdom on problems of development and administration. He warned against the dissipation of time and resources on meetings and conferences of marginal significance and suggested that the Commission be enabled to discharge all its functions in a "well-conceived and always flexible programme of action". He saw the Commission as the focal point where the economic needs of the African people would be expressed and where action designed to meet those needs would be initiated. The Commission would have the whole of the United Nations system at its disposal, the programmes of research and technical assistance, the Special Fund, etc.

The Secretary-General in a speech full of wisdom and optimism declared that it was expected that "as the future of the continent was seen in clearer and indeed, more promising perspective, it would become possible to develop that pragmatic and practical approach, unhampered by emotionalism which is indispensable to economic co-operation".

The Executive Secretary drew the meeting's attention to the fact that it was the first occasion "in the whole history of our vast continent" on which all the African Governments were afforded "the opportunity to meet under one flag, the flag of the United Nations. . . to work collectively for the most noble and humane cause. . . that is, the raising of the standards of living of the member States and associate member States of the Commission". The Executive Secretary enumerated the gracious acts performed towards ECA by His Imperial Majesty Emperor Haile Selassie I in giving the magnificent Ethiopian Parliament House for the first session and in offering to have an Africa Hall constructed permanently to house the secretariat and to serve "other purposes of African conferences and meetings".

The Executive Secretary was gratified by the presence at the meeting of the Secretary-General, Dag Hammarskjold, describing him as "that loyal servant of the United Nations who is recognized by all who work for him as a true lover of peace and champion of the ideals of the Charter", and by the presence also of the Secretary-General's chief lieutenant in the economic and social aspect of the United Nations functions, Mr. Phillipe des Seynes, who helped much in the establishment of the Commission". At the United Nations Headquarters the Executive Secretary had encountered "tangible faith" in the Commission and received "in the most touching manner" good wishes for its start and success.

Assuring the delegates that it was their responsibility to guide himself and his staff to use their time and avialable resources "in tackling the practical and more urgent problems of development", the Executive Secretary drew their attention to a memorandum on the work programme which had been prepared in collaboration with colleagues at Headquarters.

The Executive Secretary concluded his address by declaring himself a believer in the cause of the Commission, and said he was honoured by the Secretary-General's appointment, and that he was happy to work for the members of ECA and give all that he could.

* * *

When the Economic Commission for Africa met in Addis Ababa in December 1958, the Executive Secretary, who had been appointed in April of that year, was practically the only substantive staff member. He had spent some time at United Nations Headquarters in New York familiarizing himself with United Nations procedures and had visited several African countries to explore the possibilities of recruiting staff for ECA with the help of their Governments. In his visits to New York the Executive Secretary received every assistance from the Secretary-General and from the Director of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs in his efforts to interest a number of experienced United Nations personnel to work for ECA and succeeded in having two foundation staff members seconded from New York and Santiago, in addition to some secretarial and administrative staff. This skeleton staff, augmented by a few others recruited locally spared neither time nor effort in making the necessary preparations for the first session of the Commission. Mr. Bjuine (Norway) and Mr. Georges Mouchabel (Lebanon) were in charge of general services and finances respectively. Apart from their routine work

these gentlemen were of invaluable assistance in the settling in of new staff and families, helping with decisions on housing, schools, hospitals, doctors and even household workers. Ethiopian officials and businessmen were disposed to be friendly and co-operative and ordinary members of the general public often went out of their way to be helpful but linguistic and other difficulties occurred and had to be sorted out.

Conference papers to be used at the first meeting were prepared by the Department of Economic and Social Affairs in Headquarters, New York. Drawing on its experience in working with the established economic commissions, the Department provided an economic survey of Africa since 1950, as well as a provisional work programme for submission to the first session. Staff from United Nations Headquarters, New York, and other United Nations agencies were recruited for translation, typing pool and other clerical work.

The rules of procedure adopted at this session stipulated, among other items, that:

> "The Executive Secretary shall direct the staff provided by the Secretary-General and required by the Commission and any subsidiary bodies thereof and shall be responsible for all the necessary arrangements for meetings of the Commission, its committees and its subsidiary bodies . . . The secretariat shall interpret speeches made at meetings, shall receive, translate and circulate the documents of the Commission, its committees and its subsidiary bodies; shall publish and circulate the records of the sessions, the resolutions of the Commission and the relevant documentation required. It shall have the custody of the documents in the archives of the Commission and generally perform all other work which the Commission may require."

The annual report for 1959-1960 under the heading "Staffing position" reads "The recruitment of staff members in the professional grades started slowly, but there was some improvement in the latter part of the year. By the end of 1959, 17 professional staff members were at work in Addis Ababa, while 35 local staff members had been recruited, a number of whom had been given probationary appointments". The secretariat was provisionally organized as follows:

(a) Office of the Executive Secretary;

(b) Research Division, comprising sections dealing with economic research, social research and statistics;

(c) ECA/FAO Joint Agriculture Division;

(d) Community Development Branch;

(e) Division of Administration, Conferences and General Services, comprising a Personnel Office, Finance Office, Language Section, Library, Registry, secretarial and typing pool, and documents reproduction and storage unit.

The Executive Secretary had great difficulty in the recruitment of personnel generally, and from Africa in particular. The annual report for 1960-1961 states: "At end of 1960 the total staff strength was 105, of whom 42 were professionals". To miminize the difficulty of assembling qualified staff to meet the work programme, the Executive Secretary, with the co-operation of United Nations offices elsewhere, was able to find expedients:

(a) Seven regional advisers were provided by the Bureau of Technical Assistance Operations, in statistics and two in the social field; the Bureau also provided four directors for statistical training centres;

(b) Two full-time and three part-time staff members were provided by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) for the ECA/FAO Joint Agriculture Division;

(c) Experienced staff members, mainly at senior levels, were provided from the United Nations Headquarters to serve in Addis Ababa to the extent of 14 months;

(d) The Executive Secretary was able to obtain the services of highly qualified specialists to serve on specific short-term projects to the extent of 52 man-months.

During the first year the search for staff was unremitting. In addition to the regular circulation of description of vacancies to all Governments and to advertisements in newspapers, the Director of Personnel sent a mission to West Africa in May-June 1961 to search for candidates for posts at United Nations Headquarters and at ECA. A small number of likely staff were discovered but all in all the results of such tremendous efforts were disappointing. While it was difficult to get personnel from African countries, recruitment from

other parts of the world was not easy either. It would appear that there simply were not enough people with the sort of qualifications necessary for work in the Commission to satisfy the demand in their own countries as well as in other regions. For three years running there were complaints from representatives and delegates that the secretariat of ECA was not sufficiently 'Africanized'. The 1962 annual report had this to say:

> "Geographical distribution and Africa's need for know-how apart, recruitment of Africans for the secretariat of the Commission would always depend on the ability and willingness of the Governments of the region to make the necessary sacrifices."

> "The policy of the Secretary-General and that of the Executive Secretary had been that suitable Africans should be given preference until the execution of this policy reached a point where it clashed with the provisions of the Charter of the United Nations or with the interests of African development."

It was easy for people to develop a kind of 'fixation' on the idea that the ECA secretariat should have an obviously African look. In some degree there was almost an attempt at harassment of the Executive Secretary over this matter, and nothing could have been more unfair. Mekki Abbas was a patriotic African and a citizen of the world. The job of the first Executive Secretary of the Economic Commission for Africa was excessively demanding on every count - technical, professional and diplomatic. Mekki gave to it every ounce of strength he possessed, struggling on through difficulty after difficulty. By temperament he was not one to 'suffer fools gladly', and he became more and more impatient with inefficiency and 'humbug' until he finally decided to resign. Those who had the pleasure of knowing him well and of enjoying his confidence and affection will unreservedly acknowledge the great indebtedness of ECA to its first Executive Secretary.

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When the Commission met in 1958 it was made up of 13 full and 11 associate members. The Commission's terms of reference conferred membership on African sovereign States and colonial Administering authorities within the geographical scope of the Commission's work. To become a full member, a Territory needed to have an application presented to the Commission and the Economic and Social Council "by a member responsible for the international relations of such a Territory". Representatives of associate members were entitled to participate without vote in all meetings and committees of the Commission. This arrangement meant that seven out of the 13 full members were not African States and that Territories like Nigeria and Tanganyika had their participation restricted. This could not be tolerated for long. At the second session delegates urged the administering authorities - that is, the full members - to encourage the dependent Territories to apply to participate in the Commission's work. They therefore adopted Commission resolution 5 (II) which, after citing the Commission's terms of reference and General Assembly resolution 1466 (XIV), invited all member States to implement the provisions of paragraph 2 of General Assembly resolution 1466 (XIV) and requested members with responsibility for Territories in Africa or members responsible for the external relations of African countries to consult with the Governments concerned and to ascertain whether they wished to become associate members of the Commission and to inform the Executive Secretary of the views of the Government of the country or Territory concerned.

The third session requested the Executive Secretary to convey urgently to the countries responsible for the international relations of non-self-governing Territories the will of the Commission to see those countries represented as associate members by Africans.

The Executive Secretary informed the fourth session that Belgium had replied that her colonial Territories would shortly become independent; France and the United Kingdom in statements made during the plenary session had accepted the modification proposed; but Portugal had refused to comply and Spain had not indicated its attitude towards the request. The Commission adopted a resolution for the consideration of the Economic and Social Council which recalled Commission resolutions 5 (II) and 24 (III) and regretted that the Council had not found it possible to approve the recommendations to deprive Spain and Portugal of their membership of the Commission. The Executive Secretary was requested to approach the Powers responsible for the international affairs of African Territories to assist those Territories to apply for associate membership.

The fifth session studied a report on measures taken to follow up resolution 42 (IV) with the Economic and Social Council. The Executive Secretary reported that he had been in correspondence with administering authorities and had received indications that they would comply with General Assembly resolution

1466 (XIV) and the Commission resolutions 24 (III) and 42 (IV). He also informed the Commission that the Economic and Social Council had not accepted the recommendation that Portugal and South Africa should be deprived of membership of ECA. France and the United Kingdom had indicated that they would not vote against resolutions which had a majority support of the Commission, but because of a memorandum which Spain had submitted to it, the Economic and Social Council referred resolution 42 (IV) back to the Commission for reconsideration.

The Commission considered two resolutions, 68 (V) inviting the session to reconsider the recommendation concerning the termination of the membership of Portugal and South Africa, and 42 (IV) proposing that Spain, France and the United Kingdom continue their participation in the work of ECA but in the category of associate members. The proposals were adopted by the Commission since as set out in paragraph 5 of the terms of reference (since modified), "States which shall cease to have any territorial responsibilities in Africa shall cease to be members". It was argued that the situation in Africa had changed and it was natural to reflect that change in the membership of the Commission. In the Economic and Social Council delegates who voted against the resolutions explained that the expulsion of States like Portugal and the Republic of South Africa would be detrimental to the multilateral system which the United Nations strives to attain. Some other delegates wondered whether the continued flouting of United Nations decisions by recalcitrant States was not a danger to the very existence of the system.

The second session of the Commission was taking place in Tangiers when news came from Brussels that the round-table conference of the Government of Belgium and African nationalists of the Congo (now Zaire) had agreed on a date for the granting of independence which was to be June 1960. Dr. Ralph Bunche went to Leopoldville to represent the Secretary-General at Congo's independence. It appears that pandemonium broke out as soon as independence was declared, and Dr. Bunche sent reports to Headquarters.

On the attainment of independence, the Congolese Prime Minister, Mr. Patrice Lumumba, made a speech which, contrary to the expectations of the Belgians, did not express any gratitude for colonial rule, but rather stressed the fact that the Congo had been a victim of colonialism. The Congolese soldiers who had long entertained a hostility towards colonizers on hearing such pronouncements, broke into a rebellion. The Belgian soldiers attempted to restore Belgian authority, but this the United Nations could not permit.

While these events were taking place in Leopoldville, a secession was engineered in Katanga and it looked as if the country was going to split into pieces. But for United Nations intervention this would have happened and the Congo could have become a theatre of Big Power conflict. Both Ralph Bunche and Dag Hammarskjold saw the dangerous implications of the situation and Hammarskjold sent reports to the Security Council indicating that the newly independent Congolese Government had been attacked and needed United Nations protection. The Secretary-General obtained the authority of the Security Council to mobilize and send a peace-keeping force to the Congo. The first troops were dispatched from Morocco, Tunisia, Ghana, Nigeria and Ethiopia. Later troops from India and Pakistan also went to the Congo. It appeared that the Congolese expected the United Nations troops to crush all forces not in support of Prime Minister Lumumba. But the Secretary-General's idea was to arrange a peaceful settlement and reconciliation which might even bring Moise Tsombe's Katanga back into the Congo and to restore its territorial integrity.

Quarrels broke out within the Congolese Government, and Prime Minister Lumumba attempted to escape to Stanleyville, but was captured and taken to Katanga (Elizabethville) where he met his death under circumstances yet undiscovered.

From that moment, the United Nations staff which had been assembled to cope with the Congo incident realized that it was going to serve on a long campaign and not the brief term of duty originally envisaged. Dr. Ralph Bunche was recalled to New York to carry on his day-to-day functions. The Secretary-General resumed his normal duties at Headquarters after consultations in Brussels. Dr. Mekki Abbas, the Executive Secretary of ECA, was appointed the Secretary-General's representative in the Congo, and senior ECA staff were also seconded to the Congo. ECA affairs demanded Dr. Abbas' attention and he was so impatient to return to Addis Ababa that even before his promised replacement arrived he requested and obtained release from the Congo job and returned to Addis Ababa.

The Deputy Executive Secretary of ECA, Dr. Robert Gardiner, who had been Establishment Secretary in Ghana, was left in the Congo to reorganize the Civil Service. Messrs. Rossen of ECA and Eshag of the United Nations were appointed to review changes in the Congo economy and other ECA staff members were retained as administrative and finance officers. There is no doubt that the already weak staff position

of ECA was further weakened by the Congo crisis. Mekki Abbas had just got back to Ethiopia from the turbulence of the Congo late in 1960 when in November of that year, there was an attempted coup d'etat in Addis Ababa.

The Deputy Executive Secretary of ECA also returned to Addis Ababa a couple of weeks before the attempted coup d'etat and was dispatched to New York soon afterwards. He had been a short while in his new post in the Division of Public Administration when the death of Dag Hammarskjold occurred, and so, hardly having settled down in New York, Gardiner was sent back to the Congo, as Officer-in-Charge of the United Nations Operation in the Congo as well as Executive Secretary of ECA. These arrangements were made because the United Nations still expected the Congo crisis to end in a short time. As it turned out, Gardiner could not leave the Congo before June 1963.

The Congo conflict was a highly complicated affair. If the United Nations had not been present, Belgium might have attempted to reoccupy the Congo.

When fighting broke out between Tsombe's mercenary-led secessionist forces in Katanga against the army of the Congo, United Nations forces became involved. So between 1960 and 1963, the administration of ECA was in the hands of a succession of officers-in-charge and all measures taken at the time were subject to confirmation on the return of the substantive Executive Secretary.

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It is of interest to note that, viewing Africa from New York, Addis Ababa was a central point. But delegates from East and Southern Africa had to travel to London or Rome and Athens, Cairo or Khartoum before reaching Addis Ababa. West Africans who travelled either through Khartoum or London and Rome as the case might be, often wondered on reaching Addis Ababa, whether they were still in Africa owing to the low temperature of the place. Delegates experienced delays in arriving at and departing from Addis Ababa because flights were not daily.

African leaders saw in ECA a mechanism by which their countries could be assisted to attain improved material conditions. They were convinced - we all were - that the fundamental source of the prosperity of the 'developed' world was the advance of science and technology over the past 200 years. Member States hoped that ECA was going to help them make up for lost time.

In the general debate at the very first session, it was agreed that, in view of Africa's abundant natural resources, what was needed most for its economic development was technical knowledge and capital.

In the setting up of the Commission African States had expected help from foreign Powers. This assumption was based on the fact that Europe itself was assisted by the Marshall Plan and War Refugees were helped by the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Agency. But the challenge to Africa came when the United Nations became the administrator of multilateral aids. This meant that Africans were expected to help themselves.

United Nations assistance was therefore limited to the payment of salaries for the staff, with the international institutions providing facilities and helping to man these facilities.

African countries discovered that they had no statistics which they could use for programming and planning. They had no trained personnel to analyse, interprete and apply such data as they found for their economic development. That was why they have spent most of the early years in building a data base and creating institutions for training.

It was thought that by freeing themselves from colonial rule they could almost automatically raise their standard of living. This has not happened but the opportunity which ECA has offered has enabled the people of this region to build up an increasing number of trained persons and, even though the manpower problem had not been solved, there is the hope that the people of this region are playing an increasingly large part in building their economy. Even though the earlier expectations had not materialized, ECA itself as a venture in self-reliance is progressing.

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In 1962 when the Charter of OAU was being drawn up the staff of ECA gave the OAU secretariat full support and agreed to principles such as:

(a) Reciprocal representation and participation at meetings;

(b) Consideration of subjects of mutual interest;

(c) When later the question of granting associate membership of the Commission to countries like Angola, Mozambique, and Guinea-Bissau was proposed by OAU, a formula was evolved to enable the Executive Secretary to present the names of specific participants to the General Assembly;

(d) Exchange and joint use of information, documents and working papers;

(e) ECA, where possible, should assist OAU in administrative arrangements: i.e. co-operate in administrative matters consisting mainly of sharing administrative facilities and certain personnel arrangements both for strengthening of the OAU secretariat and the execution of specific projects of common interest;

(f) ECA should assist OAU in the recruitment of staff, with the use of conference rooms in Africa Hall and securing the services of translators;

(g) With the help of the United Nations European Office, ECA should assist OAU in the recruitment of conference personnel;

(h) ECA should make training facilities available to young and inexperienced staff recruited by OAU.

The cost incurred in rendering any such services was to be borne by OAU. The position of ECA has always been to co-operate and assist.

An agreement dealing specifically with political matters was later signed with Headquarters. ECA has never been involved in the interpretation or application of that agreement.

It has often been said that conflicts existed between ECA and OAU. The sources of these allegations have never been traced. With the use of conference rooms, every attempt was made to deal with the difffficulties of allocation no matter how short a notice was given.

Before Mr. Diallo Telli, the first Administrative Secretary-General of OAU had fully settled down in his job at Addis Ababa, there were occasional difficulties over requirements for conference rooms or interpreters or some such matter. These were perhaps due to highly charged emotional, political, racial or professional sensibilities which may have been prevalent at that particular time.

Apart from that, relations with OAU and with its Secretaries-General have always been both cordial and fraternal.

* * *

The first session of the Commission held from 29 December 1958 to 6 January 1959 requested the Executive Secretary to undertake studies into the possibilities of expansion and diversification of the agricultural sector. Member countries presented practical problems in agriculture to be solved and in particular the Executive Secretary was asked to take action as follows:

(a) Explore means of aiding Governments in North Africa to develop their sea fisheries and esparto grass reserves in co-operation with the specialized agency concerned; communicate with national and international bodies concerned with locust control and inquire what in the opinion of these bodies was needed to ensure more effective control of locusts in Africa;

(b) Request FAO to prepare a report on measures needed in the north-east region of Africa to eradicate infectious diseases of livestock, with special reference to rinderpest; and define in which areas West African countries could derive mutual benefit by increasing their economic contacts with each other.

Finally, arrangements were to be made for a joint programme with the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. The proposed ECA/FAO Joint Agriculture Division was set up in accordance with a memorandum of understanding drawn up in April 1959 between the Executive Secretary of ECA and the Director-General of FAO and in June 1959 the Chief of the Division took up his duties. In addition to the substantive work of the Division he was responsible for the recruitment of staff, the building up of library facilities and the framing of a joint programme of work. The arrangements between ECA and FAO envisaged co-operation in the field of agriculture, statistics, community development and other subjects of mutual interest.

The substantive work of the Commission in agriculture in its first year included five studies prepared either by FAO or from material supplied by it. These reports which were submitted to the Commission at its second session were:

Infectious diseases of livestock with special reference to rinderpest, locust control, development of esparto grass reserves, development of sea fisheries, and marketing of livestock and meat.

The Commission adopted a resolution on "Sea fisheries in the north-eastern tropical Atlantic" [resolution 14 (II)], which took note of resolution 24/59 by the Conference of the Food and Agriculture Organization at its tenth session. This resolution requested the Executive Secretary to get in touch with the appropriate specialized agencies, particularly FAO, with a view to the latter organization establishing a general Fisheries Board for the north-eastern tropical

Atlantic (Cape Spartel to the Gulf of Guinea) with its headquarters at Casablanca.

The Commission approved a programme for agriculture for the period 1960-1961 which included the following:

(a) Review and analysis of current progress in the field of food and agriculture in Africa (an activity to be built up progressively over a number of years);

(b) Agricultural development programmes and planning;

(c) Trade, marketing and consumption of agricultural products;

(d) Contribution of direct aid to Governments in the field of agriculture; and

(e) Survey of timber resources and requirements.

In a resolution 18 (II) approving the programme of work and priorities for 1960-1961, the Commission requested the Executive Secretary to pay particular attention to the problems of traditional backward sectors of African economies (agriculture and handicrafts).

The ECA/FAO Joint Agriculture Division made contributions in the field of published agricultural data in 1960-1961. Under the project "Review and analysis of current progress in the field of food and agriculture in Africa" agricultural data in the form of notes on some major agricultural commodities were supplied to the "Economic Bulletin for Africa". Under the project on agricultural development programmes and planning information continued to be collected on agricultural development programmes in the countries of the region. Long-range programmes were developed to investigate various problems of the traditional agricultural sector and its possible integration into the modern sector of the national economies. In 1960 ECA co-sponsored with FAO a centre on land policies in East and Central Africa and also gave support to the promotion of agricultural co-operation in Africa.

In collaboration with FAO a survey of timber resources and requirements in Africa was initiated. Trends in level and direction of exports of agricultural produce were examined, and preparations were made for a survey of the market for esparto grass and esparto grass pulp.

At the third session the Executive Secretary led the discussion on agriculture. He gave reasons why most economies in Africa had to depend on the agricultural sector to foster economic growth. The two main reasons for this dependence were the need to provide increasing food supplies for the rapidly growing population; and the need to provide primary exports of enhanced quality and quantity to earn the foreign exchange necessary for financing imports of capital goods.

Members expressed concern at the evidence presented by FAO in its "Review of the food and agricultural situation in Africa" (E/CN.14/62 and Corr.1) to the effect that the *per caput* food availability in the region as a whole had decreased mainly as a result of the decline in the production of basic foods for local populations. The report emphasized the need for national development plans to place emphasis upon the expansion of food production and marketing for domestic consumption. Concern was expressed by delegates on the deterioration in the prices of primary exports in relation to the prices of industrial goods and members agreed to the need for price stability.

Resolution 29 (III) on the "implementation of commodity price stabilization scheme" was passed. This resolution referred to the project on the stabilization of commodity prices in the programme of work for 1961-1962 arising from the Commission's resolution 18 (II) of February 1960. It requested that the Executive Secretary should transmit the text of the resolution together with the views on this subject expressed to the Commission on International Commodity Trade and report back to the fourth session. During the fourth session the secretariat presented the following documents to the Commission:

(a) Wildlife conservation and tourism;

(b) Nutrition and food consumption levels in Africa;

(c) Control of desert locust;

(d) Development in fisheries administration;

(e) Food and agricultural situation in Africa;

(f) African timber trends (prepared by an FAO consultant);

(g) Co-operative movements in Africa.

The Executive Secretary in his report informed the delegates that the secretariat had also prepared papers for the Meeting on Commodity Price Stabiliza-

tion and the FAO/ECA Development Centre on Agricultural Credit in 1962. Information was still being collected on agricultural development programme in the countries of the region. The secretariat was also paying attention to institutional developments aimed at improving the conditions of farmers and promoting their transition to the monetary sector. A report had been prepared in accordance with General Assembly resolution 1526 (XV) on fiscal and financial factors promoting or obstructing land reform in the Sudan. Papers covering the interrelationship of land reform and agricultural credit and the relations between credit and extension services had also been prepared.

The Executive Secretary reported that a livestock survey had been conducted in southern Ethiopia jointly with the Ethiopian Government and FAO experts. This survey was to complement a wider survey of the region made in 1960 by FAO . The secretariat had begun work on the role of marketing boards and other marketing organizations in the promotion and regulation of the handling of agricultural commodities. This project had initially been directed at the internal stabilization of prices of export commodities.

A consultant had, through research findings, further defined on the basis of a food balance sheet deficiencies in the level and composition of diet in the region. These findings were made available to FAO for use in the third world food survey prepared as part of the Freedom from Hunger Campaign. During the discussions on agriculture at the fourth session, delegates stressed the need for modernizing agriculture, including the intensification of production and the diversification of traditional patterns. The importance of developing the livestock industry was also stressed. Reference was made by members to the economic utilization of food surpluses as a form of capital investment for promoting development. It was pointed out that these surpluses had accumulated in some industrialized countries. Some of the less developed countries were increasing their food importation to the detriment of their balance of payment.

Two important resolutions were adopted: resolution 56 (IV) which stressed the economic importance of the livestock industry to many countries and the need to improve and exploit it and resolution 54 (IV) which was on the use of food surpluses.

There was improvement in the situation of staff and the availability of source material during 1962-1963 and therefore considerable progress was made in the systematic assembly of information on agriculture in the countries of the region. The secretariat was able to prepare the following documents for the fifth session:

(a) Report on livestock development;

(b) The use of food surpluses;

(c) The control of the desert locust;

(d) Agriculture credit in Africa and irrigation problems.

In connection with agricultural development programmes and planning, several staff members of the ECA/FAO Division assisted in the preparation of the agricultural section of the 1962-1967 development plan for Ethiopia. The FAO/ECA Development Centre on Agricultural Credit for Africa held in May 1962 to study the factors necessary for promoting the transition of farmers into the monetary sector also benefited from reports prepared by the secretariat.

Preparations were made with FAO for a joint development centre on land policies for West Africa which was organized in 1960. A consultant visited a number of countries in north and eastern Africa to examine the economic and social factors involved in establishing irrigation projects. The first issue of the Agricultural Economics Bulletin for Africa was published. The livestock survey in Ethiopia begun in 1961 was completed and was used as a guide to potential supplies of livestock for export.

The Division took an active part in the African meeting on commodity stabilization held in Lagos from 30 July to 6 August 1962 in accordance with the Commission's resolution 25 (III). Technical data on national marketing boards and price stabilization funds in African countries were collected and these formed the basis for one of the main documents for discussion at the meeting.

In co-operation with the FAO marketing branch, a handbook on the organization and operation of marketing boards and related organizations was prepared. The Commission presented a summary report on irrigation schemes in Africa emphasizing some of the benefits to be gained from irrigated agriculture and pointing out the high capital costs and the need for skilled management and specially-trained farmers. In his introductory speech at the fifth session, the representative of the secretariat reminded members of documents they had produced in conjunction with FAO. He presented documents on Livestock production; control of desert locust; agricultural credit in Africa; irrigation problems, and African timber trends for discussion.

The Commission resolved, by resolution 78 (V) on the desert locust, that the Executive Secretary should approach the Food and Agriculture Organization, which was responsible for carrying out the regional project of the Special Fund relating to the desert locust, to establish an organization to carry on an anti-locust campaign and research work on North Africa.

The subject of the World Food Programme was raised and it was explained that, in conformity with the Commission's resolution 54 (IV), the World Food Programme, which was conducted by the United Nations and the FAO jointly, had begun operations in 1963 to promote economic and social development. During the discussion of the World Food Programme it was stressed that more publicity had to be given to the programme and African countries had to contribute towards the resources of the programme. Finally it was recommended that consideration should be given to the formation of a food bank for the distribution of surpluses on an equitable basis.

During 1963-1964 the ECA/FAO Agriculture Division undertook studies and surveys on the food and agricultural situation for use by meetings, seminars and workshops and for the information of member States. The secretariat emphasized that its programme of work had been guided by the resolutions of the Commission. Whilst the first and fourth sessions emphasized food and consumption levels and the utilization of food surpluses, the third session stressed commodity stabilization with special reference to the operations of marketing boards. How to deal with the problems of agricultural policy and planning with particular emphasis on the transition from subsistence to market agriculture had been discussed at every session and it was the view of the secretariat that for the next five years every proposal or resolution would have to be examined in terms of its contribution to the realization of this principal objective. Discussions at the sixth session covered: African timber trends and prospects; locust control; place of agriculture in the harmonization and co-ordination of national development plans; contribution of African agriculture to the economic and social development of the continent; and land reform and irrigation.

Two resolutions, resolution 108 (VI), which dealt with the situation of land reform, and resolution 112 (VI), on transition from subsistence to market agriculture, were adopted.

Resolution 112 (VI) requested the Executive Secretary to collaborate with FAO and other appropriate agencies in analysing the economic and technical factors involved in the modernization of agriculture and in exploring policy measures which Governments might use to promote and regulate the development of agriculture to meet the growing and changing demands of the African economy. All Governments of the Commission and their agencies were urged to provide aid to the region and to give favourable consideration to projects and measures likely to accelerate the transition from subsistence to market agriculture through productivity levels in the agricultural sector.

In view of resolution 112 (VI) the primary focus of the ECA/FAO Joint Agriculture Division during 1964-1965 shifted to the promotion of the transition from subsistence to market agriculture. The secretariat grouped the activities reflecting the theme under four headings:

(a) The pursuit of more effective means of enlisting African farmers in the campaign to improve productivity;

(b) Promotion of new techniques of production and marketing;

(c) Promotion and improvement of livestock and meat production; and

(d) The stimulation of agricultural processing industries.

A report of an expert meeting on governmental measures to promote the transition from subsistence to market agriculture had already been circulated and at the end members resolved, by resolution 128 (VII), to replace the existing system of committees by working parties composed of experts or high-level specialists in their respective fields. This change was in recognition of the change in emphasis in the work of the Commission from surveys and studies to the implementation of projects. Each of the working parties was required to meet at least once in 12 months. Another resolution 141 (VII) on agriculture requested the secretariat to prepare and submit a comprehensive study covering such topics as:

(a) An analysis of imports and exports of food products on regional and subregional heads;

(b) Agricultural raw material with special emphasis on products that might reduce imports;

(c) Food canning and processing industries; and

(d) Sea and river fisheries.

The main work of the ECA/FAO Joint Agriculture Division during 1965-1967 was to study and

analyse factors influencing subsistence patterns of agriculture and furnishing basic data necessary for formulating policies aimed at the promotion of the transition from subsistence level of production to a commercial level in conformity with resolution 112 (VI). The secretariat commissioned a consultant to undertake a major work, 'African agricultural development: Reflection on the major lines of advance and the barriers to progress'. Another major study which was completed with the co-operation of FAO was the "Timber trends and prospects of Africa". The secretariat produced papers on fertilizer use and prospects in Africa for the United Nations Interregional Fertilizers Seminar held in Kiev, USSR, in August-September 1965.

The secretariat collaborated in the preparatory work for projects under the World Food Programme. A grain storage and price stabilization pilot scheme was put into effect in Ethiopia and a further project was submitted for the United Republic of Tanzania. Since the World Food Programme began its new phase in January 1966, after the initial three-year experimental period, attention was given to the possibility of greater use of food aid in Africa for economic development.

At the eighth session the Commission was informed that the ECA/FAO Joint Agriculture Division had organized many conferences, seminars, training centres and surveys and that a detailed study on timber trends and prospects in Africa had been completed jointly with FAO. The need to eliminate waste in the handling and storage of food and to promote its processing was stressed in view of the fact that many countries were importing more food. The FAO representative, in a brief statement as his contribution to the agenda, talked about the operation of FAO in the African region. FAO, he stressed, had stimulated interest in problems of agricultural development and increasing food production. The organization had assisted Governments in formulating agricultural development plans and had undertaken surveys under the FAO/IBRD Co-operation Programme to identify a number of agricultural projects for financing. The delegates were unhappy with the unsatisfactory state of agriculture in the economic and social development of the continent. Actions to be taken to improve agriculture were suggested. Examples of such actions were marketing and credit facilities. The delegates suggested that more positive action programmes like setting up fertilizer plants should be introduced and that less emphasis should be placed on seminars, conferences and surveys of a general nature. After the discussion the delegates adopted a resolution 152 (VIII) on agriculture which drew the attention of the Director-General of FAO to the slow progress in agricultural production and sought his assistance in improving the situation. The Director-General and the Executive Secretary were asked to strengthen the staff of the ECA/FAO Joint Agriculture Division; and the Executive Secretary was further requested to establish liaison with multilateral agencies for the avoidance of unnecessary duplication of action in the field of agriculture in order to define precisely the areas of practical activities yet untouched.

The secretariat's programme of work and priorities for 1967-1968 laid emphasis on action programmes, emphasizing the idea of working towards multinational economic co-operation with agriculture as one of the priority areas. In a report to the Commission covering the period 1968-1969, the Executive Secretary stated that, whilst research workers and scientists in Africa and their counterparts at ECA and FAO were striving to find ways of using modern techniques and inputs to improve agricultural output, African farmers were abandoning their farms for the city. It was the view of the secretariat that agriculture was the most important activity on which economic progress in Africa depended. Efforts, the report continued, were being made to strengthen inter-agency co-operation in order to avoid duplication of effort and make better use of available resources. The report concluded that field work on problems of marketing agricultural products had been conducted in some African countries and consultations had been held with some African States on stabilization programmes.

At the ninth session the Commission was informed that the trend in grain production was downwards even though there was a 7 per cent increase in 1967. Lack of effective links with other sectors was the problem confronting agriculture in Africa, and this had had effects on output, productivity and consumption of indigenous foodstuffs. The representative informed the Commission that the FAO Regional Conference held in 1968 had endorsed proposals to establish a single United Nations programme for agricultural development in Africa. The Conference, however, recommended more co-operation between ECA and FAO.

The draft programme of work and priorities for 1969-1970 proposed, among other items, subregional co-operation and trade in the field of agriculture. The success of the work programme, the session was informed, depended on the full co-operation of all concerned, including African countries as well as multilateral and bilateral agencies. Discussions revealed general support for the work programme. Members asked for action to promote mutual trade relations in respect of food and other agriculture commodities in order to minimize imports from outside the region.

The delegates requested that the study which had been carried out in West Africa on livestock improvement and the transport of meat should be extended to other regions. The request was embodied in resolution 201 (XI) on agriculture which also welcomed the close collaboration established between the Commission, the Food and Agriculture Organization, the World Food Programme and other competent bodies.

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The first session of the Commission requested the Executive Secretary to establish and develop a system of advisory services and training for member and associate member States. The secretariat prepared a general paper on problems concerning techniques of development programming in African countries (E/CN. 14/42/Add.1) and the different ways in which they could be approached. There were chapters on: the rationale of planning; techniques of formulating programmes; the implementation of programmes; administrative and organizational requirements. The paper, entitled "Techniques of development programming in Africa" was presented to a meeting of experts held in December 1959.

It was decided that similar meetings should take place every two years to discuss what the secretariat had done in the field of development programming and to advise on the direction of future work. It was further suggested that meetings dealing with problems of specific industries of countries of the subregion should be arranged to exchange experience. The meeting also suggested that training at intermediate levels should be organized in Africa, preferably in consultation with established universities and research institutions. The setting up of a training centre on the economic appraisal of specific projects was another recommendation and the experts were of the view that training students of economics in practical and applied problems of development programming was necessary for a better fusion of theory and application.

The second session of the Commission, held in February 1960, adopted resolution 17 (II) requesting the Executive Secretary to consult universities, research institutions and other appropriate organizations in Africa on training programmes in the field of economic development and also to study the possibilities of strengthening existing institutions or establishing new ones in Africa.

During 1960 the secretariat prepared a survey of development programmes in selected African countries and Territories for inclusion in the first issue of the Economic Bulletin for Africa. The impression conveyed by the survey was that development programming had gone little beyond the planning of government capital expenditure except in the North African countries. A conference of Heads of African universities and university colleges was held in Khartoum and discussions at the conference revealed widespread shortages of both teaching and research staff. The conference felt that the volume of research carried on in Africa on problems relating to African economic and social development was insufficient and suggested more effective cooperation among universities as well as assistance from international organizations to train a wide range of professionals.

Discussions at the third session of the Commission in 1961 revealed that there was general agreement that intensive efforts had to be made by both peoples and Governments if the rate of economic development was to be accelerated. It was observed that most countries were producing comprehensive plans based on economic analysis. The delegates saw the need for harmonizing national development efforts in order to achieve rapid progress in the economic development of the African continent as a whole.

In December 1961 the Executive Secretary convened a panel to consider the scope and functions of an African Institute for Economic Development and Planning and an economic projection and programming centre, both to be established under the auspices of the Commission. The report of the panel was slightly revised to take into consideration views expressed by government officials and representatives of African universities and was presented to the Working Party on Economic and Social Development which made useful suggestions with regard to the organization, types and content of training courses. For 1961-1962, the secretariat proposed training in economic and social planning as part of its programme of work and priorities and this was approved by the Commission. A Working Party on Economic and Social Development held in January 1962 considered the following three major points: development policies and programming; the proposed African Institute for Economic Development and Planning; and the proposed African Development Bank. Consultants were engaged to assist staff of the Planning Division in the preparation of papers presented to the Working Group.

At the fourth session of the Commission held in 1962 the report of the Working Group was presented to the secretariat. The proposal to establish an African Institute for Economic Development and Planning received general and emphatic support and Dakar was subsequently selected by a majority vote as the site for the Institute.

By its resolution 58 (IV) entitled "Establishment of African Institute for Economic Development and Planning", the Commission decided that an African Institute for Economic Development and Planning should be established and that advantage should be taken of the facilities offered by the United Arab Republic of a site for a future subregional institute, and of any subregional facilities that might be offered by other countries. The resolution went on further to instruct the Executive Secretary to appoint a panel of experts to draw up a preliminary draft statute and a preliminary draft convention for accession by States. The panel of experts was further to study the material conditions of the installation and operation of the Institute in Dakar, and to study in addition the conditions under which the Institute of National Planning at Cairo could serve as a subregional institute.

After the fourth session various administrative changes took place in the secretariat. The Division of Economic and Social Development, which comprise the former Community Development Branch and Social Welfare was formed and was divided, for administrative purposes, into three sections dealing with respectively:

(a) Projection and programming;

(b) Development problems and policies;

(c) Social affairs.

During 1961-1962 the Division completed a number of studies which served as working papers at meetings and seminars such as Expert Meeting on Comprehensive Planning. A course was also organized for African students in economics and significant progress was achieved in the establishment of the African Institute for Economic Development and Planning. The regional centre for economic projections and programming, which was established within the Division of Economic and Social Development, was to co-operate closely with a similar institution at United Nations Headquarters to systematically analyse African development plans as well as in experimental work on long-term projects of African economic trends.

At the fifth session, the Executive Secretary informed the Commission of the opening of the African Institute for Economic Development and Planning. Members were elated by the successful work done and expressed the view that the Institute would be an important training and research centre geared to the realities of Africa and would function in close co-operation with other African training and research institutions.

The secretariat's proposal for a meeting of African experts on planning was unanimously approved by the fifth session by resolution 80 (V). To aid Governments in their economic programmes the secretariat assembled at ECA headquarters a team of experts who, together with regular members, could at short notice be sent on missions to give specialized services in economic planning.

At the sixth session the secretariat described the main areas of its work as comparative analysis of development plans, social planning, analysis of demographic data, projections, training and advisory services. The importance of the human factor in development was emphasized and the planning of education consequently assumed a special significance. The African Institute for Economic Development and Planning was also discussed at this session and two resolutions on the terms of reference [resolution 93 (VI)] and financing of the Institute [resolution 92 (VI)] were adopted. Member States were asked to submit names of candidates for the initial nine months' course and the 1964 seminar. The Conference also adopted resolution 105 (VI) affirming the Commission's decision to establish a Conference of African Planners, to:

(a) Advise the Executive Secretary and the African Institute for Economic Development and Planning on the annual programme of work and research in economic and social development planning, including projections;

(b) Act as a centre for the exchange of information on methods and techniques of development planning;

(c) Promote the co-ordination of national development plans.

The resolution concluded by recommending the Executive Secretary to invite Governments to include in their delegations to the Conference of African Planners, representatives of Institutes and university faculties working in this sector.

The first session of the Conference of African Planners, which was held in November 1968, elected the Governing Council of the African Institute for Economic Development and Planning and adopted a programme of work and recommendations on development plans and institutions, statistical requirements for planning, intra-African co-ordination on development plans and training of personnel for planning.

The Conference was to provide a link between the activities of ECA and the African Institute for Eco-

nomic Development and Planning. In November 1963, the African Institute for Economic Development and Planning had already inaugurated its first nine-month course but its Special Fund plan of operation was opened for signature in November 1964. Specialized courses in manpower planning and education were held in Cairo, as was a training course in industrial programming. The central feature of the Secretariat's activities continued to be the analysis and stimulation of economic development on a subregional basis.

The secretariat completed two parts of the Economic Survey of Africa covering West and Southern Africa. At the request of the Government of Zambia the secretariat prepared jointly with FAO an outline five-year plan. It also gave assistance in the organization of research for economic development to many Governments on request.

During the sixth session of the Commission, the Executive Secretary submitted a report on the activities of the African Institute for Economic Development and Planning. Delegates, while appreciative of work done to date, raised questions on the strength and calibre of the teaching staff, availability of trainees, teaching standards, training programmes, financing relationships with other institutions and appointments of a permanent African Director of the Institute.

By 1965 most member countries had introduced development planning as a means of achieving rapid economic and social advance. Whilst some adopted comprehensive planning, others concentrated on public sector projects. It was only in East Africa that any attempt was made to co-ordinate development among countries. The major problems of initiating any development plan were the inadequacy of basic statistical and technical data and of key planning personnel. While it was recognized that comprehensive planning using sophisticated mathematical models was not appropriate for the current stage of Africa's development, the need for improved statistics and other basic research as well as training of statistical and development personnel could not be denied.

The secretariat prepared during the 1965-1966 biennium an analysis of the development plans of many of the member countries concentrating on their structural weakness. For the subregional meeting on economic co-operation in East Africa the secretariat prepared a background paper entitled "East Africa: Development trends, problems and prospects". In April 1966, the secretariat participated in the Meeting of Experts on Economic Projections held in New York to evaluate studies made by the Secretariat of the United Nations and UNCTAD. The report of the secretariat to the eighth session held in February 1967 covered its activities for the period 1965-1967. The report indicated that the secretariat had offered advice to African countries on the establishment of improvement of planning development machinery and the preparation, in broad outline, of new development plans. In view of the lack of basic statistics and qualified staff, the delegates agreed with the secretariat that full use should be made of the Institute for Economic Development and Planning at Dakar for training personnel.

The 1967-1969 report of the secretariat to the Commission's ninth session revealed that development planning, projections and policies had been transferred to the research section of the Research and Statistics Section which was to carry out a systematic analysis to find common characteristics and reasons why African development plans had not been successful.

Attempts would be made to harmonize national plans with a view to eliminating inconsistencies. ECA had established a planning advisory service which had, by 1968, provided experts to assist many countries in their development planning. In December 1967, the second session of the Conference of African Planners had been held whilst the third and fourth sessions respectively of the United Nations Committee for Development Planning in Addis Ababa and the interregional seminar on development planning in Accra were also held.

During the discussion on the report, the secretariat explained that the Institute developed plans according to political priorities based on the social structure and political ideology of the Government concerned. The secretariat informed the Commission that there were three Africans on the Committee of Eighteen which was working out plans for the Second United Nations Development Decade to ensure that it would not work solely to the benefit of the developed countries. Finally the members of the Committee of Eighteen drew attention to the fact that a lack of external aid to finance development plans and projects was the crucial problem facing all developing countries. They noted that the proposal to developed countries to use a percentage of their gross domestic product to assist underdeveloped countries had not been implemented and they were not optimistic as to when this target would be achieved. International agreements had not been drawn on many of the products of the developing countries. The Commission recommended that a system of supplementary financing of products of the developing countries should be introduced and stressed that it was essential for African countries to strive to achieve economic co-operation and regional integration.

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In 1960 the Commission requested the Executive Secretary, by resolution 18 (II), to pay particular attention to the problem of industrialization in Africa. Lack of staff had hampered the commencement of work by the Industry Unit. However, there was considerable progress in recruitment for the secretariat in 1961 and as a result it was possible to create a Division of Industry, Transport and Natural Resources. A programme of work was established in consultation with the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations. This Department had recently set up a Committee for Industrial Development to work out an expanded programme on industrialization and it was hoped that ECA could co-operate with it in the study of this area.

At the second session in 1961 the Executive Secretary informed the Commission that the UNESCO survey of the resources of the African continent would be distributed. The delegates stressed the importance of such surveys in the promotion of economic development.

Delegates were firmly convinced that industrialization was an important tool to change the traditional structure of African economies and also to provide employment for a rapidly increasing labour force. They argued that Africa had a vast potential for transforming mineral and agricultural raw materials into processed foods and for manufactured products for exports. The Executive Secretary was requested by the Commission [resolution 33 (II)] to prepare a detailed inventory of the continent's energy resources and to initiate a plan for their systematic exploitation. For its programme of work for 1961-1962, the Division prepared feasibility studies of industries for selected countries and a manual of industrial planning for the guidance of African Governments.

A Director was appointed for the Division of Industry, Transport and Natural Resources. He was no stranger to ECA, having earlier spent a month in Addis Ababa, late in 1961, on loan from the secretariat of the Economic Commission for Europe. He had participated in drawing up the Division's future programme of work and in the planning of recruitment. Work was started on the compilation of an inventory of African industries immediately he took up his post in May 1962.

The Division was able to assist in the development of industrial and energy statistics. Work was started on planning and collection of material for studies of individual industries to be followed, where appropriate, by feasibility studies. Considerable progress was made on the compilation of a manual on the preparation and implementation of investment projects in industry.

At the fourth session, delegates drew attention to the advantages of establishing close co-operation with the Industrial Development Centre at United Nations Headquarters in carrying out ECA's work programme. It was also felt that the execution of the work programme would be speeded up if it was linked more closely with the programmes of United Nations Technical Assistance and with the Special Fund.

The delegates decided by resolution 43 (IV) that a Standing Committee on Natural Resources and Industrialization should be formed with the following terms of reference:

(a) To advise the Executive Secretary on the annual programme of work and research in the field of natural resources and industrialization;

(b) To encourage, initiate and propose studies, investigations, seminars and conferences designed to determine and promote the most effective means of advancing industrialization on a national, subregional and regional basis;

(c) To examine and make recommendations on the adequacy and suitability of institutions of research and training bearing directly on industrial development;

(d) To co-operate closely with the work of the secretariat in the field of natural resources and industry and to make recommendations thereon to the Commission;

(e) To keep in close contact with the Standing Committee on Trade on matters relating to intra-African trade in industrial products.

The Executive Secretary was requested to undertake, with the co-operation of the Industrial Development Centre, a study on industrial investment opportunities to be considered by the Commission at its fifth session. The Commission, in resolution 55 (IV) on the dissemination of technical information as a means of economic and social development in Africa recommended that the Standing Committee on Natural Resources and Industrialization should, as a matter of urgency, arrange for the production of periodic journals which would deal with industry and natural resources.

The first meeting of the Standing Committee on Natural Resources and Industrialization was held in December 1962. A survey was prepared by the Industry Section which added to the report on African Eco-

nomic Survey since 1950, and broadly indicated trends in industrialization. The survey revealed the enormous and concrete possibilities for industrial development in Africa and the great scope in almost all African countries for import substitution, mainly through further processing of agricultural raw materials. There was also scope for the further processing of these same raw materials as well as of minerals, with the object of adding to the unit value of exports. In view of the limited size of markets in West African countries and of the heavy investment required, there was the need for subregional co-operation in the creation or expansion of most industries.

The state of industrial planning in Africa was also surveyed and showed that recent developments and prospects for expansion in selected major industries - iron and steel, non-ferrous metals, engineering, chemicals and fertilizers and textiles - were the principal items of interest. The Standing Committee, meeting as a working party, approved the secretariat's approach to industrial studies and adopted a detailed programme of work with emphasis to be placed during the year on two projects: an inventory of African industries, and the collection for eventual publication of statistical data.

In co-operation with the United Nations Industrial Development Centre and the specialized agencies, industrial research, technological education and training at all levels were to be organized. Investigations were to be carried out into the possibilities of subregional co-operation in the balanced integration of industrial development plans and intensive studies on the prospects of setting up strategic modern industries, wherever possible, on a subregional basis.

At the fifth session, the report of the Working Party of the Standing Committee on Natural Resources and Industrialization and the work of the secretariat were discussed. Delegates agreed that emphasis should be placed on the following issues:

(a) Development of strategic industry and subregional co-ordination. Development of agriculture and industry were to go hand in hand with national efforts to establish large-scale modern heavy industries which should be combined on the basis of the balanced integration of national plans for industrialization and of the division of labour at subregional level, with an equitable distribution of industries among all countries;

(b) Training and research;

(c) Mineral and water resources;

(d) Investment fund;

(e) Infrastructure; and

(f) Common market.

The programme of work and priorities approved for the secretariat for 1963-1964 covered these items and all ongoing projects. The detailed programme was as follows:

(a) Industrial statistics: The collection for eventual publication of statistical data on output, imports and exports and also consumption of industrial products;

(b) Inventory of African industries;

(c) Industrial investment: (i) investigation of experience of industries established from the point of view of operation, productivity and economic efficiency; (ii) research into the institutions which led to the establishment and methods used in reaching investment decisions; (iii) economic and other preconditions of industrial development; (iv) possibility of preparing a manual of investment projects covering both economic and technical aspects;

(d) Industrial policy and programming;

(e) Industrial research: Setting up of institutes for industrial research in Africa on a subregional basis;

(f) Technological education and training;

(g) Assistance to Governments in Technical Assistance and Special Fund projects;

(h) Assistance for promoting subregional co-operation in the development of industries in West Africa and Eastern Africa;

(i) Intensive studies of individual industries: Iron and steel, non-ferrous metals including further processing, engineering industries, chemicals, textiles and industries providing energy;

(j) Financing of industries: Problems of financing industry in Africa, including analysis of self-financing methods, channelling of private savings to industry through the development of capital markets, internal financing through the sale of capital goods, international financing through international agencies and other channels;

(k) Industrial, commercial, monetary and fiscal legislation: Study of the impediments to industrialization represented by existing industrial, commercial, monetary and fiscal legislation.

The Standing Committee on Industry, Natural Resources and Transport held its second session in the course of the year and, in presenting its report to the sixth session of the Commission, the Chairman of the Committee informed the delegates that a meeting of experts on iron and steel in West Africa had taken place in Monrovia, and a meeting on industrial co-ordination was held in Bamako, Mali. Preparations by the secretariat for a regional symposium on industry in 1965 and a world symposium scheduled for 1966 had been completed. Arrangements had also been made for systematic reporting by countries on industrial problems. The Committee was also recommending that a regional conference on iron and steel be convened.

The main emphasis on the work of the secretariat had been on the establishment of large-scale modern industries such as iron and steel, non-ferrous metals, engineering, chemicals and fertilizers, textiles and building materials. These were strategic for economic development but required markets beyond the scope of most African countries.

It was agreed that not only should large-scale industries be encouraged but also small- and medium-scale industries especially those based on agricultural raw materials (including timber) as import substitutes. The idea of import substitutes originated from the experience of shortages during the second world war when major merchandise houses due to their inability to import supplies from industrialized countries started producing local substitutes of formerly imported items such as plastics, water pipes, builders' hardware, textiles, cement, shoes and foundry products.

The delegates recommended that a subregional block should be established covering the United Republic of Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Chad, the Congo (Brazzaville), Congo (Leopoldville) (now Zaire) and Gabon for the Commission's economic co-ordination programme.

Substantial studies were prepared by the secretariat on iron and steel, chemicals and fertilizers, textiles and food industries for the Conference on Industrial Co-ordination in West Africa in Bamako from 5 to 15 October 1964. Further studies and consultations had taken place in North Africa leading up to a ministerial meeting in November 1964, at which the Maghreb countries established a continuing arrangement for the harmonization of industrial and related economic development activities. A request to be presented to the Special Fund for an industrial centre for the Maghreb countries to be established in Libya, was approved at that meeting.

Papers on a wide range of industries and related economic problems were presented by the secretariat for a conference on industrial co-ordination in East Africa which was held in Lusaka in the summer of 1965. Studies along similar lines were initiated for Central Africa. Jointly with FAO, preparations were made for a conference on pulp and paper held in 1965. Preparations were also made jointly with the United Nations Industrial Development Centre for a regional industrial symposium held in Cairo early 1966.

Following the Conference on Industrial Co-ordination in West Africa held in Bamako, technical assistance was provided to West African countries to establish the West African Interim Expert Committee on Iron and Steel which held its first meeting in Abidjan in October 1965. The meeting discussed concrete steps West African countries should take jointly towards the establishment of a West African iron and steel complex.

A small-scale industries mission also visited West African countries in March-June 1963 to advise Governments of the subregion on projects which could be implemented with very little finance and technical requirements. Subregional meetings were held in all subregions to consider various aspects of industrialization.

By 1966 the Industry subdivision had compiled into a single document for subregional meetings entitled "Industrial development in West Africa" an integrated analysis of industrial opportunities to provide a basis for the promotion of industrial investment. Some of the products covered by the studies were bricks, ceramics, rubber, textiles, beverages, non-ferrous metal industries and furniture.

In January 1967 a meeting of industrialists and financiers was organized under the auspices of the Commission to provide a first step towards close and continuing contact between senior representatives of member Governments and representatives of potential investors. The Commission noted that for some industries economically feasible projects could be achieved only by cutting across subregional boundaries and therefore prepared feasibility studies for subregional markets.

The main objectives of the Division's work in 1965-1966 was to survey trends in industrialization in

all African countries and to point out concrete possibilities of industrial development. This was worked out in the framework of multinational, subregional and regional co-operation.

Subregional conferences were held in West Africa, Central Africa and North Africa to consider the various feasibility reports. In all subregions a survey of the export possibilities in manufactures was initiated as a first project with UNCTAD. The studies were carried out in two parts: (a) agricultural and related products; (b) mining and manufacturing industries.

At its seventh session, the Commission noted with appreciation the work done by the secretariat in respect of the preparation of prefeasibility studies.

With the completion by the end of 1966 of the prefeasibility state of the work on industrial development, efforts were concentrated on promoting the actual execution of projects. On request, assistance was to be provided to African Governments in following up prefeasibility and engineering studies and for the establishment of industries.

Commission resolution 153 (VIII) requested the Executive Secretary to contact UNDP and UNIDO for the additional technical and financial resources necessary for the establishment of subregional industrial information and promotion centres to advise member States on the implementation of the appropriate feasibility and investment studies.

The programme of work for 1967 and 1968 was concentrated on harmonization of industrial development, that is showing inter-industry relationships and linkages, making an inventory of industries in Africa, promoting industries and institutions for industrial development and enquiring into the causes underlying the weakness of African entrepreneurship and management and measures for correcting these. This last project was taken up in co-operation with UNIDO, ILO, UNESCO and a number of other institutions. African Governments were also advised on the establishment of industrial research centres and the training of technical staff. By 1969 the groundwork on industrial development programmes for the entire continent had been completed and the stage had been reached when emphasis was on implementation of projects which required definite decisions on the part of African Governments and massive investment.

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The programme of work submitted to the Commission at its first session by the Executive Secretary included, under the research programme, a proposal to initiate a study of available natural resources including water conservation and utilization where such studies had not been undertaken or were incomplete.

During the discussion of this programme members stressed that there was a great need in Africa for certain types of surveys such as hydrological, geological, geodetic and other surveys of resources including resources for industrialization and sources of energy such as solar energy. The Executive Secretary was requested to consider methods such as international aid, employing experts, etc. by which African countries could be assisted to carry out such surveys. He was also requested to compile a bibliography of surveys already carried out drawing attention particularly to major gaps in these surveys.

The Executive Secretary requested UNESCO to prepare a survey of the natural resources of the continent and the chapter on geology was completed and submitted to the second session of the Commission together with a bibliography of geological studies relating to Africa.

Delegates welcomed the UNESCO study presented to the second session but they pointed out that data on North and East Africa were either not included or were not up-to-date in all respects. They requested the Executive Secretary to accelerate work on the other categories of resources so that these could be made available to Governments. Delegates emphasized that surveys of labour, human, land and animal resources were also important and that the Executive Secretary should seek the aid of the appropriate specialized agencies to cover these areas.

At the end of the discussion, delegates passed Commission resolution 13 (II) which requested the Executive Secretary to bear in mind, whilst carrying out the mineral resources survey, the possibility of establishing industries based on such resources and to orientate such surveys in that direction.

At the third session of the Commission, the Executive Secretary reported on the progress which had been made since the second session. He informed members that, as the Division of Industry, Transport and Natural Resources was still under organization, there was little documentation yet available. He reviewed progress made and the chapters dealing with topography and maps, climate and meteorology, hydrology, soils (including conservation), flora (subdivided under (a) Africa north of the Sahara and (b) Africa south of the Sahara) and fauna (subdivided under zoology, entomology and conservation). He stressed that the survey emphasized the importance of

the collection and interchange of research data throughout Africa and recommended that countries should be assisted to take steps which would ensure that, at both national and regional levels, scientific material is circulated and classified to make it readily accessible and easily exchanged.

The Executive Secretary conveyed to the Commission a request by the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations that he should seek the views of members and associate members concerning the desirability of convening a United Nations cartographic conference for Africa.

The delegates welcomed the information so far provided by the survey and stressed that such surveys were particularly important for the promotion of economic development in specific fields like hydrology, geology and soil conservation.

The Commission adopted two resolutions on resources. In the first [resolution 33 (III)], the Commission requested the Executive Secretary *inter alia* to prepare a detailed inventory of the continent's energy resources and to undertake a thorough survey for their systematic development. The second resolution [34 (III)], requested the Executive Secretary, in consultation with the heads of the appropriate specialized agencies, to consider the convening of a joint conference on a survey of Africa's natural resources.

After this session, work was started on the compilation of an inventory of African industries in association with the Statistical Section in surveying and developing industrial and energy statistics. Preliminary plans were made for a conference on African energy resources to which the secretariat of ECE was expected to contribute.

A decision was taken at the fourth session [resolution 43 (IV)] to establish a Standing Committee on Natural Resources and Industry. The Standing Committee was to advise the Executive Secretary on the annual programme of work and research in the field of natural resources and industrialization and to keep in close touch with the work of the secretariat in the field of natural resources and industry and make recommendations thereon to the Commission.

By 1962, the Energy and Natural Resources Section which was to comprise units concerned with energy, minerals, water resources and hydrology was taking shape.

The secretariat prepared a meeting on electric power scheduled for Addis Ababa in October 1963. The aims of the meeting were to facilitate contacts between officials and experts concerned with African energy problems, especially electric power and also to promote an exchange of views on energy resources in Africa and the extent to which they are utilized.

The sub-working party of the Working Party of the Whole of the Standing Committee on Industry and Natural Resources drew up a long-range programme of work on minerals and on water resources and hydrology on the basis of suggestions put forward by the secretariat. Preparations were also made for the convening of an African Conference on Cartography which was held in Nairobi, Kenya, in July 1963.

The Commission expressed great appreciation of the programme prepared by the Working Party of the Whole of the Standing Committee on Industry and Natural Resources as presented to it at the fifth session.

The detailed programme was as follows:

(a) Mineral resources

(i) The continuing build up of an inventory of African mineral resources and analysis of development prospects, with special reference to the development of industries on a subregional basis;

(ii) The establishment of close working relations with major regional organizations in the field of mineral resources, and with local geological surveys and mining departments;

(iii) To urge upon Governments the immediate and long-term needs of geological surveys as an essential basis for mineral investigation, the establishment of new geological surveys where necessary, the importance of long-term systematic mineral investigation in relation to industrial development, and the early publication of relative maps and records for the information of the general public and of mining companies;

(iv) Promotion of collaboration between geological surveys and universities in geological mapping and special problems;

(v) Assistance to individual Governments at their request in solving problems

of mineral investigation and development and beneficiation, etc., including assistance to Governments in the formulation of technical assistance and special fund projects;

(vi) Promotion of economic mineral prospecting, investigation, and production by large-scale enterprises, and the enactment of simplified mining legislation to this end. Also to encourage individual or small-scale prospecting, and to provide assistance and advise for this purpose;

(vii) Preparation for the training of additional geologists, assistant geologists and related scientists in association with the universities, UNESCO, etc. and the encouragement of students to study geology and related subjects;

(viii) To recommend to African universities, through appropriate channels, the establishment of geology and mining departments where these do not already exist;

(ix) Preparations in co-ordination with UNESCO and other specialized agencies concerned, for the setting up of a regional centre for the interpretation of aerial surveys, and another for training in photogrammetry and airborne geophysical prospecting;

(x) Promotion through existing organizations of technical conferences of regional and subregional interest.

(b) **Hydrology and water resources**

(i) Compile, disseminate and analyse information on surface and ground waters in Africa, in collaboration with FAO and other specialized agencies, with the objective of developing availability and utilization of water resources wherever possible through subregional arrangements;

(ii) Recommend through appropriate channels the establishment of hydrology departments in African universities;

(iii) Investigate requirements for subregional training programmes for intermediate grade and subordinate hydrological staff and arrange for such training programmes in co-operation with specialized agencies such as UNESCO and other bodies;

(iv) Arrange fellowship for administrators, engineers, geologists, etc., to enable them to study activities in other countries faced with problems in water resources development comparable to their own; and arrange study tours to other countries for such specialists to visit installations on site;

(v) Promote, in association with other organizations concerned, subregional meetings and symposia for the discussion of common problems in the development of water resources;

(vi) Initiate, in co-operation with the appropriate agencies, investigations of the development of important international waterways and river basins, and promote international co-operation and co-ordination in the development of, for example, transport facilities and hydrological power.

The Working Party of the Whole of the Standing Committee on Industry and Natural Resources noted that the programme of work was extensive in relation to the then existing staff resources and therefore it phased out the programme according to priorities.

The Commission agreed unanimously that the following areas of natural resources be given the greatest emphasis:

(a) **Training and research.** There was the need to co-ordinate activities of African countries in this area in order to utilize fully existing facilities as well as funds available and the secretariat was to raise this issue at and to participate fully in the conference on research and training relating to natural resources in Africa which UNESCO was then planning to organize in 1964;

(b) **Mineral and water resources.** The Commission stressed the need for practical research work in the assessment of mineral and water resources and develop-

ment possibilities, including on-the-spot technical services.

In 1963/64 the secretariat undertook an evaluation of the water needs of African countries and encouraged co-ordinated development of river basins. The secretariat began to assemble basic data on African minerals required for studies on the location of industries. The secretariat actively helped African countries in surveying and mapping, including preparation and utilization of topographic and topical maps for resource development. The United Nations Regional Cartographic Conference for Africa which had been proposed earlier was held in Nairobi, Kenya in July 1963 and it made recommendations aimed at strengthening national cartographic services in Africa and of international technical co-operation to that effect. Another Conference was proposed for 1966.

The secretariat also initiated a series of studies in all forms of energy, including thermal power, hydroelectricity, petroleum and gas. A study on the situation, trends and prospects of electric power supply in Africa was presented to the first African Electric Power Meeting held in October 1963. This meeting was followed by subregional meetings and a regional one on petroleum and natural gas.

The Chairman of the Standing Committee on Industry, Transport and Natural Resources reported on the second session of the Committee to the sixth session of the Commission held from 19 February to 2 March 1964. He reviewed the work done during the year and informed the meeting that conferences were to be held in 1965 on mining legislation, oil and natural gas. The meeting was also informed that a study of ways of combating diamond smuggling had also been included in the programme of work.

During the discussion of the report that followed the Commission expressed its high appreciation of the work done by the Standing Committee and also noted the fact that a study of problems of combating diamond smuggling had also been added to the programme of work.

The work of the secretariat in 1964-1965 centred on water resources, mineral resources and surveying.

In the field of water resources, the secretariat carried out an inquiry together with WMO into the deficiencies of hydrological data in Africa and it also participated in the Lake Chad Basin Commission and the inter-State organization for the Niger river.

The secretariat assisted Governments in the field of mineral resources by helping them in drawing up applications to the Special Fund and making recommendations on technical assistance. Data on African mineral resources continued to be built up.

As a follow-up of the first United Nations Regional Cartographic Conference for Africa, a meeting was held in Addis Ababa in October 1964 to consider the possibilities of establishing centres for training in photogrammetry, airborne geophysical surveying and interpretation of aerial survey data.

The Commission and the UNESCO jointly sponsored and co-operated in the preparations for and servicing of the "International Conference of the Organization of Research and Training in Africa in relation to the Study, Conservation and Utilization of Natural Resources", which was held in Lagos in July and August 1964. A preliminary survey of energy problems in North Africa was carried out with assistance from the secretariat of ECE.

The report presented by the secretariat to the seventh session reviewed the activities of the secretariat since the sixth session and stressed the need for the drawing up of an inventory of natural resources in order not to impede the progress of industrial development.

During the discussion of the report delegates stressed the need for using trained African nationals to carry out the programme. To this end, the delegates expressed their appreciation of the establishment of a training unit within the secretariat and promised to send nominees with the appropriate basic qualifications from their respective countries for further training. The shortage of qualified mining research staff was also noted by the delegates and the secretariat was requested to evaluate the situation and propose remedies.

The importance of the Conference held in Lagos was stressed and attention was drawn to the fact that some pre-independence institutes in the region had equipment and laboratory facilities which could still be used. The secretariat was requested to liaise with member States and ex-metropolitan countries to undertake an inventory of these.

At the end of the discussion the Commission adopted two resolutions one on the need for information on natural resources of the continent [resolution 143 (VII)] and the other on the organization of research and training in Africa [resolution 127 (VIII)].

There was a restructuring of the administration of the secretariat in December 1965 and the Energy and Natural Resources Section which formerly comprised units concerned with energy, minerals, water resources and hydrology was reorganized and upgraded to a division, the Natural Resources and Transport

Division. This Division comprised the Energy and Natural Resources Section, the Transport Section and a Cartographic Unit.

There was significant and encouraging progress in surveying and mapping projects after the seventh session. The recommendations of the meeting of Experts on Regional Centres for Training in Photogrammetry and Airborne Geophysical Surveys and in Interpreting Aerial Surveys held at Addis Ababa in October 1964 were being implemented. Four countries which had made formal offers of sites for the Centres were visited by a survey team. A meeting of experts on joint centres for specialized services in surveying and mapping was held at Addis Ababa from 30 June to 8 July 1965 and recommendations on the scope of the services, requirements of staff and equipment were made. A map documentation and reference centre for Africa was established at the headquarters of the Commission and member countries sent the necessary materials.

Jointly with the World Meteorological Organization a study on major deficiencies in hydrological data in Africa was completed. The secretariat played an active part in the preparatory work which led, with the assistance of the Special Fund, to projects in the development of the Lake Chad basin and certain parts of the Nile basin. Bibliographic data on the Nile basin were completed and one study on the hydraulic development of the Niger River was under preparation. An ECA-Hungarian mission completed a study of the needs for and design of a water resources development institute for the East African subregion.

Special studies on energy on 33 African States were carried out. The studies were communicated to the respective Governments and they were requested to verify and complete the information supplied. A document which dealt with the development of energy in the East African Subregion was prepared whilst other documents were prepared and submitted to the subregional meeting on economic co-operation in West Africa. The documents on West Africa dealt with the possibilities and prospects of co-operation in the field of energy. The meeting adopted a recommendation to establish a subregional organization in co-operation in the field of energy. Studies were made in connection with the organization of proposed subregional meetings on the position, evolutionary trends and development projects for energy in the various subregions and in Africa as a whole.

In all these surveys emphasis was on multinational exploitation of hydropower and its long-distance transmission, rural electrification and small-scale generation of power.

Proposals were made in respect of establishing a regional institute for fuel science and technology and the extent and possible use of geothermal energy was also explored.

Surveys on two African subregions were completed and work was progressing on similar reviews for North and Central Africa. Contacts were made and discussions started on five-year programmes of co-operation with aid from leading institutes outside Africa such as the State Geological Survey of the Federal Republic of Germany (Hanover), the Association of African Geological Surveys (France), the Overseas Geological Surveys (London), the Research Institute for African Geology, University of Leeds (United Kingdom) and the United States Bureau of Mines (Washington).

An enquiry was made into mineral testing facilities in African countries and an outline was prepared for a possible African Minerals Centre for information on mineral exploration and exploitation, applied geological and mining museum, laboratories for day-to-day applied research work in minerals and a training centre. A preliminary review was also made of the education and training of Africans in the fields of geology and mining.

All these activities in the field of natural resources which the secretariat undertook after the seventh session were covered in the report submitted to the Commission at its eighth session which started on 13 February 1967 and ended on 24 February 1967.

In resolution 164 (VIII) adopted after the discussion of the secretariat's report, the Commission welcomed the proposals of the secretariat to establish institutes and training centres in the field of natural resources.

After the eighth session, follow-up activities were continued by the secretariat on preparatory arrangements for an interagency meeting on manpower problems in the field of water resources development in Africa. This work was undertaken together with UNESCO, WHO, WMO and the United States Government. Officials responsible for river basin development in East and North Africa went on a study tour of the United States to visit some of the important organizations and water resources development projects.

The secretariat organized the first subregional meeting on energy from 2 to 4 April 1968 at which recommendations were made to interested Governments in Central Africa to set up immediately a permanent

energy committee. The secretariat helped in drafting a request to the Special Fund of UNDP for the provision of administrative and technical infrastructure for the permanent energy committee.

Zambia requested and was given an adviser to study measures which would enable it to satisfy its needs in electric energy, coal and hydrocarbons fuels, should Southern Rhodesia unilaterally decide to stop supplying Zambia with electricity and coal or should the United Nations request Zambia to apply economic sanctions against Southern Rhodesia. Other areas of energy were also studied during the period.

Work on the compilation and dissemination of information on mineral resources and on studies in Africa's manpower availability and requirements for the extractive industries in 15 African countries and of existing educational and training facilities in the field of geology and mineral resources was completed.

In consultation with the United Nations Legal Counsel a draft inter-governmental agreement establishing a regional centre for training in aerial surveys was drawn up and circulated to members and associate members for their comments. In addition, an *aide-mémoire* on the question of establishing a regional institute for research into all aspects of aerial surveys was prepared and presented to all member States, OAU, FAO and UNESCO for their study and comments.

A report on the status of topographic mapping in Africa was completed whilst the Map Documentation and Reference Centre for Africa received about a thousand maps and charts during the period.

At the ninth session of the Commission, a representative of the secretariat gave a general review of the activities of the secretariat for the period 1967 to 1969. He explained that the general consideration underlying ECA's approach to natural resources development was to extend the knowledge of natural resources available to African countries and the knowledge of what to do with them and how. In a contribution the WMO representative stressed that national meteorological services should be geared to serve the whole national economy. He advised African countries to take full advantage of the World Weather Watch. Commission resolution 196 (IX) was adopted which stressed the importance of meteorological services to economic development and invited member States to adopt the system of the World Weather Watch. Another resolution [205 (IX)] invited member States to set up the institutions and take the necessary steps to explore and develop their natural resources with the help of the secretariat and the United Nations.

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The ideas in the minds of most Delegates to the first ECA Workshop on Community Development were either: social services with an emphasis on self-help projects or rural animation; or Government-organized and directed co-operatives which encouraged mutual aid.

These systems implied the construction of roads and bridges, building of market places and community centres, and digging of wells, or what later came to be called 'the investment of human resources'. The different interpretations of the concept of community development was the result of the practices of the former metropolitan authorities. Services for the welfare of workers were provided in plantations, factories and mines. Education, health and care of families and children were provided mostly by religious missions and voluntary organizations. It is understandable then that the notion of Governments and communities undertaking modern social services should be regarded as something of an innovation.

ECA attempted to approach social reform through community development by tackling the problem from the rural areas where the bulk of the population was to be found and where very little was being done. It was assumed that in the rural areas local institutions and values had not been radically disrupted and it was likely to be easier to graft on to them than to try to reorientate the uprooted inhabitants of urban localities.

The activities of the Community Development Division started with surveys of what existed in different parts of Africa, such as mutual aid societies and women's groups. Looking at the total picture, family and child welfare seemed to provide common ground, and delegates easily agreed to the inclusion of these services in community development. In this way, ECA community development programmes became a system for the collection of information about services which could be co-ordinated and administered in both urban and rural areas.

Early studies showed the important part that women played in social welfare activities and ECA organized a workshop on 'Women in public life'. Many of the participants in this workshop were mature women, wives of nationally prominent judges, merchants, trade union leaders and politicians. The time was November 1960, and during the course of the Workshop, there was an attempted coup d'etat in Addis Ababa, with sounds of gun-shots reverberating

through the mountain air. Many staff members who had gone home for lunch were trapped in the suburbs and could not report for duty for more than 24 hours! Inside the secretariat building, delegates took shelter in the conference rooms or wherever they could. This abrupt exposure to 'public life' was certainly more than anyone had bargained for! During several hours of heavy shooting, staff and delegates were confined within the precincts of the secretariat, which shared a compound with the Ethiopian Army headquarters.

Unfortunately, in the cross-fire, one member of ECA Library lost his life. During a lull in the shooting and before darkness fell, the Executive Secretary, Mr. Mekki Abbas, carrying ECA's blue-and-white United Nations flag, led his staff and the delegates out of the secretariat building to where their cars were parked.

Ethiopian soldiers of both sides held their fire while the little procession passed. That was vivid proof of the measure of regard which the United Nations enjoyed in Ethiopia.

In 1960-1961, the Community Development Branch was attached to the joint ECA/FAO Division and was intended to institute a programme of rural social development in conjunction with agriculture. It started its work with a survey of what was being done so that it could act as a clearing-house for information on the development of rural institutions. Consultants visited several countries and study tours were organized; fellowships were offered to a number of countries and training institutions; and exchanges were made of national experience, not only in community development, but also in social services.

An Annual Standing Committee on Social Welfare and Community Development was organized to enable planners, administrators and technical experts to exchange views on national programmes. Visits were made to survey activities in individual countries. An experiment on the applicability of Community Development techniques to urban areas was tried out in Addis Ababa. A meeting was organized in the Ivory Coast to consider the scope and content of social welfare and the factors holding back development in some of the countries. The difficulties were found to be partly the result of the different models and practices African countries had inherited.

In 1963-1964, the secretariat decided that work should be intensified in such services as:

(a) Studies in infant mortality;

(b) Education of children of school age;

(c) Vocational training programmes and employment;

(d) Health and social security;

(e) The setting up of rural institutions for training village-level workers in consumers' and producers' co-operatives; and

(f) Land settlement programmes.

In all these areas, it was possible for ECA to engage young professionals who could gain experience and skills on the job. Middle-level personnel needed preliminary training before employment and through seminars, workshops, fellowships and training courses the Division sought to assist. One particular effort was a special three-month course which it ran in conjunction with the University of Ghana.

The seventh session of the Commission re-emphasized key aspects of work in social welfare as:

(a) Improvement of rural conditions of living and development of rural institutions;

(b) The organization of social welfare programmes to give prominence to employment, health, nutrition, family, child and youth services in both rural and urban areas; and

(c) Ways of dealing with problems connected with urban and industrial development.

These topics gained the support of FAO, WHO, ILO and UNESCO. Country surveys were conducted in six countries in close collaboration with WHO, ILO and UNESCO; surveys were made in Mali, the Niger and the Upper Volta in order to strengthen agrarian structures. Rural settlement and land reform measures, rural water extension services, nutrition and primary health care were also recommended for serious attention. Emphasis was placed on the problems of contiguous land-locked countries as well as on the need for practical measures for concerted action. An area which continued to attract attention was that of work among women. Assistance was also given to the publication of monographs on 'the social reconstruction of newly independent countries in East Africa' and 'family, child and youth welfare in East Africa'.

Studies continued to be requested by member States. Demands continued to be made for the exchange of information, of experience and of ideas on:

(a) Planning and implementation of programmes to combat unemployment and underemployment of youth;

(b) Planning and implementation of programmes to promote education and skills needed in rural and urban areas;

(c) Schemes for youth and their relationship to rural economic development and youth employment legislation.

The Commission sent participants to a United Nations Interregional Meeting on Criminological Research in Denmark and Sweden.

Work in social affairs included the study of population trends, health education, food and nutrition, housing and education. Starting from community development, basically a rural service, the secretariat managed to follow an African line of approach, combining urban and rural social services in keeping with modern needs.

By 1968 ECA had developed a system of periodic surveys and reappraisals of national community development and social welfare services which made it possible to pin-point areas of productive activity such as:

(a) The women's programme;

(b) Women in social life;

(c) Women in the home;

(d) Women in political life;

(e) Women in rural institutions such as co-operative credit unions;

(f) Women in community development;

(g) Youth education and employment;

(h) Health and mortality rates; and all the factors which make up the index of the quality of life.

* * *

From the very beginning the Commission saw statistics as one of the most important areas needing attention and action. In adopting a provisional programme of work submitted by the secretariat, the Commission stressed that priority should be given to statistical services needed by individual countries or Territories for national purposes. UNESCO was asked to survey facilities available for the training of Africans in economics, statistics and related fields. Should there be a need to create new institutions, the Executive Secretary, in consultation with Governments and appropriate agencies, was to put the matter before the Commission at its next session.

The Executive Secretary was requested to convene a meeting of Experts to assist in drawing up a long-term statistical programme. The experts recommended the establishment of a Conference of African Statisticians to work out the priorities and successive phases of the programme and the first Conference of African Statisticians met in September/October 1959. Seventy-five participants and observers attended, a very encouraging response from the secretariat's point of view, and for the first time a body of African statisticians was formed to concern itself with the development of statistics in Africa. It was decided that each country should prepare, within six to nine months, a programme of statistical development to meet the requirements of economic and social planning. This was to be the beginning of a statistical survey of Africa. A second session was to review the goals of the survey in greater detail, ascertain the needs for assistance and formulate proposals for a programme of co-operation. Training requirements in statistics were reviewed and the Conference recommended that provision should be made for training - demonstration centres and in-service training for junior and middle-grade personnel in particular - as well as arrangements for enlarging the practical experience of senior personnel in specific fields. It was recognized that it might be useful to have a small data-processing unit installed at ECA for training and demonstration purposes.

The secretariat also co-operated with international agencies involved with statistical activities in Africa such as FAO and UNESCO, by exchanging papers at conferences and seminars.

The report of the 1959 Conference of African Statisticians was highly commended by the Commission at its second session. Governments were encouraged to improve their national statistics since statistical data was needed for the preparation of economic and social development programmes. The Commission agreed that training and research should be linked to action on problems of economic and social development and conditions in Africa. To quote from the ECA annual report for 1960-1961:

> "Statistical data for the Economic Bulletin for Africa and for economic studies undertaken by the secretariat were compiled and analysed during

1960. A reference unit has been instituted to collect and collate published statistical information for this and similar purposes. However, the receipts of countries' statistical publications continues to be much delayed, particularly in the field of trade statistics. As a result the statistical tables included in the Bulletin had to be revised and reduced to less ambitious proportions. As the secretariat is mainly dependent upon countries' statistical offices for the supply of up-to-date information, it cannot be over-emphasized that a ready flow of such information is necessary if the secretariat is to give the fullest possible service in the processing of data. Moreover, lack of comparability between national statistics based on different systems presents numerous difficulties. The secretariat proposes to raise this matter at the second Conference of African Statisticians and to ask the Conference to make appropriate recommendations for promoting a greater degree of uniformity in this respect, especially with regard to trade classification, as recommended by the Commission at its second session."

The main task of the Statistics Section, (it was at this stage part of the Research Division together with economic research and social research) was the Statistical Survey of Africa. The ECA annual report for 1961-1962 states:

> "The scope of this project is very wide and involves not only the assessment of statistical progress made in member and associate member countries, but also direct assistance in drawing up statistical development programmes, the establishment of facilities for improving the supply of statistical staff at all levels, by means of training centres and fellowship schemes, the maintenance of a technical advisory service in statistical matters, exchange of information through study tours and seminars, as well as assistance and training in data processing . . . By the time the second Conference of African Statisticians met in mid-1961 nineteen Governments had issued programmes for the expansion and improvement of their statistical services."

As countries became independent they began to appreciate the value of quantitative data for planning purposes and to allocate adequate funds for statistical development.

At the second conference of African Statisticians, the main topic was the training of middle-grade and professional staff, but the Conference also dealt with a number of proposals for statistical publications. As a result the Statistics Section started the compilation and analysis of statistical data for the Economic Bulletin for Africa and a Statistical Handbook. The outcome of a conference on the uses of national accounts as a foundation for economic policy and development programming was that ECA was asked to provide, on request, expert assistance to countries undertaking large-scale development programmes.

The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs initiated a number of projects in the demographic field and the ECA Research Division took a very active part in their execution. Valuable benefits were gained from a case study of arrangements for evaluating and utilizing population census results to show how demographic data could serve as a factual basis for Government policies and action programmes in various fields of economic and social development.

A study tour in connection with the Ghana population census held in Accra in June 1960 in conjunction with the Government furnished participants with practical insights into demographic processes. Two working groups made recommendations on national accounts which were of such relevance that they were circulated to members of the Commission at its third session.

A statistical Newsletter was introduced and the first two issues were published in July 1960 and January 1961.

The second Conference of African Statisticians stimulated activities by working groups of experts as well as several projects for regional co-operation. So highly regarded were the efforts of the Conference of African Statisticians that the Commission publicly expressed its satisfaction with its report and invited members and associate members to 'give urgent consideration to the recommendations of the Conference' while requesting the Executive Secretary to 'give effort' to those recommendations.

In 1962 the Statistics Section became a full Division of the secretariat, in keeping with the increased statistical activities of the Commission. The new Division was divided into two sections - one to co-ordinate current economic and social statistics, and the other to be responsible for statistical development and technical assistance in the region. To achieve its aim the Division drew up a programme covering regional advisory services, active participation in United Nations technical assistance operations in Africa and a programme of training activities.

A new unit was established to work on industrial statistics and keep pace with the statistical requirements of the ECA Division of Industry, Transport and Natural Resources. A Seminar on Industrial Statistics co-sponsored with the Statistical Office of the United Nations was held in Addis Ababa. There was great advance in statistical publications. Two statistical appendices were published as annexes to the Economic Bulletin for Africa and a bulletin entitled 'African Trade Statistics' in two series, 'A', quarterly, and 'B', twice a year, were also published.

A working group on the possibility of adapting the United Nations System of National Accounts for use in Africa was organized and on the basis of the directives given by the working group, work on national accounts for 15 countries was started.

Methodological manuals for submission to the third Conference of African Statisticians were also prepared. These were to deal with problems connected with census and vital statistics under African conditions.

During 1962, training of all levels of statisticians continued to enable newly independent African countries to replace departing expatriate staff with local personnel.

At the fifth session the representative of the secretariat told the delegates in his preliminary remarks before presenting his report that the activities of the secretariat were aimed at promoting the development of national statistical services, at adapting statistical standards to African conditions and at relating the production of statistics to the requirements of national development planning. The secretariat was preparing manuals and handbooks on statistical procedures and methodology, establishment of training facilities, convening of regional and subregional meetings of experts and heads of statistical offices and at the sponsorship of collection, evaluation, processing and dissemination of statistical information, all aimed at achieving these objectives.

He then presented the work programme in statistics, the report of the Seminar on Industrial Statistics, a note on statistical development, the report on regional consultations and the report of the Working Group on the adaptation of the United Nations System of National Accounts for use in Africa.

Discussion of these reports centred on gaps in statistical data, shortage of staff, Conference on African statisticians and subregional meetings and advisory services. It was recommended that the Executive Secretary should seek to expand and arrange for the provision of more training facilities and fellowships to help to alleviate the shortage of staff. On the Conference of African Statisticians the delegates unanimously approved the themes, statistics for planning and co-ordination between the responsible organizations; the importance of the construction of national accounts as a basic instrument of planning; and the need to establish tables of human and physical resources in addition to the conventional financial tables for the Conference.

The delegates recommended that there should be periodic subregional meetings of heads of statistical offices to exchange experience, co-ordinate activities and to evaluate programmes of regional co-operation.

The third Conference of African Statisticians was held in Addis Ababa in October 1963. It dealt with the themes which were approved by the Commission. It is worth noting that the first Conference established a programme of statistical work which covered a period of five years which ended in 1964. As a result of the work of the Conference and of the Statistics Division, statistical services in many African States took shape and it was expected that enough statistical material would be available for use in development planning.

The report of the third Conference of African Statisticians was presented to the sixth session of the Commission. A report summarizing progress in training activities at the national and international statistical training centres in Africa supported or sponsored by the United Nations was also submitted to the Commission. The secretariat reported on its activities in the processing and publication of African statistical data, circulation and exchange of information and regional and subregional co-ordination of statistical work.

The Commission expressed its satisfaction with the efforts made in the field of statistics and considered that the standard achieved by the secretariat in its work was very high. The delegates were of the view that there was an urgent need for revising methods and co-ordinating work to formulate new statistical pro-

grammes of a comprehensive nature. Statistical training programmes were still considered to be of highest priority. The delegates requested that a centre for training middle-level statisticians be established to serve the East African countries and also for the necessary resources to be put at the disposal of the international training centre at Yaounde to enable it to meet the new demands arising from the establishment or development of a course for technical assistants.

The relationship between statistics and planning was discussed and the secretariat informed the Commission that it was preparing a detailed working paper which was to be considered by a group of statisticians and planners in 1965.

The fourth Conference of African Statisticians was scheduled for October 1965 and was to consider questions relating to the training of statistical staff, the 1970 world population census programme and the development of methodology adapted to African conditions in national accounts and other specific fields.

Technical meetings of experts were convened on labour and vital statistics and a study tour on the relation of statistics to planning was conducted for some statisticians in African and European countries. The secretariat prepared three papers in demography as its contributions to the World Population Conference which took place in 1965 and a North African Demographic Centre was established in Cairo.

The seventh session considered the report of the secretariat. The report covered three technical meetings and subregional consultations. The report stressed that the main efforts of the secretariat in 1965 were to be devoted to the preparations for the fourth Conference of African Statisticians on the 1970 World Population Census programme and also to its contribution to the international revision of the United Nations System of National Accounts.

The representatives were satisfied with the programme which had been carried out by the secretariat and adopted resolution 146 (VII) recommending the transformation of the Yaounde statistical training centre into an international statistical training institute for Africa. The representatives expressed satisfaction also on the work done by the secretariat in the field of demography.

During 1965 and 1966, about 80 technical assistance experts engaged with the assistance of the United Nations were sent out to work on various survey projects. FAO, ILO, WHO and UNESCO also provided 60 statistical experts to help some countries in special fields such as the study of tuberculosis and agricultural statistics. Finally, the secretariat organized about 65 missions in 25 African countries as part of the services of regional advisers.

The Working Group of Statisticians and Planners was held in July 1965. The papers produced by this Working Group were used as a basis for the discussions of the fourth Conference of Statisticians which dealt with the subject of the relation between statistics and planning and also made preparatory arrangements for the participation of African countries in the 1970 World Population Census.

An expert group which met in January 1966 recommended the establishment of an Institute of Economic and Social Statistics at Makerere, Uganda. Scholarships were granted to many students to complete various courses in statistics.

A meeting of directors of middle-level statistical training centres held at Addis Ababa suggested that training programmes of these centres should be improved.

The eighth session of the Commission was held in February 1967. Members were informed of the efforts the secretariat was making to improve and develop statistics in Africa. The secretariat had engaged 150 statistical experts and four regional advisers through the United Nations to assist African Governments.

It had also proposed the setting up of a new Institute of Economic and Social Statistics in East Africa for English-speaking countries. Funds were being solicited from UNDP to finance the Yaounde Centre which had become an international institution whose standard had been raised to statistical officer level. A number of working parties had met to discuss ways of improving statistical methodology and its adaptation to the conditions of Africa, especially in the field of national accounts, population and housing censuses and industrial production statistics. In 1967-1968, the programme of the secretariat was to devote attention to household consumption surveys, retail price indices and the training of staff for the World Population Census of 1970. The delegation, whilst discussing the report of the secretariat, recommended an increase in the number of experts and regional advisers, and approved the establishment of an Institute of Economic and Social Statistics in East Africa. They hoped that the secretariat would be successful in its efforts to secure funds for the Yaounde centre and urged the Executive Secretary to disseminate any new information on procedures used in other regions that was received.

The ninth session of the Commission, held in 1969, marked the tenth anniversary of the Commission. The secretariat reported that the period 1967-1969 had been devoted mainly to the continuation and development of already established projects. It had organized a number of seminars and working papers on national accounts, labour statistics, sampling methods, population and housing censuses and income distribution statistics. A new project introduced during the period was the publication of a quarterly Statistical Bulletin for Africa which was aimed at distributing information and at the same time drawing attention to gaps in African data requiring urgent attention. Work was also started on the computerization and development of the Statistical Yearbook.

Even though delegates appreciated the work of the experts, they stressed the need for countries to train their professional statistical staff as rapidly as possible to replace them, since statistics in Africa was a discipline relevant to all fields of development.

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During the first session of the Commission, countries and Territories of West Africa presented concrete proposals for initiating measures in areas from which they could derive mutual benefit by increasing economic contacts with each other.

The programme of work requested the Executive Secretary to prepare a study on the impact of the European Economic Community on the trade of African States. The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs prepared the study on the impact of the European Economic Community on the trade of African States and presented it to the second session. The report stated that it was too early to assess the impact of the European Economic Community on African trade.

The consensus view of the delegates expressed in Commission resolution 7 (II) was that the problem required a broader and more thorough analysis. They requested the Executive Secretary to conduct studies and to convene an *ad hoc* Committee in 1960 of representatives of members and associate members. The Department of Economic and Social Affairs presented to the second session the "Economic Survey of Africa since 1950". During the discussion of this document members of the Commission made it known that they attached great importance to the international stabilization of commodity prices. This, in their view, would alleviate their balance-of-payments difficulties and reduced their dependency on the external world.

The Commission adopted resolution 8 (II) on intra-african trade and convening of a conference of African businessmen which requested the Executive Secretary to initiate and complete surveys of the state and potentialities of intra-African trade and industry and the resources necessary to stimulate and advance both.

At the end of the second session, the Commission approved a programme of work and priorities for 1960-1961 which included a request to the secretariat to initiate studies of regional trade arrangements already in existence or contemplated in areas other than Western Europe and of international action to stabilize commodity prices.

In response to these requests, the Executive Secretary prepared a report on the impact of West European integration on African trade and development, a study on the significance of recent Common Market developments in Latin America and a report on international action to stabilize commodity prices. In addition, foreign trade developments and problems were described and analysed for publication in the first issue of the Economic Bulletin for Africa.

At the third session the Commission expressed concern at the deteriorating prices of primary exports in relation to the prices of industrial goods. The wide fluctuation in commodity prices was inhibiting the growth of many African economies which were dependent on one or two primary exports for their foreign exchange earnings.

The Commission resolved to request the Executive Secretary to call a meeting of African primary producing countries to consider the position of agricultural commodities of main interest to them and on which action was most urgently required; and requested him further to place before that meeting detailed studies on the stabilization of the prices of those commodities. The proposed meeting was to make recommendations for further study and concerted action on price stabilization to the Commission and to Governments concerned [see Commission resolution 25 (III)]. Moreover, resolution 29 (III) expressed the hope that the group of experts set up by General Assembly resolution 1433 (XIV) would submit constructive proposals to the Commission on international commodity trade and to the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations.

The secretariat also presented to the third session a paper on the effects of European economic groupings on African economies. The paper drew the attention of the Commission to latest developments in the field of

African trade and co-operation and, particularly, to meetings at Rome and Dakar aimed at laying the foundation of an African economic co-operation grouping limited to French-speaking States. Delegates from some countries not associated with the European Economic Community were concerned not only with the effects of the Treaty of Rome on their commodity exports to EEC countries but also about possible harmful effects which such association might have in the long run on the economies of the associated countries themselves.

The Executive Secretary informed the meeting that the secretariat would follow carefully these and other developments aimed at subregional groupings based on linguistic or political affiliations. Groupings of this type, in the view of the secretariat, were useful starting points towards economic co-operation on a broader geographical basis.

In conclusion, the Executive Secretary emphasized that the secretariat would undertake research into trade problems, particularly the various preferential systems affecting Africa. It would follow further developments in the West European and other economic groupings and study the long-term trade policy problems they entailed. The Commission unanimously adopted resolution 28 (II) which set up a Standing Committee on Trade. The Executive Secretary was to organize, under the auspices of this Committee, Working Parties to deal with trade problems of special subregional interest.

Finally the Commission approved the following areas of international trade as part of the 1961-1962 programme of work and priorities:

(a) Study of the problems and prospects of the foreign trade of West African countries, with special reference to trade with African countries and to possible ways of promoting intra-African trade in industrial and other products;

(b) Studies of the impact of regional trade arrangements in Europe on the trade and development of African countries and Territories and measures which might be taken to offset any harmful effects of such arrangements;

(c) Studies of regional trade arrangements in other areas, including the significance of experience gathered in such areas to economic co-operation in Africa;

(d) Studies of preferential systems linking countries and Territories in Africa with non-African countries, particularly the Commonwealth preferences and preferential arrangements between Portugal and Spain and their respective Territories;

(e) Studies of trade relations between the African region and other parts of the world;

(f) Establishment of a Standing Committee on Trade;

(g) Studies of monetary systems in Africa with special reference to the impact on intra-African trade and African economic development.

Under the auspices of the Standing Committee on Trade a working party on customs administration in West Africa was convened. A meeting of representatives of African primary producing countries was also arranged by the secretariat assisted by the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations, the Economic Commission for Europe and some consultants.

At the fourth session held in February 1962, the report of the Working Party on Customs Administration was introduced by the Executive Secretary. He noted that most African countries had small domestic markets which hampered diversification of production and industrialization and that they would have to co-ordinate their efforts if they were to influence the course of their economic growth. There was further discussion on the possible effects of the European Economic Community on African countries' trade and development. Delegates from the associated countries were of the view that their relations with the Community did not imply that they had to sever connections with other African countries. They favoured intra-African co-operation but they could not afford to ignore the advantages to be secured through stabilization of proceeds from exports of primary products within the framework of the association. Resolution 57 (IV) entitled "Incidence of European economic groupings on inter-African trade" was adopted. The resolution requested the Executive Secretary to undertake a study defining the conditions under which all the exporting and importing countries concerned could organize, by international action, markets for the principal commodities of interest to Africa so as to improve and extend the results already obtained by all African countries concerned.

In September 1962, the first session of the Standing Committee on Trade was held and was attended by 62 participants and observers. The Standing Committee dealt with three main documents: recent developments in African trade; European integration and African trade; and African trade with centrally planned economies.

On intra-African trade the Committee was of the view that a means should be found for co-ordinating the projects and programmes of the Standing Committee on Trade, the Working Party and the Standing Committee on Industry and Natural Resources. It was noted that prospects of exports of African products to Asia were bright.

The Committee discussed the report of the African meeting on commodity stabilization and agreed that efforts should be made to stop the downward trend in commodity prices in view of the dependence, for economic development, of most countries on income derived from export of primary products. The Executive Secretary, following the recommendations of the Standing Committee, made contacts with the International Chamber of Commerce to obtain assistance in the preparations necessary for an African trade fair; circulated questionnaires to Governments in preparation for a thorough study of long-term trade and agreements in Africa; and circulated to Governments publications and periodicals on commercial matters to assist them in establishing or improving their national economic intelligence units.

In 1962, three issues of the Foreign Trade Newsletter were published. The first issue covered integration endeavours among African countries in 1961, the second gave a review of significant developments in the tariff field, and the third was a statistical review of intra-African trade flows.

The secretariat also organized a meeting of African primary producing countries in accordance with resolution 25 (III) of the Commission at its third session. The meeting considered the position of Agricultural export commodities of interest to Africa. The main conclusion drawn from the discussions was that the problems facing African countries in the commodity field should be approached on a world-wide basis.

At the fifth session the secretariat presented the report of the first session of the Standing Committee on Trade (E/CN.14/174), an information paper on recent developments in Western European economic groupings (E/CN.14/207) and a report of the African meeting on commodity stabilization (E/CN.14/205). It was stressed during the discussions that the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development provided an excellent opportunity for concerted African action and the Executive Secretary was to give all possible assistance. The discussions resulted in a resolution 86 (V) on an African common market which noted the need for an African common market and requested the Executive Secretary to initiate intensive studies on major problems connected with this. In accordance with the resolution the secretariat in 1963 prepared a document on necessary steps towards an African common market (E/CN.14/STC/20) for consideration by the Standing Committee on Trade and Development at its second session.

At the second session of the Standing Committee on Trade and Development the problem of improving intra-African trade with particular attention to the possibility of creating an African common market was the major area considered. The secretariat summed up the position of African countries in a document (E/CN.14/279) for the members of the Commission.

Documents on intra-African trade, trade in African development plans and projections of African trade were also prepared for the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) held in Geneva in 1964. The secretariat started regular courses and in-service training in customs administration and commercial policy.

The Commission held its sixth session in March 1964. Resolution 97 (VI) which expressed the conviction of the Commission of the unique importance of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development and the necessity of establishing a concerted African policy was unanimously adopted. Another resolution [98 (VI)] was adopted which called on all members and associate members of the Commission to consider measures which would ensure the full and complete participation of Africans in the wholesale and retail trade of their respective countries. This was to be facilitated by the establishment of indigenous commercial banks which would grant sufficient credit to Africans engaged in trade.

For the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development the secretariat prepared three papers and its team, led by the Deputy Executive Secretary, was assigned to the conference services and the co-ordination committee of the African countries which participated in the Conference and the co-ordinating committee of the Group of 77 developing countries. At the end of the Conference the secretariat prepared a document (E/CN.14/316) drawing attention to certain of its broad implications for African countries. The secretariat throughout the year assisted a number of countries in the transposition of their tariffs to the Brussels Tariff Nomenclature and organized training courses in the field of trade, commercial policy and customs administration.

At the seventh session of the Commission held in February 1965, the secretariat presented its reports on the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development and intra-African trade. The delegates said that even though the Conference did not satisfy their expectations it was a long step forward. There was some hope in view of the consensus achieved on trade, financial and development policies by the 77 developing nations represented at the Conference. The delegates resolved by resolution 135 (VII) that the Executive Secretary should co-operate with the Administrative Secretary-General of OAU in facilitating the work of the *ad hoc* committee of 14 members established by the Economic and Social Commission of OAU to study and recommend the position to be adopted by African members of the UNCTAD Trade and Development Board on the results of the Conference. The subject of intra-African trade was discussed again and there was general agreement that it should be given first priority by the secretariat. The secretariat was to set up a Technical Committee for the drawing up of plans for subregional and inter-subregional trade, and was also to draw up a list of commodities for which African free trade arrangements could be agreed upon in the near future.

After the seventh session the secretariat prepared a preliminary study identifying a list of commodities which appeared to have immediate prospects of increasing trade in West Africa and submitted it to a subregional meeting on economic co-operation. The secretariat devoted a lot of time to research activities on external and intra-African trade. Papers were prepared on this subject for two joint meetings of the ECA Working Party on Intra-African Trade and for the OAU *ad hoc* Committee of Fourteen on Trade and Development held in 1966. The first meeting of the joint ECA/OAU Working Party on Trade was held from March to April 1966 and concerned itself with a general review of activities in trade and customs. It also held an extraordinary meeting in Geneva in August 1966 to discuss the African position at UNCTAD and requested that the following points be placed on the agenda for the Conference: the question of the position of the less developed among the developing countries; and the establishment of export-oriented industries in Africa.

The secretariat, in its report to the eighth session of the Commission, reviewed trends in African trade during the first half of the Development Decade. The review indicated that the bulk of African exports were made up of 20 raw materials and that petroleum was increasingly taking a greater share in the export trade. The secretariat noted that trade agreements signed between African countries and developed countries did not conform to the provisions of part IV of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT). A ministerial meeting of GATT had recommended the elimination of tariffs on tropical products but this had not been implemented by 1967. The Kennedy Round also had made little headway in lowering tariffs. The secretariat recommended that African countries should put in a special effort if any results were to be achieved.

Delegates agreed to the decision that developing countries should meet in advance of the second UNCTAD meeting scheduled for New Delhi. The secretariat was urged to co-operate in convening a meeting of African countries also before the meeting. It was hoped that the second UNCTAD meeting would lead to greater achievements than the first. Resolutions 165 (VII) on trade and finance and 167 (VIII) on the needs of land-locked States in the matter of transit trade were adopted. The Executive Secretary was invited to take the necessary steps to ensure that all member States signed the International Convention on Transit Trade of Land-Locked States and effectively implemented it.

In the report for 1968/1969 presented to the ninth session, the Commission was informed that the secretariat had continued to devote most of its trade activities to aspects of external trade expansion and intra-African trade. The secretariat had prepared a major review of the situation in Africa's international trade, including the question of tariffs and problems related to the Kennedy Round of tariff negotiations. This review was a prelude to the ministerial meeting of the Group of 77 developing countries held prior to the second session of UNCTAD.

The secretariat informed the Commission that UNCTAD did not achieve meaningful results. A plan of action for African countries presented by the joint meeting of the ECA Working Party on Intra-African Trade and the OAU Expert Committee on Trade and Development was placed before the Commission and delegates agreed that the plan should be included in the programme of work and priorities of the Commission. The secretariat drew the attention of the Commission to the fact that even though a new part IV of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade had been adopted in 1964 the undertakings given in respect of tropical products had failed and negotiations for a cocoa agreement were in deadlock.

Since the eighth session, the East African Community had been established and five other countries had applied to join. Progress had been made in the

West African regional group and the North African subregion had also moved towards a form of association. Delegates agreed that if intra-African trade was to be promoted the following steps would have to be taken:

(a) Organization of African trade fairs;

(b) Improvement of transport and communications;

(c) Encouragement of trade missions and the conclusion of bilateral trade agreements under which African Governments would grant special concessions to each other;

(d) Formation of an African Chamber of Commerce; and

(e) Establishment of some mechanism for payment.

The delegates also agreed to the early establishment of a regional Trade Promotion Centre within ECA. This Centre was to co-operate with other United Nations agencies engaged in trade promotion and co-ordinated programmes for the African region. Finally the delegates requested the secretariat to continue studies on problems of invisible trade, in particular shipping and freight rates.

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The Commission approved a programme of work and priorities for the secretariat at its first session and one of the areas to be given priority was that of transportation in Africa.

At the second session the subject of transport appeared again as 'studies of selected problems of transport in Africa, with emphasis on transport deficiencies as obstacles to economic development and on the ways of removing these deficiencies'. In its report on transport problems in West Africa in relation to economic development presented to the third session, the secretariat stressed the fact that there was no fully integrated transport system in any part of Africa. Existing systems were designed to serve foreign trade rather than domestic markets. The report concluded by recommending that there should be a study of secondary roads and intraregional road links. Suggestions for future action in the field of transport were presented as an information paper at the same session. The delegates accepted the recommendations made for action to improve existing systems.

A conference on African air transport sponsored jointly by the Commission and ICAO was held in 1960 to establish closer co-operation between African airlines. The ICAO representative pointed out that since Africa lacked surface transport, air transport was very important. At the end of the discussion the delegations adopted resolution 32 (III). This requested a meeting of ministers of transport and ministers of works and of the appropriate inter-State bodies in West Africa to be convened in 1961 to discuss the general lines on which the subregional transport network should be developed and the possibility of the standardization of vehicle legislation and signalling.

In response to this resolution, the first West African Transport Conference was organized in Monrovia in October 1961. The Conference recommended that it should be constituted into a permanent body and that a seminar to consider specific problems such as soil stabilization in roads, concrete surfacing and the use of local materials should be held.

The report of the Conference (E/CN.14/147 and Corr.1), which was submitted to the Commission at its fourth session, stressed the need for concerted action to develop various forms of transport, bearing in mind that some countries were land-locked and Africa did not have many good ports. The representatives of ICAO and ITU informed the Commission that their organizations would assist ECA in carrying out studies in their fields of competence. The delegates adopted two resolutions. One, resolution 60 (IV), provided that the projected West African subregional office of the Commission should give special attention to development within the subregion of an integrated transportation and communication system, and should convene a meeting of heads of transport and communications organizations in the Governments concerned to prepare a programme of work envisaged for the permanent body. The other, resolution 61 (IV), stated that the Executive Secretary should conduct a study and assessment of the technical and economic problems and means of financing transport facilities. North African countries then suggested that a trans-Saharan transport system should be considered.

The annual report of the Commission for 1962-1963 showed that much progress was made during the year in the collection of statistical and other data on transport by sea, air, road and rail.

At the second session the Commission had requested the Executive Secretary to prepare a study of East African transport problems. As a result, a Conference on East African Transport Problems was held in October/November 1962 at which the secretariat presented nine documents and working papers. The Conference examined regional traffic and traffic control, studied the need for co-ordination of the various

modes of transport and considered arrangements for a subregional highway network.

An ECA transport economist and a civil engineer visited countries in West Africa and discussed the work to be done on transport when the subregional office of the Commission in Niamey was opened.

At the fifth session of the Commission the report on the East African Transport Conference was presented ((E/CN.14/193). The Commission noted with satisfaction the creation of a Transport Section within the secretariat. It reiterated its wish that studies undertaken by the secretariat should be directed towards the solution of practical problems. A comprehensive report on the problems of transportation across the Sahara was to be prepared with the assistance of experts from countries bordering on the Sahara for presentation to the sixth session of the Commission. ICAO was to assist the secretariat in its studies on the development and co-ordination of African air transport facilities.

The Chairman of the Standing Committee on Industry, Transport and Natural Resources presented the report of the Transport Section to the sixth session. Special mention was made of subregional studies in progress and the decision of the Standing Committee to add maritime transport to the programme.

Between March 1964 and February 1965 the secretariat completed a preliminary survey of inland transport in West Africa and launched preinvestment studies based on the survey. A committee of four countries assisted by United Nations consultants surveyed the possibilities of establishing a *prima facie* case for a transport link across the Sahara. Teams were provided by bilateral donor agencies for these studies.

The secretariat presented a report on its activities for the period 1963-1964 to the seventh session held in February 1965. Among other items the report covered the studies done at subregional, regional and national levels and the Meeting on African Air Transport held in November 1964. In accepting the recommendations put forward by that Meeting, the delegates also requested the Executive Secretary to accelerate studies on road works and railroads and suggested that Working Parties of Experts should be set up to study transport requirements. The possibilities of obtaining funds to promote transport studies from the Special Fund of the United Nations and other financial institutions was another matter the delegates asked the Executive Secretary to investigate.

The Commission accepted the recommendations of the African Air Transport Conference of November 1964 for the establishment of subregional African airlines in view of the financial burden imposed on Governments operating national airlines. Two resolutions were adopted dealing with the subjects of an integrated transport network, and the building of the United Republic of Tanzania-Zambia railway link [resolutions 147 (VII) and 149 (VII) respectively].

In introducing the discussion on transport at the eighth session the Executive Secretary informed the Commission of the main aspects of inland transport on which work was proceeding. These were the development of feeder roads designed to enlarge and integrate national markets; improvement of Government machinery for transport development; the availability and effectiveness of research on road materials; and design and construction methods. A survey covering maritime problems in East Africa and progress on subregional cooperation among East African shipping lines had been carried out and the secretariat had also arranged training for African personnel in the shipping industry. A study on transit problems of land-locked African States, summarizing the existing transit facilities in East and West Africa which had already been circulated to member States was to be used as a background paper by the United Nations Conference on Transit Trade of Land-locked States. A mission had been organized in 1966 by the secretariat to examine a wide range of problems in transport development in West Africa, such as standardization and maintenance of international road links; and the status of road research and the application of its findings in the African region These subjects were to be studied in more detail using bilateral assistance. The secretariat had completed a preliminary study on differences in technical standards of African railways and had rendered advisory services to Ghana on the reorganization of its railways.

The secretariat informed the Commission that it had prepared several papers on problems of transportation for subregional meetings on economic co-operation as well as for a Symposium on Industrial Development in Africa. In the discussion that ensued, delegates suggested that detailed studies on specific rail links should be prepared with a view to their implementation and requested further study on air transport on the basis of share capital subscription.

Two resolutions were adopted at the end of the proceedings. Resolution 159 (VIII) requested the Executive Secretary and the President of ICAO, in cooperation with the Administrative Secretary-General of OAU, to call a meeting to arrange an African Air Transport Conference. Resolution 160 (VIII) requested the Executive Secretary to convene, before June 1968, a Conference of African Experts on Maritime Trans-

port to examine a report on the effects of the monopoly of a few shipping and maritime transportation companies on the foreign trade of African countries. Member States and specialized agencies of the United Nations were to provide the Executive Secretary with all the necessary information and assistance needed for the Conference.

COMRADE WOLLIE CHEKOL,

Minister of Foreign Trade of
Socialist Ethiopia

The 1950s marked a lapse in the colonial era and the beginning of an intensified struggle of African countries for political independence. The latter part of the 1950s further witnessed the emergence of the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), with heavy responsibilities for the development of the continent.

Since its establishment in 1958, ECA, aware of the fact that economic co-operation is essential for providing a suitable framework for a meaningful appraisal of the problems of African countries to ensure collective self-reliance and self-sustained development, has vigorously motivated the development aspirations of African countries.

It is to be recalled that the decade of the 1960s was an era for the birth of many independent countries in Africa. As Africa shaped itself anew, the last quarter of the 1960s and the beginning of the 1970s witnessed the most constructive period in the economic co-operation of the region. This was an era where a number of economic groupings were established. Unfortunately, however, the scope and objective of such initiatives were not formulated in a manner that could enhance trade and economic co-operation among African countries. Rather, it was a situation which further strengthened socio-economic ties with the former colonial masters and their associates and led many African countries to be exploited.

The birth of ECA was, therefore, a particular event, in that it became a common working forum for African countries to further accelerate their struggle to attain economic independence by way of consolidating political independence together with economic reconstruction. From the start of its establishment ECA has drawn adequate attention towards building the necessary infrastructure for the socio-economic development of the continent.

In this regard one may take into account the stock of activities that ECA has carried out since its establishment. In particular, the formulation and adoption of Africa's Strategy for Development in the 1970s must be well remembered. This Strategy analysed economic problems of Africa in the context of underdevelopment and the international economic crisis. Further, the Strategy called, among other things, for the integration of Africa's economies as a matter of priority in order to attain the development objectives of that Strategy. ECA has made a number of recommendations and has carried out various studies through conferences, meetings, seminars and symposiums which have underscored the uniting role. As a defender of Africa's economic interest and in an effort to consolidate and facilitate a scheme of regional co-operation for the attainment of multinational development ventures, ECA has been involved on a number of constructive activities.

The contemporary idea of intra-African co-operation was most clearly manifested in an all-African context. It was in this respect that African Heads of State and Government adopted the approach for economic co-operation among African countries as stipulated in the Charter of OAU.

In various meetings held to consider the formation of an African payments union as a prelude to the establishment of an African common market, it became evident that a subregional scale of action would be required at the initial stage because of the numerous problems such as transport and communications, appropriate information, the diversity of

economic and social policies that were followed by the African countries and other factors related thereto. Therefore, ECA, in co-operation with OAU, had to approach the problems systematically and in a more co-ordinated manner by way of setting up appropriate institutions for regional and subregional co-operation schemes and then to tackle African economic problems through these arrangements.

A cursory review of the various economic co-operation schemes revealed that they fell short of original expectations owing to a number of serious difficulties. In this regard, one of the major obstacles towards the establishment of a common market for the region was lack of institutional machinery and political will, and also lack of an effective co-ordinating mechanism for joint development of the various economic resources of the region.

The aspiration for economic co-operation in the countries of the Eastern and Southern African subregion was set in motion when ECA convened a subregional meeting on economic co-operation in Lusaka, Zambia, in 1965. At that time, the meeting recommended to the Governments of the subregion the creation of an economic community, which gradually developed and made possible the emergence of the Preferential Trade Area (PTA) for Eastern and Southern African countries as a first step towards establishing a common market and eventually an economic community.

In the Central African subregion, a meeting on economic co-operation was held in 1966 and recommended that the Heads of State and Government of the subregion set up a ministerial committee to consider institutional arrangement for economic co-operation in the subregion.

As regards the West African subregion, articles of association establishing an interim Council of Ministers were signed at a meeting in 1967 and that constituted a treaty binding on its signatories.

African States have, from time to time, called for a more co-ordinated approach to the provision of technical assistance in order to relate such assistances to the priorities and development strategy of the countries of the region. By decentralizing its activities, ECA has not only assumed greater responsibilities but has gone far ahead as a forum to assist African countries in the fields of regional and subregional economic development, co-operation and integration. It has further become a motive force in executing envisaged measures of development and co-operation.

The decision of the fourth meeting of the Conference of Ministers and the thirteenth session of ECA to do away with the former United Nations Development Advisory Teams (UNDATs) and replace them with the Multinational Programming and Operational Centres (MULPOCs) with their own legislative organs at official and ministerial levels has proved to be worthwhile. The MULPOCs are now becoming effective operational arms of ECA and, indeed, focal institutions for subregional and regional economic co-operation and integration.

ECA has also sponsored the establishment of lake and river basin commissions and has taken active steps to develop a network of Trans-African highways and a Pan-African Telecommunications Network.

ECA has been active in the formation of the Association for the Advancement of Agricultural Sciences in Africa. In addition, it has made significant contributions towards the formation of the African Training and Research Centre for Women, thus advancing the integration of their activities in development.

ECA has helped African countries to create the Association of African Trade Promotion Organizations and the African Regional Organization for Standardization. In 1977, the ECA Conference of Ministers endorsed the decision for the creation of a regional remote sensing satellite ground station for data processing. In addition, the Pan-African Documentation and Information System which is expected to document and analyse statistical information is in the process of being established under the aegis of ECA.

Through its network of MULPOCs, ECA has intensified its assistances to member States on various subregional development projects. A few examples of these are the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), the Association of African Central Banks, the African Purchasing and Supply Organization, the Preferential Trade Area (PTA) for Eastern and Southern African States, etc.

During the Second United Nations Development Decade in the 1970s, ECA made useful assessments of the progress achieved by individual African countries in the light of the goals and objectives envisaged in the International Development Strategy for African economic and social development.

ECA has contributed a number of studies which were published in the Revised framework of princi-

ples for the implementation of the new international economic order in Africa 1976, 1981, 1986, which led to the establishment of an Economic Co-operation Office of ECA to effectively and exclusively follow the subject of economic co-operation of the continent.

In March 1977, African Ministers met in Kinshasa and approved the years (1978-1988) as a Transport and Communications Decade in Africa as part of the strive to launch the new international economic order in Africa and also in line with the recommendation of the tenth OAU session that adopted the "African Declaration on Co-operation, Development and Economic Independence".

It is also worth noting that resolutions on co-operation and co-ordination in relation to transport and communications in Africa adopted at the eleventh session of the Conference of Heads of State and Government of OAU in June 1974 which stated that the whole issue and problems of transportation in Africa must primarily be considered in terms of trade and economic co-operation laid the fundamental basis for regional economic integration. It was this same concern that led the 1979 Conference of Ministers of ECA in Rabat to adopt a resolution on the Transport and Communications Decade in Africa.

The industrial development programme of ECA is a further reflection of the objectives that emerge from the framework of principles for the implementation of the new international economic order in Africa on the basis of the aspirations of African States in order to raise the standard of living of their people through greater self-reliance at subregional and regional levels of co-operation.

In conclusion, it must be noted that African countries, through their regional institutions, in particular ECA and OAU, have repeatedly expressed their determination to take measures aimed at overcoming the adverse effects of fragmentation. Economic co-operation and eventual integration to tackle the problems of underdevelopment in the continent must remain the noble objectives of our institutions.

In the years ahead it is essential that African countries should be more active and alert to further defend their economic interests by strengthening regional institutions such as ECA and by also setting up new institutions in line with the Lagos Plan of Action and the Final Act of Lagos which call, *inter alia*, for collective policies and projects at all levels of economic activity.

MR. ROBERT J. OUKO,
Minister for Foreign Affairs of Kenya

It is a welcome historical coincidence that ECA was born about the same time as African countries were beginning, in rapid succession, to extricate themselves from the shackles of colonial bondage. Invariably, it was necessary to match political emancipation with the equally fundamental requirements of economic transformation for the elimination of the scourges of hunger, disease and poverty. ECA, like its sister organizations in other regions, has been a major vehicle for promoting such socio-economic development and progress in Africa since 29 April 1958, when it was established. At that time, there were only eight independent African States compared to 50 member States currently served by the Commission.

Looking back today, I am sure that the progress made by the Commission will certainly elate the hearts of many of those men of good will, in and outside the continent, who not only advocated but worked tirelessly for its establishment. For not only has the geographical coverage of the services of the Commission increased significantly, but also the scope and magnitude of the work for the promotion of economic development, co-operation and integration undertaken by it has grown remarkably over the years.

On my part, I have followed with keen interest and appreciation this progress of the Commission from as far back as February 1963 in my capacity then as an Assistant Secretary in the External Affairs Branch of the then Governor's Office. Subsequently, as Permanent Secretary, I attended the seventh session of ECA held in Nairobi in 1965 as a member of the Kenyan delegation which was led by the late Tom Mobya, then Minister of Economic Planning, who was Chairman of the session. I also fondly remember that, as Minister for Common Market and Economic Affairs, I led the East African Community delegation to the twelfth session of ECA in Nairobi in 1975, when His Excellency Mwai Kibaki, now Vice-President of Kenya, was unanimously elected Chairman of the session.

Of these and other contacts, perhaps the most significant and endearing, as far as the current status of development activities and programmes of ECA in the countries of the region is concerned, has been the one in connection with the fourteenth session of the Commission and fifth meeting of the Conference of Ministers held at Rabat, Morocco, from 20 to 28 March 1979. At its 197th meeting, the Conference unanimously elected me First Vice-Chairman. I was then Minister for Economic Planning and Community Affairs of Kenya.

It was at this Rabat Conference that the States members of the Commission formulated the framework and fundamental structure of the now famous Lagos Plan of Action for the economic transformation of African economies and the survival of her peoples. This basic structure, which I had the privilege and honour to help in drafting, was the *Strategy for the African Region in the International Development Strategy for the Third United Nations Development Decade* which was later christened the Monrovia Strategy for the Development of Africa. At that time member States welcomed, as they continue to do now, the new orientation, especially since 1975, in the work programme and activities of the Commission particularly "its involvement in and dedication to African development, its efforts in promoting economic co-operation and integration in Africa, its

success in the implementation of the Africanization policy of the secretariat" as spelt out in the Conference of Ministers resolution 373 (XIV) which clearly commends the work of the secretariat.

As one of the architects of this resolution, I was convinced then as I am now, that this commendation of ECA has significance not just in terms of what it had achieved at that time but more in terms of what it could do in the future. Those who are conversant with recent developments in the activities of the secretariat know fully well that the Monrovia Strategy was the incarnation of the Lagos Plan of Action and the Final Act of Lagos which was assiduously and imaginatively developed by ECA in collaboration with OAU, and has since become the blue print for the economic transformation of Africa.

Since developing the Plan, ECA has continued to nurture its implementation by executing related work programmes, especially in the three critical areas of food and agriculture, transport and communication and industrial development and, more importantly, through support and encouragement to African countries to ensure the internalization of the goals and objectives of the Plan within their national development strategies and activities. In this respect, therefore, I envisage a brighter future for African development and I call upon ECA to redouble its present efforts to rid this continent of poverty and misery so that by the end of this century all of Africa may enjoy a more abundant life for its people.

MRS. DELPHINE TSANGA,

Chairperson of the Africa Regional Co-ordinating Committee for the Integration of Women in Development

As it does every year, ECA will once again think back to its establishment. 1983 will have special significance because it is the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Commission which was established even before the tide of independence by the late Dag Hammarskjold, the then United Nations Secretary-General. He described the birth of ECA as marking "the moment when Africa began to assume its full role in the world community".

By its resolution 671 (XXV) of 29 April 1958, the United Nations Economic and Social Council provided the African continent with an instrument for economic and social development whose aim was to heighten independent African countries' awareness of the socio-economic development problems of their countries, regions and the continent as a whole.

When it was established, the Commission had nine member States; today, its membership has swollen to 50 States. As Africa's first continent-wide organization, it provided the only forum where Africans could combat the vicissitudes of colonialism and neo-colonialism in order to win the economic battle which would succeed the political battle. Thus, on the international scene ECA was seen as the defender of the economic interests of independent African States.

Its role therefore consists in designing and implementing economic and social development programmes.

To attain its objectives and live up to expectations, ECA's structures and functions are designed in such a way that it can serve as:

(a) A centre for consultations where Governments can express themselves freely and work out what forms their co-operation should take;

(b) An institution where the economic needs of the African peoples can be expressed and which will design measures and promote ways and means of satisfying such needs;

(c) An institution which will provide countries and regional groupings and subgroupings with a package of technical services for carrying out in-depth studies on common problems;

(d) A well-organized institution for the exchange of information and experience which is also responsible for carrying out a critical analysis of such information;

(e) An institution which will establish close links with the various United Nations programmes and the specialized agencies of the United Nations.

The means of attaining the foregoing objectives are seen as set programmes on the one hand and on the other hand the various agencies established within the Commission to elaborate future objectives such as taking up the challenge of the year 2000 or, in other words, providing African States with sound and self-sustaining economies. In that connection, four priority programmes have been selected, including one on the integration of women in the development process.

The role of women is changing in society throughout the world. ECA had the merit, as a regional commission, to tackle women's problems very early on and to understand that Africa cannot be developed without its women.

Since ECA sees development as a comprehensive process which requires the participation of all available human resources, it has realized that African women who constituted a reservoir of talents, energy and initiatives in pre-colonial society had suffered considerably from the effects of colonization.

For a long time (and this is still true in many countries) politicians were happy just to think like the settlers, forgetting that African women had a well-defined place which set them apart from men without making them in any way inferior; for that reason, they had their role to play in many societies and their own personality. After exploiting women to achieve decolonization, they quickly relegated them to oblivion to avoid having to compete with them in sharing out political power.

The result was that women were shunted away from development and lost any initiative in economic life.

The women's liberation movement which swept through Europe had an impact on the whole world. In Africa as elsewhere, after the political struggle, ECA thought about integrating women in the economic scene.

To ensure that women's problems were better appreciated, ECA established the African Training and Research Centre for Women (ATRCW). The Centre's tasks were to carry out research and organize training and information seminars for women. Already, through the Centre's activities, some visible changes in direction were appearing in the role of women and Africa had a viable operational programme.

Major burning issues of the day such as education, employment, health, legal structures, politics and communications media were discussed everywhere.

Women quickly became more aware of the need to be better organized. Discussions held at the international level brought home to the international community the inequalities that existed with request to the status of people throughout the world.

The First World Conference of the International Women's Year held at Mexico recommended that the various regions should establish national, subregional and regional machineries to deal with women's problems, the most underprivileged beings on earth.

Two years later in 1977, ECA organized the First Regional Conference on the Implementation of National, Regional and World Plans of Action for the Integration of Women in Development at Nouakchott, Mauritania; the Pan-African Women's Organization (PAWO) participated in the Conference where African women exhibited remarkable realism and maturity. The Conference endorsed the recommendations of the Mexico Conference and recommended the establishment of national machineries in each country to monitor the integration of women in development; subregional structures within the five ECA MULPOCs; and a co-ordination structure, the Africa Regional Co-ordinating Committee (ARCC).

From 1978 to 1979, ECA, through ATRCW, set to work and organized inaugural meetings in the five subregions so that the subregional committees came into being. The Councils of Ministers in each subregion accepted the inclusion of a new component, the integration of women in development, which thus became the fourth component in the activities of the MULPOCs.

ECA convened the first meeting of the Africa Regional Co-ordinating Committee in March 1979 at Rabat, Morocco. The meeting was attended by Mrs. Helvi Sipila, United Nations Assistant Secretary-General for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs and personal representative of the United Nations Secretary-General, the Assistant Administrator and Director, UNDP Regional Bureau for Africa, the Executive Secretary of ECA and representatives of United Nations agencies. The meeting's importance was no longer in doubt. Africa thus acquired the necessary working tools for the implementation of an efficient programme capable of defending the most legitimate aspirations of women at all levels, which led to the holding of the second Regional Conference on the Integration of Women in Development at Lusaka during which the Plan of Action for Africa, which was presented to Copenhagen, was drawn up.

ARCC has the arduous task of continuously assessing the women's programmes drawn up in the subregions and harmonizing them to reflect expressed needs and the Programme of Action adopted at Copenhagen as well as the Lagos Plan of Action.

It is also responsible for co-ordinating activities between the subregions and advising ATRCW on the implementation of the priority programmes selected.

Moreover, ARCC has to participate in the search for funds. In that connection, a tripartite

meeting on programme evaluation was held on 29 and 30 July 1982 at Yaounde attended by UNDP, the major donor, ECA and ARCC. The very encouraging results of the meeting might well mean that UNDP could provide additional assistance for women's programmes.

Since it was established, ARCC has already held several meetings which proved each time that the structures laid down by ECA to launch the integration of women in development were far from nebulous. Without any false modesty we would point out that, in the latest UNDP evaluation report, this project turned out to be the most credible and the one which would appear to function best.

The establishment of the Africa Regional Co-ordinating Committee was thus the outcome of the collective will of Africa's women to have structures which would enable them to realize their full potential.

The African woman, who is a vital asset to reckon with, knows that she owes it to herself to contribute towards building a new and modern continent. The economic and social changes recommended for the year 2000 by the Assembly of Heads of State and Government at Lagos, Nigeria, will most certainly be closely linked to changes in the status and role of women.

Major socio-economic problems in the last analysis cannot be solved without the participation of women. It is therefore absolutely vital to integrate women in the development process for, without them, only partial results will be obtained.

While ECA has been concerned with the development of Africa, it has managed to tailor its activities to the requirements of the continent. Women's programmes have gained in credibility through ECA's sustained and effective actions. National machineries and States are becoming increasingly interested in the project on the integration of women in development. Some countries have requested the services of consultants to help them to integrate women's problems and programmes in their planning policy structures.

As the days go by, women are becoming increasingly aware that they belong to a numerically large and dynamic group. They are aware that, without proper organization and support from official State machineries, their activities might turn out to be fleeting and fail to bring about any real changes in their status.

This awareness is clearly reflected in the many requests women have been making to the subregional committees and ARCC to organize seminars on the role of national machineries in their respective countries. They no longer wait, as they used to do when ARCC's activities were initiated, for ARCC to propose seminars or activities for them to implement.

More and more requests are coming from the grass-roots, an indication that women are genuinely interested in contributing towards the improvement of their living conditions.

Although as a result of ECA's sustained efforts African women have an increasingly important role to play in national affairs, it is nevertheless true that they still remain a marginal group which often has to work harder than men to achieve the same result. Their total absence from decision-making, with a few exceptions, still relegates them to the inferior status of recipients of aid.

Despite differences in conditions throughout Africa, we have every confidence that the programme initiated by ECA will lead to the complete integration of African women in the economies of their countries and that the objectives for the year 2000 will be fully attained.

In participating in the commemoration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the establishment of ECA, ARCC wishes, on behalf of the women of Africa, to pay homage to and express its gratitude and esteem for those brave sons and daughters of Africa who over the past 25 years have lovingly and dedicatedly pondered over the lot of those millions of women who will be the builders of brighter tomorrows for our continent.

MAHDI ELMANDJRA
Professor, University Mohamed V,
Rabat, Morocco

On 29 April 1958 the Economic and Social Council voted resolution 671 A (XXV) which created the regional Economic Commission for Africa. On that day there were only eight independent African States (Ethiopia, Ghana, Liberia, Libya, Morocco, the United Arab Republic, Sudan and Tunisia). The Economic and Social Council resolution was the outcome of a very long struggle which went as far back as 1947 when Egypt, Ethiopia and Liberia had asked for the establishment of an Economic Commission for North Africa and Ethiopia. It was not until ten years later that the General Assembly at its twelfth session recommended the creation of an Economic Commission for Africa (Res. 1155 (XII) of 26 November 1957) and asked the Economic and Social Council to define its terms of reference.

I was at the time Counsellor of the Permanent Mission of Morocco to the United Nations and had the privilege of being closely associated with the birth of the Commission. I also attended regularly all of its sessions between 1959 and 1963. My intention is neither to attempt to write a history of the formative years of ECA nor to evaluate its achievements during those years. I shall simply try to recall the environment and the mood which prevailed at that time. It is a personal, subjective and most incomplete account.

The real political fight began after the General Assembly approved the principle of establishing the Commission and when its terms of reference had to be elaborated for presentation to the Economic and Social Council. The decision of the General Assembly was a hard-won victory against colonialism because most of Africa was still then under colonial rule. There were few possibilities to raise issues in the United Nations concerning Africa except through the use of Article 73 of the Charter (transmission of information to the Secretary-General by the Trusteeship Council). The inscription of specific items on decolonization was not an easy matter then.

The ECA issue became a new platform for the decolonization process. The colonial Powers resisted its creation as long as they could and when it came about they were most anxious about the definition of its terms of reference. Philippe de Seynes, as Assistant Secretary-General for Economic and Social Affairs was responsible for the preparation of the draft of the terms of reference to be presented to the Economic and Social Council which was presided that year by Georges Davidson (Canada). The following Africans were directly involved with the drafting of the terms of reference: Mekki Abbas (Sudan) who became the first Executive Secretary of the Commission, Frederick Akhurst (Ghana), Mengesha Kifle (Ethiopia), Omar Loutfi (United Arab Republic) and myself.

The difficulties in the consultations over the terms of reference were of three types: legal, political and substantive. The colonial Powers wanted to ensure legally the non-intervention of ECA in any of their Territories except at their own request. Hence the clause in article 1 which spells out the functions of the Commission and subjects these to the agreement of the "Government concerned".

Politically, there was a hard discussion about the membership and the associate membership of the Commission. The formula which was found was the one in article 5 which gave a list of the States which could become members. This list included all the States Members of the United Nations which were geographically in Africa (Belgium, France, Italy, Portugal, Spain

and the United Kingdom). Unlike the other regional economic commissions the United States and the USSR were not eligible for membership.

Article 6 allowed for the admission of African Territories as associate members on the condition that their candidature be proposed by the State responsible for their international relations. At the request of the United Kingdom and Italy and in application of this principle article 7 gave the list of associate members (Federation of Nigeria, Gambia, Kenya and Zanzibar, Uganda, the Protectorate of Somalia, Sierra Leone, Tanganyika, and the Trust Territory of Somalia under Italian Administration). France did not propose any of its Territories because it was then trying to establish a French Community covering all of its Territories as a kind of federation. Portugal did not feel concerned although it was considered as a member only because of its African Territories. Spain had just become a Member of the United Nations.

The big substantive debate had to do with the role of the Commission with respect to the social aspects of development. It took days of consultations and hours of negotiations and discussions outside and within the Economic and Social Council chamber to insert the expression "including its social aspects" after "the economic development of Africa" in paragraph (a) of article 1 and to include a paragraph (g) at the end of the article stipulating that in the exercise of its functions the Commission should deal properly with "the social aspects of economic development and the interdependence of economic and social factors". It was no coincidence that the resolution on "Social policies and the interdependence between economic and social development" approved by the General Assembly in 1958 included seven African countries among its 10 sponsors. I had the honour of introducing this resolution in the Third Committee and can remember vividly the opposition it provoked.

The African delegations were so eager about the establishment of the Commission that they included an article (21) in the terms of reference committing the Secretary-General to convene its first session before the end of 1958 - eight months at the latest after the creation of ECA. The Economic and Social Council not only approved the terms of reference of ECA but also decided on the location of its Headquarters - Addis Ababa. The African Commission was born 11 years later than the European and 10 years after the Asian and Latin American regional commissions of the United Nations.

The discussion which took place during the thirteenth session of the General Assembly (1958) when it examined the report of the Economic and Social Council concerning the creation of ECA shows how great were the expectations of the eight African Member Countries which represented then only 10 per cent of the total membership of the United Nations as compared with 30 per cent today. An event which gave the debate a special overtone was the admission of Guinea that same year as the ninth African State Member of the United Nations, not to mention the heated examination of the Algerian question. 1958 was also the year when the creation of the Special Fund was definitively approved; the idea of a Capital Fund for development which had been recommended by the 1949 Havana Conference on trade was set aside (it reappeared in 1980 in the Brandt Commission report).

The first session of ECA opened on 29 December 1958 in Addis Ababa and lasted until 6 January 1959. Because of the Ethiopian calendar it celebrated the new year twice. The Conference took place in the Parliament House and was opened by Emperor Haile Selassie who at that time was a symbol of African resistance to European imperialism. Ethiopia was then somewhat closed to the outside world. There was only two hotels (the Ghion and the Ras). The hospitality of the Ethiopians was beyond description.

It was the first major gathering of Africans to discuss African problems on African soil after the independence of Ghana, Guinea, Libya, Morocco, Tunisia and the Sudan and one in which delegates from other still non-independent African countries took part. The Secretary-General of the United Nations, Dag Hammarskjold, made a very courageous speech in which he insisted on the irreversible trend of decolonization. He was also somewhat prophetic in stating that history was producing new States whose geographical boundaries were not likely to serve efficiently their economic growth. He pleaded for economic integration and felt that it could be one of the major objectives of ECA.

As a refined diplomat Hammarskjold tried to tone down the reaction of the colonial Powers by adding that

> "While its future is not and cannot be directly concerned with factors pertaining to political evolution, the Commission, if it is to be successful, could not disregard the fact that the very elements of the political and constitutional changes which are rapidly taking place in Africa have a direct bearing on the problems of economic development."

The first Executive Secretary of the Commission, Mekki Abbas from the Sudan, introduced in his opening speech the draft programme of work (E/CN.14/4) which was submitted to the Commission. The opening ceremony ended with speeches of thanks to the host country which were delivered by the representatives of France, Ghana, Libya, the United Arab Republic, the United Kingdom and the Sudan.

The list of participants at the first session of ECA is quite interesting. Among those who took part at the Addis Ababa meeting of 1958 one finds the following names:

- R.K.A. Gardiner (Ghana) who became the Deputy Executive Secretary of ECA and its second Executive Secretary;
- Ismail Touré and Lansana Beavagui; the first is now Minister of Foreign Affairs of Guinea and the second is the Prime Minister of that country;
- Mrs. Angie Brooks (Liberia) who was later elected President of the United Nations General Assembly; and
- Taib Slim (Tunisia) at present Permanent representative of his country to the United Nations.

France was represented by its Ambassador to the United Nations G. Georges-Picot and the United Kingdom by a minister, J.D. Profumo.

The associate members present were the eight mentioned in article 7 of the terms of reference of the Commission (see above).

There were observers from 17 States Members of the United Nations including the United States, USSR, five Eastern and four Western European countries, five Asian States and one Latin American one (Brazil).

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In conclusion, the first session of the Economic Commission for Africa was not just an international gathering, it was, as the French would say, "une fête". It was a real feast and a festival as well. The new hopes and aspirations of Africa were much more apparent in the Parliament House in Addis Ababa than they were in the glass house of Manhattan. The Africans were at home, with no xenophobia, and the representatives of the colonial Powers became more conscious than ever that their days as administering Powers were counted. The atmosphere was at times quite heated if not electrified but courtesy and the rules of hospitality were fully respected in a truly African fashion.

Those days are now gone. The innocence, the idealism, the naivety, the commitment, the passion, imagination and the sense of humour which often accompanies it have faded away with the years. The crisis is real. It is the crisis of the international system as a whole, of its national, regional and international institutions; it is also a cultural and moral crisis due to a loss of purpose. The past is past and nostalgia is of no avail. The future however is still ahead and it is not entirely closed. A return to the past can be a source of inspiration but it cannot replace creativity - the type of creativity which characterized the formative years of ECA. May the second quarter of the century which is about to begin be a new and even more successful starting point!

1/ The programme of work of the Commission adopted on 6 January 1959 included among its research topics, a general economic study describing the developments in Africa since 1950. This study was published the same year (document E/CN.14/28).

success in the implementation of the Africanization policy of the secretariat" as spelt out in the Conference of Ministers resolution 373 (XIV) which clearly commends the work of the secretariat.

As one of the architects of this resolution, I was convinced then as I am now, that this commendation of ECA has significance not just in terms of what it had achieved at that time but more in terms of what it could do in the future. Those who are conversant with recent developments in the activities of the secretariat know fully well that the Monrovia Strategy was the incarnation of the Lagos Plan of Action and the Final Act of Lagos which was assiduously and imaginatively developed by ECA in collaboration with OAU, and has since become the blue print for the economic transformation of Africa.

Since developing the Plan, ECA has continued to nurture its implementation by executing related work programmes, especially in the three critical areas of food and agriculture, transport and communication and industrial development and, more importantly, through support and encouragement to African countries to ensure the internalization of the goals and objectives of the Plan within their national development strategies and activities. In this respect, therefore, I envisage a brighter future for African development and I call upon ECA to redouble its present efforts to rid this continent of poverty and misery so that by the end of this century all of Africa may enjoy a more abundant life for its people.

MRS. DELPHINE TSANGA,

Chairperson of the Africa Regional Co-ordinating Committee for the Integration of Women in Development

As it does every year, ECA will once again think back to its establishment. 1983 will have special significance because it is the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Commission which was established even before the tide of independence by the late Dag Hammarskjold, the then United Nations Secretary-General. He described the birth of ECA as marking "the moment when Africa began to assume its full role in the world community".

By its resolution 671 (XXV) of 29 April 1958, the United Nations Economic and Social Council provided the African continent with an instrument for economic and social development whose aim was to heighten independent African countries' awareness of the socio-economic development problems of their countries, regions and the continent as a whole.

When it was established, the Commission had nine member States; today, its membership has swollen to 50 States. As Africa's first continent-wide organization, it provided the only forum where Africans could combat the vicissitudes of colonialism and neo-colonialism in order to win the economic battle which would succeed the political battle. Thus, on the international scene ECA was seen as the defender of the economic interests of independent African States.

Its role therefore consists in designing and implementing economic and social development programmes.

To attain its objectives and live up to expectations, ECA's structures and functions are designed in such a way that it can serve as:

(a) A centre for consultations where Governments can express themselves freely and work out what forms their co-operation should take;

(b) An institution where the economic needs of the African peoples can be expressed and which will design measures and promote ways and means of satisfying such needs;

(c) An institution which will provide countries and regional groupings and subgroupings with a package of technical services for carrying out in-depth studies on common problems;

(d) A well-organized institution for the exchange of information and experience which is also responsible for carrying out a critical analysis of such information;

(e) An institution which will establish close links with the various United Nations programmes and the specialized agencies of the United Nations.

The means of attaining the foregoing objectives are seen as set programmes on the one hand and on the other hand the various agencies established within the Commission to elaborate future objectives such as taking up the challenge of the year 2000 or, in other words, providing African States with sound and self-sustaining economies. In that connection, four priority programmes have been selected, including one on the integration of women in the development process.

The role of women is changing in society throughout the world. ECA had the merit, as a regional commission, to tackle women's problems very early on and to understand that Africa cannot be developed without its women.

Since ECA sees development as a comprehensive process which requires the participation of all available human resources, it has realized that African women who constituted a reservoir of talents, energy and initiatives in pre-colonial society had suffered considerably from the effects of colonization.

For a long time (and this is still true in many countries) politicians were happy just to think like the settlers, forgetting that African women had a well-defined place which set them apart from men without making them in any way inferior; for that reason, they had their role to play in many societies and their own personality. After exploiting women to achieve decolonization, they quickly relegated them to oblivion to avoid having to compete with them in sharing out political power.

The result was that women were shunted away from development and lost any initiative in economic life.

The women's liberation movement which swept through Europe had an impact on the whole world. In Africa as elsewhere, after the political struggle, ECA thought about integrating women in the economic scene.

To ensure that women's problems were better appreciated, ECA established the African Training and Research Centre for Women (ATRCW). The Centre's tasks were to carry out research and organize training and information seminars for women. Already, through the Centre's activities, some visible changes in direction were appearing in the role of women and Africa had a viable operational programme.

Major burning issues of the day such as education, employment, health, legal structures, politics and communications media were discussed everywhere.

Women quickly became more aware of the need to be better organized. Discussions held at the international level brought home to the international community the inequalities that existed with request to the status of people throughout the world.

The First World Conference of the International Women's Year held at Mexico recommended that the various regions should establish national, subregional and regional machineries to deal with women's problems, the most underprivileged beings on earth.

Two years later in 1977, ECA organized the First Regional Conference on the Implementation of National, Regional and World Plans of Action for the Integration of Women in Development at Nouakchott, Mauritania; the Pan-African Women's Organization (PAWO) participated in the Conference where African women exhibited remarkable realism and maturity. The Conference endorsed the recommendations of the Mexico Conference and recommended the establishment of national machineries in each country to monitor the integration of women in development; subregional structures within the five ECA MULPOCs; and a co-ordination structure, the Africa Regional Co-ordinating Committee (ARCC).

From 1978 to 1979, ECA, through ATRCW, set to work and organized inaugural meetings in the five subregions so that the subregional committees came into being. The Councils of Ministers in each subregion accepted the inclusion of a new component, the integration of women in development, which thus became the fourth component in the activities of the MULPOCs.

ECA convened the first meeting of the Africa Regional Co-ordinating Committee in March 1979 at Rabat, Morocco. The meeting was attended by Mrs. Helvi Sipila, United Nations Assistant Secretary-General for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs and personal representative of the United Nations Secretary-General, the Assistant Administrator and Director, UNDP Regional Bureau for Africa, the Executive Secretary of ECA and representatives of United Nations agencies. The meeting's importance was no longer in doubt. Africa thus acquired the necessary working tools for the implementation of an efficient programme capable of defending the most legitimate aspirations of women at all levels, which led to the holding of the second Regional Conference on the Integration of Women in Development at Lusaka during which the Plan of Action for Africa, which was presented to Copenhagen, was drawn up.

ARCC has the arduous task of continuously assessing the women's programmes drawn up in the subregions and harmonizing them to reflect expressed needs and the Programme of Action adopted at Copenhagen as well as the Lagos Plan of Action.

It is also responsible for co-ordinating activities between the subregions and advising ATRCW on the implementation of the priority programmes selected.

Moreover, ARCC has to participate in the search for funds. In that connection, a tripartite

meeting on programme evaluation was held on 29 and 30 July 1982 at Yaounde attended by UNDP, the major donor, ECA and ARCC. The very encouraging results of the meeting might well mean that UNDP could provide additional assistance for women's programmes.

Since it was established, ARCC has already held several meetings which proved each time that the structures laid down by ECA to launch the integration of women in development were far from nebulous. Without any false modesty we would point out that, in the latest UNDP evaluation report, this project turned out to be the most credible and the one which would appear to function best.

The establishment of the Africa Regional Co-ordinating Committee was thus the outcome of the collective will of Africa's women to have structures which would enable them to realize their full potential.

The African woman, who is a vital asset to reckon with, knows that she owes it to herself to contribute towards building a new and modern continent. The economic and social changes recommended for the year 2000 by the Assembly of Heads of State and Government at Lagos, Nigeria, will most certainly be closely linked to changes in the status and role of women.

Major socio-economic problems in the last analysis cannot be solved without the participation of women. It is therefore absolutely vital to integrate women in the development process for, without them, only partial results will be obtained.

While ECA has been concerned with the development of Africa, it has managed to tailor its activities to the requirements of the continent. Women's programmes have gained in credibility through ECA's sustained and effective actions. National machineries and States are becoming increasingly interested in the project on the integration of women in development. Some countries have requested the services of consultants to help them to integrate women's problems and programmes in their planning policy structures.

As the days go by, women are becoming increasingly aware that they belong to a numerically large and dynamic group. They are aware that, without proper organization and support from official State machineries, their activities might turn out to be fleeting and fail to bring about any real changes in their status.

This awareness is clearly reflected in the many requests women have been making to the subregional committees and ARCC to organize seminars on the role of national machineries in their respective countries. They no longer wait, as they used to do when ARCC's activities were initiated, for ARCC to propose seminars or activities for them to implement.

More and more requests are coming from the grass-roots, an indication that women are genuinely interested in contributing towards the improvement of their living conditions.

Although as a result of ECA's sustained efforts African women have an increasingly important role to play in national affairs, it is nevertheless true that they still remain a marginal group which often has to work harder than men to achieve the same result. Their total absence from decision-making, with a few exceptions, still relegates them to the inferior status of recipients of aid.

Despite differences in conditions throughout Africa, we have every confidence that the programme initiated by ECA will lead to the complete integration of African women in the economies of their countries and that the objectives for the year 2000 will be fully attained.

In participating in the commemoration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the establishment of ECA, ARCC wishes, on behalf of the women of Africa, to pay homage to and express its gratitude and esteem for those brave sons and daughters of Africa who over the past 25 years have lovingly and dedicatedly pondered over the lot of those millions of women who will be the builders of brighter tomorrows for our continent.

MAHDI ELMANDJRA
Professor, University Mohamed V,
Rabat, Morocco

On 29 April 1958 the Economic and Social Council voted resolution 671 A (XXV) which created the regional Economic Commission for Africa. On that day there were only eight independent African States (Ethiopia, Ghana, Liberia, Libya, Morocco, the United Arab Republic, Sudan and Tunisia). The Economic and Social Council resolution was the outcome of a very long struggle which went as far back as 1947 when Egypt, Ethiopia and Liberia had asked for the establishment of an Economic Commission for North Africa and Ethiopia. It was not until ten years later that the General Assembly at its twelfth session recommended the creation of an Economic Commission for Africa (Res. 1155 (XII) of 26 November 1957) and asked the Economic and Social Council to define its terms of reference.

I was at the time Counsellor of the Permanent Mission of Morocco to the United Nations and had the privilege of being closely associated with the birth of the Commission. I also attended regularly all of its sessions between 1959 and 1963. My intention is neither to attempt to write a history of the formative years of ECA nor to evaluate its achievements during those years. I shall simply try to recall the environment and the mood which prevailed at that time. It is a personal, subjective and most incomplete account.

The real political fight began after the General Assembly approved the principle of establishing the Commission and when its terms of reference had to be elaborated for presentation to the Economic and Social Council. The decision of the General Assembly was a hard-won victory against colonialism because most of Africa was still then under colonial rule. There were few possibilities to raise issues in the United Nations concerning Africa except through the use of Article 73 of the Charter (transmission of information to the Secretary-General by the Trusteeship Council). The inscription of specific items on decolonization was not an easy matter then.

The ECA issue became a new platform for the decolonization process. The colonial Powers resisted its creation as long as they could and when it came about they were most anxious about the definition of its terms of reference. Philippe de Seynes, as Assistant Secretary-General for Economic and Social Affairs was responsible for the preparation of the draft of the terms of reference to be presented to the Economic and Social Council which was presided that year by Georges Davidson (Canada). The following Africans were directly involved with the drafting of the terms of reference: Mekki Abbas (Sudan) who became the first Executive Secretary of the Commission, Frederick Akhurst (Ghana), Mengesha Kifle (Ethiopia), Omar Loutfi (United Arab Republic) and myself.

The difficulties in the consultations over the terms of reference were of three types: legal, political and substantive. The colonial Powers wanted to ensure legally the non-intervention of ECA in any of their Territories except at their own request. Hence the clause in article 1 which spells out the functions of the Commission and subjects these to the agreement of the "Government concerned".

Politically, there was a hard discussion about the membership and the associate membership of the Commission. The formula which was found was the one in article 5 which gave a list of the States which could become members. This list included all the States Members of the United Nations which were geographically in Africa (Belgium, France, Italy, Portugal, Spain

and the United Kingdom). Unlike the other regional economic commissions the United States and the USSR were not eligible for membership.

Article 6 allowed for the admission of African Territories as associate members on the condition that their candidature be proposed by the State responsible for their international relations. At the request of the United Kingdom and Italy and in application of this principle article 7 gave the list of associate members (Federation of Nigeria, Gambia, Kenya and Zanzibar, Uganda, the Protectorate of Somalia, Sierra Leone, Tanganyika, and the Trust Territory of Somalia under Italian Administration). France did not propose any of its Territories because it was then trying to establish a French Community covering all of its Territories as a kind of federation. Portugal did not feel concerned although it was considered as a member only because of its African Territories. Spain had just become a Member of the United Nations.

The big substantive debate had to do with the role of the Commission with respect to the social aspects of development. It took days of consultations and hours of negotiations and discussions outside and within the Economic and Social Council chamber to insert the expression "including its social aspects" after "the economic development of Africa" in paragraph (a) of article 1 and to include a paragraph (g) at the end of the article stipulating that in the exercise of its functions the Commission should deal properly with "the social aspects of economic development and the interdependence of economic and social factors". It was no coincidence that the resolution on "Social policies and the interdependence between economic and social development" approved by the General Assembly in 1958 included seven African countries among its 10 sponsors. I had the honour of introducing this resolution in the Third Committee and can remember vividly the opposition it provoked.

The African delegations were so eager about the establishment of the Commission that they included an article (21) in the terms of reference committing the Secretary-General to convene its first session before the end of 1958 - eight months at the latest after the creation of ECA. The Economic and Social Council not only approved the terms of reference of ECA but also decided on the location of its Headquarters - Addis Ababa. The African Commission was born 11 years later than the European and 10 years after the Asian and Latin American regional commissions of the United Nations.

The discussion which took place during the thirteenth session of the General Assembly (1958) when it examined the report of the Economic and Social Council concerning the creation of ECA shows how great were the expectations of the eight African Member Countries which represented then only 10 per cent of the total membership of the United Nations as compared with 30 per cent today. An event which gave the debate a special overtone was the admission of Guinea that same year as the ninth African State Member of the United Nations, not to mention the heated examination of the Algerian question. 1958 was also the year when the creation of the Special Fund was definitively approved; the idea of a Capital Fund for development which had been recommended by the 1949 Havana Conference on trade was set aside (it reappeared in 1980 in the Brandt Commission report).

The first session of ECA opened on 29 December 1958 in Addis Ababa and lasted until 6 January 1959. Because of the Ethiopian calendar it celebrated the new year twice. The Conference took place in the Parliament House and was opened by Emperor Haile Selassie who at that time was a symbol of African resistance to European imperialism. Ethiopia was then somewhat closed to the outside world. There was only two hotels (the Ghion and the Ras). The hospitality of the Ethiopians was beyond description.

It was the first major gathering of Africans to discuss African problems on African soil after the independence of Ghana, Guinea, Libya, Morocco, Tunisia and the Sudan and one in which delegates from other still non-independent African countries took part. The Secretary-General of the United Nations, Dag Hammarskjold, made a very courageous speech in which he insisted on the irreversible trend of decolonization. He was also somewhat prophetic in stating that history was producing new States whose geographical boundaries were not likely to serve efficiently their economic growth. He pleaded for economic integration and felt that it could be one of the major objectives of ECA.

As a refined diplomat Hammarskjold tried to tone down the reaction of the colonial Powers by adding that

> "While its future is not and cannot be directly concerned with factors pertaining to political evolution, the Commission, if it is to be successful, could not disregard the fact that the very elements of the political and constitutional changes which are rapidly taking place in Africa have a direct bearing on the problems of economic development."

The first Executive Secretary of the Commission, Mekki Abbas from the Sudan, introduced in his opening speech the draft programme of work (E/CN.14/4) which was submitted to the Commission. The opening ceremony ended with speeches of thanks to the host country which were delivered by the representatives of France, Ghana, Libya, the United Arab Republic, the United Kingdom and the Sudan.

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V. POTENTIAL FOR THE FUTURE

A. INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapters, attempts have been made to highlight the contribution of the Commission to, and its impact on, African development policies and activities. The main purpose of this chapter is to attempt, on the basis of hindsight and conjectures about the probable changes in the controlling parameters, to sketch some of the potential for the future of the Commission and hence of its secretariat.

In engaging in this forward-looking exercise, it is essential to point out that the Commission is really engaged in a very difficult task. In the first place, it is a political organization whose members are sovereign States which can and do decide whether they want to participate or not in the activities of the Commission. Secondly, as the history of the Commission from its inception up to the present has indicated, it operates in a dynamic environment and hence has very limited capacity to control the forces that shape its course. Thirdly, because of the uncertainty that normally surrounds the future, speculation, or peering into the future, is at best a hazardous job and at worst a confidence-destroying exercise. Yet, without an attempt to chart a future course, mankind, nations, Governments and international organizations for that matter will remain unprepared to deal with events as they occur. To that extent, they will be like a rudderless ship at the mercy of the tempestuous sea. In any case, it is becoming increasingly clear that one of the objectives of mankind, nations and their Governments as well as of international organizations is to control the forces of nature, and peering into the future has much to do in that control. Moreover, it has an important role to play in assisting policy-makers to chart a course of action for themselves and to determine measures that will assist them to achieve the goals and objectives embodied in that course of action. In other words, speculation can assist in generating certain ideas and plans of action which can provide landmarks and a stable base for the future.

It is in the context of the foregoing and in the light of a re-examination of the internal logic and the environmental factors that have shaped the organization in the past that an attempt is made in the rest of this chapter to suggest these areas and activities where ECA, through its member States and its secretariat, can be more fruitful and useful in the future. In this regard, reference should be made to the terms of reference of the Commission (see chapter III above), as well as the provisions of General Assembly resolution 32/197 and of the other resolutions on the restructuring of the economic and social sectors of the United Nations system, the methods of work and orientation of the Commission and its secretariat, stressing in particular those outputs which can contribute significantly to

the Commission's potential in the future and the changing attitude of the member States to their participation in the work of the Commission.

Before embarking on such a hazardous exercise, it is important to stress the fact that whether the identified potential is realized or not will depend as much on the secretariat as on the member States and the fortuitous factors that are bound to emanate from and operate in the environment within which the Commission and its secretariat will continue to function.

B. POTENTIAL AND ITS DETERMINANTS

1. TERMS OF REFERENCE AND PAST PERFORMANCE

In common with other United Nations intergovernmental institutions, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa and its secretariat have no choice but to work within the terms of reference defined for them by the appropriate legislative organs of the United Nations.

Moreover, in recent years, the decisions of the General Assembly as contained in its epoch-making resolution 32/197 and subsequent resolutions on restructuring the economic and social sectors of the United Nations system have not only reinforced the content of the existing terms of reference but also emphasized the role of the regional commissions as the main general economic and social development centres within the United Nations system for their respective regions. Accordingly the General Assembly has urged them to exercise team leadership and responsibility for co-ordination and co-operation at the regional level, taking into account the special needs of their respective regions. It requires them to provide inputs for the global policy-making processes of the competent United Nations organs and participate fully in the implementation of the relevant policy and programme decisions by these organs. They should also be consulted on the definition of the objectives to be included in the medium-term plan of the United Nations covering fields of interest to them, taking into account the special needs and conditions of their respective regions. The General Assembly also decided that the regional commissions should have the status of executing agencies in their own right and should be enabled to participate actively in operational activities carried out through the United Nations system, including the preparation of inter-country programmes, as may be required, in their respective regions. They are urged to assist developing countries at the request of the Governments concerned in identifying projects and preparing programmes for the promotion of co-operation among these countries; and to strengthen and, as appropriate, expand existing arrangements for the continuous exchange between them of information and experience as a means of promoting more effective interregional co-operation.

Within the framework of the foregoing, the Commission has, over the 25 years of its existence, become a forum for negotiations by member States on common social, economic and technological problems and for making joint pronouncements on international economic, social and technological issues. The regional development strategies established in 1971 and in 1979 respectively and the Lagos Plan of Action formulated in 1980, as well as the sectoral strategies established in 1978 on transport and communication and in 1981 on industrialization, are concrete examples of achievements by the Commission as a forum for negotiations and harmonization of development objectives, priorities, policies and programmes. Also relevant here are the common pronouncements of the Conference of Ministers of Trade on issues coming before UNCTAD and GATT and the statements of the ministers of African least developed countries on the problems of their countries which are scheduled to be discussed in international fora.

Other outputs of the Commission, particularly through the activities of its secretariat as documented in the preceding sections of this publication, are the series of studies and publications on the development and economic growth problems of the continent for use of member States, their national and inter-governmental organizations, researchers, aid donors and international organizations; the series of conferences, meetings, seminars and workshops organized for the experts and officials of member State at which ideas are exchanged and technical skills transferred; the technical advisory services given to member States and their inter-governmental organizations with a view to assisting in solving specific problems and sometimes giving on-the-job training, the scholarships and bursaries awarded to students, experts and officials from member States with a view to strengthening their technical capabilities; and the series of institutions created for the purpose of fostering economic and social co-operation and integration as well as the rapidly increasing involvement of the secretariat in operational activities.

All these are indeed remarkable achievements within a generation in a continent that is divided not only by physical factors but also by colonial, racial, religious and linguistic factors. However, the achievements have not been attained without some serious difficulties. There was the initial difficulty of the designation of the Commission and its secretariat as an "anomaly" within the United Nations system since various specialized agencies and Headquarters departments were in existence and firmly established before the regional commissions with their multisectoral and multidisciplinary orientation came to be established. This initial dichotomy has continued to bedevil the work of the regional commissions, notwithstanding the adoption of resolution 32/197 and related restructuring resolutions to which reference has been made above. There have also been the difficulties of financial and human resources. Yet, the achievements are impressive particularly in their contribution to future activities.

What are these factors that have contributed to these achievements in the face of the daunting obstacles? Mention should be made of two: the commitment of the member States to the cause of the Commission as attested by the statements which they make in support of its activities during their participation in its work and their incessant bargaining in the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly for increased responsibilities and resources for the secretariat of the Commission; and, the dedication of the succeeding chief executives and other staff of the secretariat to the cause of African development and economic growth.

2. SPECIFIC AREAS OF POTENTIAL

Before identifying the areas of potential and the factors that are likely to promote them, it should be recalled that the present Executive Secretary of the Commission, in his speech at the twenty-first anniversary of the Commission in 1979, outlined what he regarded as the task before ECA in the 1980s and 1990s in the light of the challenges facing Africa.

After reviewing past planned development efforts in Africa since the 1960s, and concluding that "in the years since independence, the apparently firm basis of assumptions as to the nature of economies and societies, Governments and communities which should be built in Africa has steadily been disintegrating" and that "it became no longer clear that the models implied in policies and strategies for closing gaps were either desirable in terms, for example, of solving the growing evils of mass unemployment and mass poverty or of enabling member States to establish a self-sustaining process of development and economic growth", 1/ he suggested the need for a new development strategy for Africa and identified four challenges in this respect. These four challenges are (i) the initiation of self-sustaining and self-reliant processes of development, economic growth and welfare which would free Africa from an undignified and frustrated dependence on others for skilled manpower, technology, finance for the development of capital goods and services, essential institutions and markets for social and material creativity, invention and innovation, for food and, increasingly, for self-definition in terms of culture and life-styles; (ii) the recovery of self-confidence; (iii) the assessment and mobilization of the region's enormous human and natural resources; and (iv) the design of modalities by which all these resources can be applied in such ways as to achieve the objectives, targets and modes of life autonomously chosen by Governments and communities.

In connection with these challenges, he identified the following priorities: (i) the development of agriculture and increased production of food and raw materials for industry; (ii) the development of indigenous entrepreneurial resources; (iii) the removal of narrow market constraints on production and distribution; (iv) the inescapable task of promoting economic co-operation among African countries and between African and other third world countries in ways that will not lead to the creation of new varieties of frustration; (v) the vigorous pursuit of the physical integration of the continent; (vi) the need to give operational meaning to the concept of sovereignty over natural resources; and (vii) the laying of firm foundations for a scientific and technological revolution in Africa.

As it is, these challenges and priorities constitute the heart of the Monrovia Strategy for the Economic Development of Africa and the Lagos Plan of Action, including the Final Act of Lagos, for the implementation of the Strategy.

1/ Adebayo Adedeji, *The Economic Commission for Africa: its origin, development, problems and prospects (ECA, 1979); p. 35.*

(a) The Commission as a forum for negotiations and decisions on common problems and objectives

There is no doubt that the adoption of the Monrovia Strategy for the Economic Development of Africa and the Lagos Plan of Action including the Final Act of Lagos will increase rather than diminish the role of the Commission as a forum for negotiations and a channel between the African countries and the international community as represented by the United Nations system. Moreover, monitoring the implementation of the Lagos Plan of Action can be undertaken only by such an august body as the ECA Conference of Ministers before recommendations are made, *inter alia*, to the Assembly of Heads of State and Government of the Organization of African Unity and the United Nations General Assembly which has been closely monitoring the implementation of the Plan.

In this connection, it is likely that the work of the Commission will become increasingly interesting if the performance of the experts and of the Ministers in recent meetings and their growing understanding of development and economic growth issues and of the international environment are to be taken as indicators of the future. This will create a great challenge as to the quality and sense of dedication of the secretariat provided the problem of inadequacy of budgetary resources is overcome.

(b) Traditional secretariat activities (research, including data collection, analysis and dissemination, organization of conferences, meetings, seminars and workshops, etc.)

Over the years, dissatisfaction has been expressed about the alleged "resignation of the secretariat to the achievement of nothing but the recording of recommendations, decisions and resolutions" and consequently repeated calls have been made for the reorientation of the secretariat to practical activities. As indicated above, the Commission is now an executing agency in its own right, and as a result a lot of technical co-operation projects of both an institutional and a practical nature have been initiated and implemented by it. However, it will be a delusion of the highest order to believe that a development institution especially one that is dedicated to fostering economic co-operation and integration not only among its member States but also between them and the rest of the world can afford to neglect research, the publication of the results of such research and the organization of conferences, meetings, seminars and workshops.

In this connection, it is important to highlight separately the importance of research and data collection, analysis and dissemination on the one hand and that of conferences, meetings, seminars and workshops on the other. As far as research and data collection, analysis and dissemination are concerned, there is no doubt that any suggestion that such activities should be reduced underestimates the value of their centralization in international organizations to the formulation and implementation of policies at the national level. Indeed, if joint planning and other international economic relations including trade and finance are to be developed and strengthened, member States need to have information on the economies of one another as well as on extra-African economies, and it will be extremely costly for each member State to establish and manage the required mechanisms for obtaining and processing such information. Yet, international organizations have economies of scale in these areas.

Therefore, the collection, analysis and distribution of information which have up to now constituted one of the significant achievements of the secretariat of the Commission still constitute an important area where the potential of the secretariat can be further developed. In this connection, it will be in the interest of member States to support not only the traditional activities in research and analysis including data collection, analysis and dissemination but also the young but expanding institution called PADIS - the Pan-African Documentation and Information System.

Conferences, meetings, seminars and workshops for their part offer a lot of advantages. In the first place, understanding represents an important input into the formulation and implementation of operational projects, and understanding can be obtained only through research and the dissemination of the results of such research. Secondly, if economic co-operation and integration are to be fruitful, then member States have to meet to exchange ideas and agree on common programmes. Thirdly, as indicated previously, meetings, seminars and workshops constitute instruments of training and transmission of skills. With the present low level of skills and shortage of trained and experienced manpower in Africa, it

is hard to see how the secretariat of ECA can reduce such meetings, seminars and workshops. Finally, those who complain about the organization of conferences, meetings, seminars and workshops sometimes underestimate the gaps in understanding between experts of member States and the important role which conferences, meetings, seminars and workshops do play in bridging such gaps. Africa is still a young continent handicapped by the legacy of years of colonial separation and this situation needs to be redressed.

In the circumstances, it is not likely that the number of conferences, meetings, seminars and workshops will decrease. What is likely to happen is that more and more of these gatherings will be organized at the subregional and other multinational levels; namely, within existing and potential economic groupings, and the overall number may be reduced by shortage of funds from international sources. However, this is an area where member States themselves should be prepared to fund such gatherings.

(c) Institution-building

In this publication, a number of the institutions which the Commission and its secretariat have created and sponsored have been described. However, in recent years member States have expressed concern about the increasing number of such institutions because of the difficulties in financing them. Here, a distinction has to be made between the difficulties of supporting institutions created for collective self-reliance activities and the question of the excessive number of such institutions. The point is that in terms of the size and needs of Africa, the number of these institutions is still grossly insufficient. Hence, the problem is now to determine ways and means of financing the activities of the institutions so that the burden of financing them by member States can be lightened.

One way of doing that is to encourage the use of their facilities by all member States because, if they do so, they are likely to pay their dues. Another way is the use of national currencies. Finally, the use of bilateral and multilateral sources can also be intensified.

In conclusion, it is important to state that in terms of the development and economic growth needs of Africa, more institutions for collective action will be needed. Hence, it is an area where the Commission can be potentially useful. In this connection, the secretariat needs to sharpen its instruments for determining the equitable distribution of the costs and benefits of such institutions to member States.

(d) Promotion of economic and technical co-operation among member States and between them and other regions of the world

In the Lagos Plan of Action and the Final Act of Lagos as well as in the recent resolutions of the General Assembly of the United Nations, the role of the Commission and of its secretariat in promoting economic and technical co-operation among African countries and between them and the rest of the world, particularly in other developing regions, is well recognized. Thus, there is no question about whether or not there are potentials in this area. Indeed, in view of the low level of achievement in this area up to now, the potentials are enormous.

To highlight further why economic co-operation and integration are areas where the potential of the Commission and its secretariat can be developed, it is pertinent to recall the steps which the Heads of State and Government of African countries have identified for the creation of an African Economic Community by the year 2000. During the 1980s, the steps comprise the strengthening of existing regional economic communities and the establishment of others, the effective strenthening of sectoral integration at the continental level and the promotion of co-operation and harmonization among the existing and future economic groupings of the gradual establishment of an African Common Market. In the 1990s, they comprise measures for further sectoral integration through harmonization of financial and monetary policies and other measures to bring about the establishment of an African Common Market, leading to the attainment of the aims and objectives of the African Economic Community.

It is clear that if these objectives are to be achieved, there is need for a central mechanism for guiding and providing technical backstopping to the activities of the different economic groupings. The efforts of the Commission and of its secretariat in recent years, strongly supported by the secretariat of the Organization of African Unity, are steps in the right direction. In this connection, it is sufficient to mention the successful establishment of the

Preferential Trade Area for Eastern and Southern Africa whose secretariat started functioning at the beginning of 1983; the ongoing efforts to create the Central African Economic Community which would cover all the countries of Central Africa; the strengthening of the Central African Customs and Economic Union (UDEAC); and the project to devise a mechanism for co-ordinating the activities of the economic groupings in the West African subregion under the auspices of the Council of Ministers of the Niamey-based MULPOC as well as the ongoing activities to create an African Monetary Fund. All these efforts are based on the conviction that economies of scale can be derived from the harmonization of the activities of these economic groupings, most of which are so small in size that they can hardly be viable on their own, and it goes without saying that the successes so far achieved are due to the dedication of the Commission and its secretariat to this cause.

Therefore, it will be in the interest of States members of the Commission and of the Organization of African Unity not only to strengthen the role of the secretariat in these areas but also to encourage their economic groupings to participate actively and positively in this crusade for more effective and viable economic co-operation and integration.

However, as in other areas, the obstacles may be lack of political will, and the shortage of funds and personnel. These problems should be tackled by member States. Moreover, in view of the fact that the main obstacle in the way of enduring co-operation both now and in the past has been the lack of precise guidelines on how to measure concretely and distribute equitably the costs and benefits of co-operation among the participating States, the secretariat has a major role to play in coming to develop such guidelines.

(e) Operational activities

The question of institution-building has already been dealt with. The issue here is the so-called "practical projects" like industrial, agricultural and other sectoral projects whose benefits are easier to calculate and member States are able to appreciate. Already, the secretariat is engaged in the identification, formulation and promotion of the joint implementation of such projects by member States.

However, the obstacle here again is likely to be the lack of political will. Yet, if all the objectives of national and collective self-reliance are to be achieved, there is no alternative to the joint implementation of such projects by member States. This is an area where the will of member States to work together will be more tested. It appears that, while the technical capabilities will be forthcoming, the constraint may be the lack of the will to co-operate. Be that as it may, if the member States are willing, the secretariat will have to intensify its efforts in the area of training in project identification and analysis, cost-benefit analysis, project implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

(f) The secretariat as the regional "think tank" of Africa

In the preceding section, the importance of traditional activities of the Commission and its secretariat has been stressed. In this section, the case for such activities is taken further in view of their importance for the secretariat as the regional "think tank" of Africa in the economic and social sectors. In this connection, it is pertinent to recall one of the basic components of General Assembly resolution 32/197, namely, the designation of the regional commissions as the "main centres for general economic and social development for their respective regions". To this component may be added another one: "the exercise of team leadership and responsibility for co-ordination and co-operation at the regional level, taking into account the special needs of their respective regions". The question may be asked: how are these important tasks to be achieved? The answers to this question, as far as ECA is concerned, can be based on a brief review of the situation that prevailed hitherto with regard to approaches to development issues in the region and the problems of co-ordination of efforts.

Up to 1979, there was no doubt that a suitable framework accepted by all and sundry for concerted development efforts in Africa hardly existed. But in that year, African Heads of State and Government, on the basis of proposals by the ECA Conference of Ministers prepared during the twenty-first anniversary session of the Commission, adopted the Monrovia Strategy for the Economic Development of Africa. Similarly, in 1980, they adopted the Lagos Plan of Action and the Final Act of Lagos for the Implementation of the Monrovia Strategy which had also been worked out by the Commission. The importance of these documents does not lie in the fact that they provide a framework for action by member States and their partners in development since they are not the first documents that have called for joint action by African countries to tackle their economic development and growth problems. Indeed, there was

Africa's Strategy for Development in the 1970s, which was adopted by the ECA Conference of Ministers in 1971. There was also the African Declaration on Co-operation, Development and Economic Independence which was adopted by the Assembly of Heads of State and Government during the tenth anniversary of the Organization of African Unity in 1973. The importance of the Monrovia Strategy and the Lagos Plan of Action lies both in the intellectual efforts which underlay their preparation particularly with respect to conceptual clarification of the problems of development and economic growth in Africa and the delineation of appropriate approaches and in their acceptance by member States and their partners in development as *'the'* documents for concerted development and economic growth efforts in the region up to the year 2000 and perhaps beyond. Moreover, unlike the other documents mentioned above, these two epoch-making documents are now taken into account in the International Development Strategy for the Third United Nations Development Decade.

What happened in the period 1975-1978 was the use, by the secretariat of the Commission, of the results of its years of research on development and economic growth in Africa, its understanding of the historical processes of development and economic growth in the existing technologically advanced countries and of the goals and objectives of development and economic growth which African countries have consistently declared for themselves to interpret for the African region, and the call by the United Nations General Assembly in 1974 for the establishment of a new international economic order. Hence the publication of the "Revised framework of principles for the implementation of the new international economic order in Africa" (E/CN.14/ECO.90/Rev.3), whose symbol reflects the fact that it went through a series of revisions as a result of suggestions and modifications by member States. In effect, this document whose significance in the intellectual history of Africa is yet to be properly assessed was a joint product by the secretariat and member States. It was not an easy task since old habits and ideas die hard. Viewed against the persistence and stubbornness of old ideas and practices, the successful initiation and piloting of a new framework for decision-making and decision-taking in Africa was a great breakthrough.

The "Revised framework of principles for the implementation of the new international economic order in Africa" is the intellectual ancestor of the Monrovia Strategy and hence of the Lagos Plan of Action. As a result of the bold initiative of the secretariat and the support given by member States, there now exist some policy documents, however imperfect, which provide the framework for development and economic growth policies at the national, intercountry and regional levels and within which external assistance policies whether bilateral or multilateral can be integrated with national, intercountry and regional policies.

The importance of the secretariat as a "think tank" for the region as clearly exemplified by the experience with the Monrovia Strategy and the Lagos Plan of Action cannot be overstressed. Indeed, if the role of being a centre for general economic and social development in the region and of exercising leadership and co-ordination responsibility is to be played effectively, there is no alternative to the secretariat strengthening and expanding its task as a "think tank". This is particularly important in view of the growing complexity of development and economic growth issues in the region and the growing involvement of many agencies and institutions. Without continuing efforts to devise frameworks for concerted action, resources will continue to be diffused and wasted with detrimental effects on African countries and peoples.

But, if there is need to strengthen the capacity of the secretariat as the "think tank" for the Commission, how can this be done effectively? In this connection, it is important to note that, just as the effectiveness with which the Commission and its secretariat carry out their other functions will depend on the support given by member States and their institutions whether national or multinational, the efficiency and effectiveness with which the task of "think tank" will be carried out will also depend on the collaboration between the secretariat and the representatives and institutions of member States. The point is that the effectiveness of a "think tank" depends as much on the expertise available in the 'tank' as well as on clear communication between it and its audience. This underlies further the need to strengthen the secretariat and for it to intensify its collaboration and co-operation efforts with the appropriate officials and the institutions of higher learning and research of member States. The secretariat must build on its recent initiative to mobilize the research capabilities of national research institutions in support of its role as a "think tank". It must also use these institutions and Africa's institutions of higher learning as the vehicles for spreading, popularizing and internalizing its ideas about development.

C. FEASIBILITY OF THE FOREGOING POTENTIAL

The foregoing indicates clearly that the potentials for the future of ECA and its secretariat are enormous. The pertinent question is: are they feasible? The asnwers to this question depend on many factors: the environment within which ECA and its secretariat will work; the support that the member States will be prepared to give to the Commission and its secretariat; the will of the member States to co-operate; and the capacity of the secretariat to cope.

As far as the environment is concerned, it is probable that the resistance sometimes felt on the part of the specialized agencies and of departments at United Nations Headquarters will weaken in time if the secretariat, under the leadership of its Chief Executive, designs appropriate measures to implement its mandate as given by the General Assembly, and the member States continue to give their support to the rights accorded the Commission and its secretariat by both the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly. The Organization of African Unity and its secretariat also have a major role to play here by giving full political support to the directives of those bodies.

The support required from the member States goes beyond what they will do in the Council and the General Assembly. They need to support the activities of the Commission and its secretariat by participating effectively in their deliberations and other activities. Moreover, they need to use the results of the activities of the secretariat and implement faithfully their common decisions. Finally, they need to support the activities of the Commission and its secretariat financially. While this is already being done through UNTFAD and other channels, they need to improve their performance both by paying their pledges and by increasing substantially their contributions.

Economic and technical co-operation is a *sine qua non* for African development and economic growth. Therefore, member States must be prepared to back up their expressions of will with practical measures. Successful co-operation requires sacrifices in terms of both time and tangible benefits. Member States must be prepared to look at co-operation programmes and projects in a wide and longer time perspective. Finally, the strong must be prepared to support the weak.

A discussion of the capacity of the secretariat's ability to cope is not restricted to the capacity of the secretariat to Addis Ababa for there is in addition to this the capacity of each of the institutions for collective action which the Commission has created and sponsored, the more important of which are described elsewhere in this publication. ECA has put down roots and should be able to weather storms of development and economic growth in the future. The only problem is the lack of resources to support the activities of these institutions. But, as already indicated above, the benefits that can accrue from these institutions are enormous. Member States need only to support them so that the benefits can be reaped. The decision of the thirty-seventh session of the General Assembly to provide regular budgetary resources to the MULPOCs and on a permanent basis is indeed one of the major breakthroughs in recent times. By this decision the future of these MULPOCs which were established in 1977 as the subregional arm of the Commission and its secretariat has been assured.

VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In concluding this volume, it is our hope that the foregoing chapters have faithfully described the efforts that the Commission has made over the last quarter of a century in discharging its overwhelming responsibilities and in serving our highly diversified continent. As the recent independent Joint Inspection Unit's report on the Commission concluded, "Over the past 24 years ECA has gradually and painstakingly attempted to carve out a proper role for itself in African development. It appears to have had a wide variety of significant successes in its research, advisory and institution-building efforts . . . Recent events give promise of clarifying and strengthening the ECA role. In the restructuring resolution of 1977, the General Assembly designated the regional commissions as "main general economic and social development centres" and gave them "team leadership and responsibility for co-ordination and co-operation" of United Nations system activities in their regions. They were designated as "executing agencies" for certain projects in the field, and the many decentralization resolutions indicated that they would become important field operational areas of the United Nations development programmes". 1/

In the last chapter, we attempted to spell out in some details our perception as to the challenges ahead. Indeed, the Commission has for some years now been aware of some of these challenges. In 1979 when we celebrated our twenty-first anniversary, the Executive Secretary concluded his statement to the Commission as follows:

> "Therefore, as we celebrate this anniversary, let us think of the task ahead, the Herculean task of building a prosperous, self-reliant and dynamic African economy. To meet this challenge, we must resolve to be resolute, decide to be decisive and adamant to change the economic fortunes of Africa and its peoples for the better. We must pursue relentlessly and with single-minded determination the objective of establishing a new national and regional economic order in Africa based on an increasing measure of national and collective self-reliance and dedicated to the task of achieving an equitable distribution of the products of development among the African peoples.
>
> "Finally let us not delude ourselves into thinking that the challenge which we face will be met for us by outsiders. Outsiders may help - and such help is to be welcomed - but the task is ours to perform, the war is ours to fight un-

1/ Joint Inspection Unit, *Report on the Economic Commission for Africa. Regional programming, operations, restructuring and decentralization issues, (JIU/REP/82/1).*

til total victory over poverty, disease, ignorance and economic underdevelopment is achieved. Therefore, in commemorating the twenty-first anniversary of the Economic Commission for Africa, let all the member States, individually and collectively, fire the first shot now and thus launch the African economic revolution and, in doing so, lay the foundation of an economically self-reliant and dynamic Africa which, in our own interest, and in the interests of the entire international community must perforce emerge before the end of this century." 2/

That clarion call is as valid on this occasion of our Silver Jubilee Anniversary as it was four year ago on the occasion of our twenty-first anniversary. Indeed, the need to answer this call becomes more urgent today than it was in 1979. Ant it will become even more imperative in the years ahead. One only has to read the recent study of the Commission entitled "ECA and Africa's development 1983-2008 - a preliminary perspective study" to realize what a daunting task lies ahead of us. Part II of the study deals with the historical trends which clearly show the dangers ahead unless we are determined to pull ourselves up by our own bootstraps. This scenario presented under the assumption of the continuation of historical trends concentrates on Africa's four major critical sectors, i.e. food, energy, industry and trade in the light of projected demographic phenomena.

2/ Adebayo Adedeji, *The Economic Commission for Africa: its origin, development problems and prospects,* pp. 40 and 41.

According to the high variant projections of the African population by the year 2008 on the basis of the continuation of the recent population trends in fertility and mortality the total African population would be about 1.1 billion in 2008 implying an alarming population growth of 3.2 per cent yearly during the 25 years. The children in the 0-14 age group would then number as much as 479 million or more than the present entire population. The active population in the age group of 15-64 years would be over 563 million persons while the aged of 65 years and over would number 33.5 million. On the basis of present rural-urban migration rates, nearly 44 per cent of the entire population or 472.1 million persons will be in urban centres leaving the rural areas with about 604.4 million persons.

The present projections show that by the year 2008 the African region will have a total labour force of 510.3 million with 286.8 million in the rural areas and 223.5 million in the urban centres. Of the total labour force, the projections show that wage employment will absorb only around 35 per cent or about 178.8 million. A total of 44.7 million will be openly unemployed while another 238.8 million would be underemployed. The open unemployment is assessed to affect mainly the urban areas where it is estimated that by the year 2008 over 15 per cent of the urban labour force will be out of any type of work. Underemployment will, on the other hand, become a major problem in the rural areas where it is estimated to reach as high as 70.8 per cent of the entire rural labour force. In the urban centres, underemployment, mostly in the form of disguised underemployment in the public sector, will reach to about 22 per cent of the urban labour force. The projections of such low levels of utilization of the African labour force point to an increased problem of mass poverty and social unrest by the year 2008 if historical trends continue.

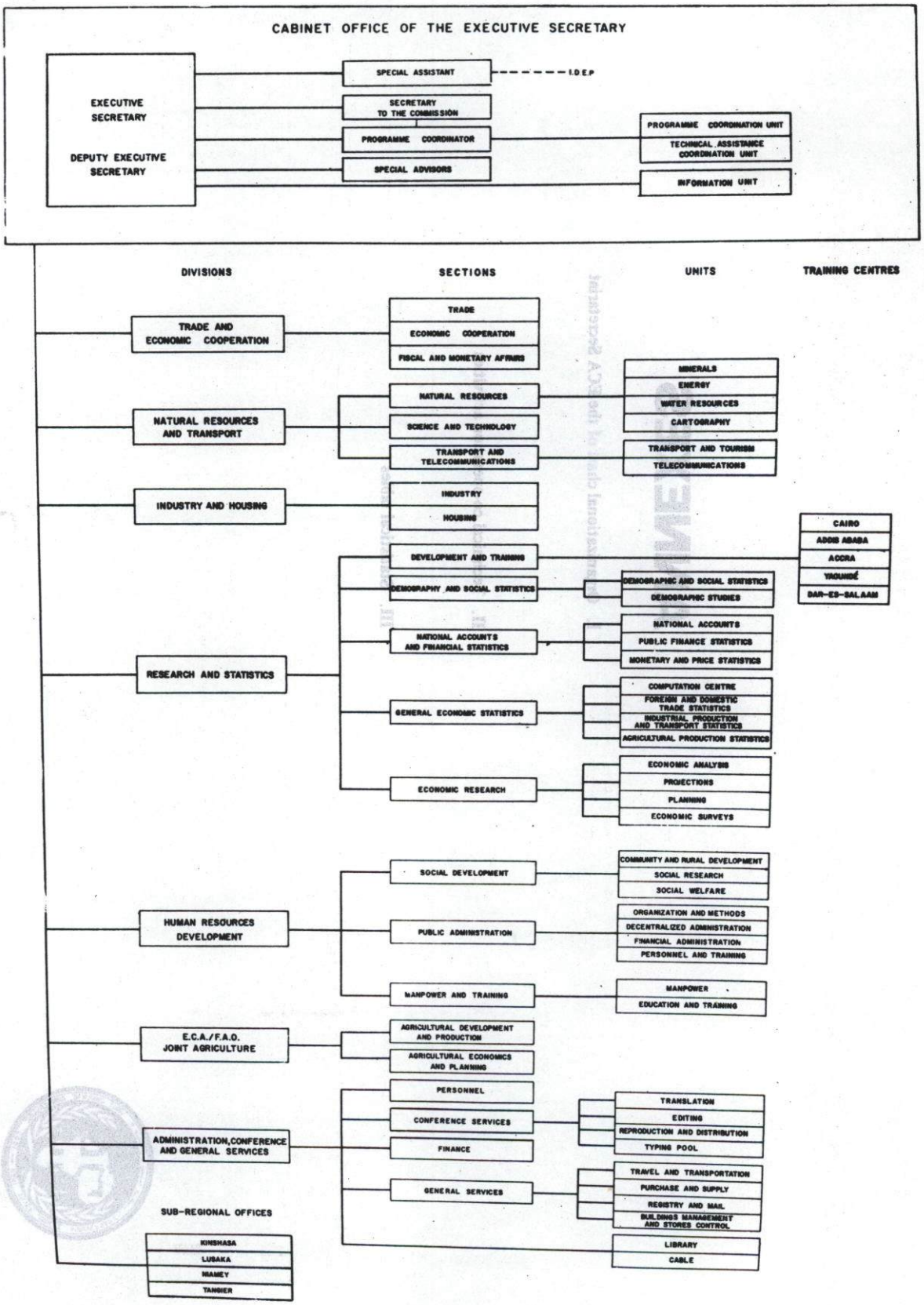
In the education field, the projected rapid increase in the school age population implies that there will be an increased pressure on the education services. The projected gross enrolment levels for the first, second and third levels are fairly high and consequently the implied burden would be almost impossible to sustain. By the year 2008 total gross enrolment for primary school is estimated to reach around 176 million children while secondary school enrolment would amount to 70 million pupils. For higher institutions of learning, gross enrolment would be nearly 9 million students. In terms of teachers that have to be produced the number of new schools that have to be built and education materials that have to be provided the education services would be strained and, most likely, the education standards would be affected adversely. Housing requirements would reach unprecedented levels of over 220 million units by the year 2008 assuming that the average family size will be around 5 persons. In the urban areas, where the tendency for single occupancy is higher, the housing problem will be even worse. For the region as a whole a total of over 115 million housing units would be required to house the urban population.

We could go on quoting *ad infinitum* from the *Study* the spectacle ahead of us if present historical trends were to continue. For us, therefore, in ECA, Africa has now arrived at the moment of truth. We must now recognize that self-sustainment and self-reliance are not the labels of rhetorical games to be played at ECA meetings. They have become the imperative necessities of contemporary African economy.

The scope and complexity of the challenges before us are now crystal clear. And in responding to them we have either of two choices: to survive and prosper or to perish or at best be the permanent underdogs of the international economic community whose continent combines the worst possible oddities - largest number of least developed countries among the developing countries, the largest number of the most seriously affected countries, and the peoples whose economies are at the periphery of the periphery of the international economy. Put in this way, the choice is none other than one of survival and of laying the foundation for an enduring African socio-economic prosperity. It is, therefore, our earnest hope that when representatives of our member States gather together in the year 2008 to celebrate ECA's fiftieth anniversary, they will be able, truthfully, to say that Africa has at last emerged as a truly interdependent economy in the international economic system.

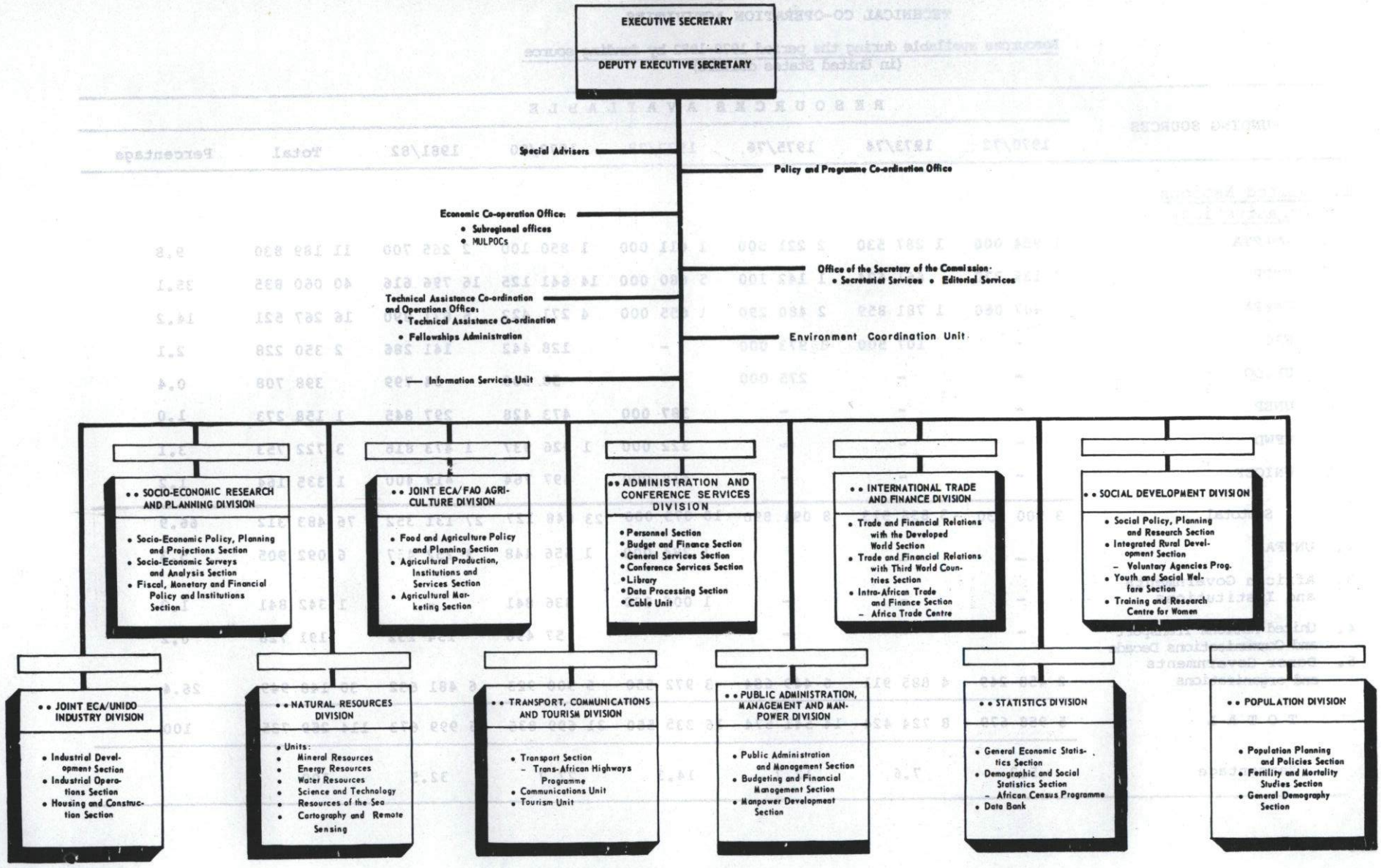
ANNEXES

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART OF THE ECA SECRETARIAT
1968



ORGANIZATIONAL CHART OF THE ECA SECRETARIAT

1982



TECHNICAL CO-OPERATION ACTIVITIES

Resources available during the period 1970-1982 by funding source
(in United States dollars)

FUNDING SOURCES	RESOURCES AVAILABLE							
	1970/72	1973/74	1975/76	1977/78	1979/80	1981/82	Total	Percentage
1. United Nations Organizations								
UNRPTA	1 954 000	1 287 530	2 221 500	1 611 000	1 850 100	2 265 700	11 189 830	9.8
UNDP	1 139 370	661 624	1 142 100	5 680 000	14 641 125	16 796 616	40 060 835	35.1
UNFPA	407 060	1 781 859	2 480 290	1 655 000	4 271 422	5 671 890	16 267 521	14.2
FAO	-	107 500	1 973 000	-	128 442	141 286	2 350 228	2.1
UNIDO	-	-	275 000	-	58 909	64 799	398 708	0.4
UNEP	-	-	-	387 000	473 428	297 845	1 158 273	1.0
VFWD	-	-	-	322 000	1 926 937	1 473 816	3 722 753	3.1
UNICEF	-	-	-	418 000	497 764	419 400	1 335 164	1.2
Subtotal	3 500 430	3 838 513	8 091 890	10 073 000	23 848 127	27 131 352	76 483 312	66.9
2. UNTFAD	-	-		1 284 000	1 556 448	3 252 457	6 092 905	5.3
3. African Governments and Institutions	-	-	-	1 006 000	336 841	-	1 342 841	1.2
4. United Nations Transport and Communications Decade	-	-	-	-	57 496	134 232	191 728	0.2
5. Donor Governments and organizations	2 458 249	4 885 911	6 449 684	3 972 550	5 900 923	6 481 632	30 148 949	26.4
T O T A L	5 958 679	8 724 424	14 541 574	16 335 550	31 699 835	36 999 673	114 259 735	100
Percentage	5.2	7.6	12.7	14.3	27.7	32.5	100	

TECHNICAL CO-OPERATION ACTIVITIES

Resources available during the period 1970-1982 by programme
(in United States dollars)

Programme	RESOURCES AVAILABLE 1970/72	1973/74	1975/76	1977/78	1979/80	1981/82	TOTAL	Percentage
1. Agriculture	355 467	88 180	2 205 456	555 275	1 012 431	871 805	5 088 614	4.5
2. Development issues and policies (including economic co-operation)	2 486 020	1.740 080	2 939 950	4 384 720	8 186 267	9 530 548	29 267 585	25.6
3. Public administration, management and manpower	842 971	1 521 788	2 308 218	2 559 031	3 998 645	4 765 988	15 996 641	14.0
4. Industry	562 430	839 928	958 602	1 216 000	3 042 151	2 604 420	9 223 531	8.0
5. International Trade ie and finance	457.282	1 158 940	1 714 248	1 717 254	1.914 331	927 290	7 889 345	6.9
6. Natural resources	69 295	1 053 770	1 644 410	955 590	2 481 643	4 645 179	10 849 887	9.5
7. Population	407 060	1 781 859	2 480 290	1 915 000	4 602 161	5 671 890	16 858 260	14.8
8. Social development	-	-	-	2 287 680	3 356 493	4 176 583	9 820 756	8.6
9. Statistics	92 268	-	38 400	196 000	1 080 424	1 039 043	2 446 135	2.1
10. Transport, communications and tourism	685 886	539 879	252 000	549 000	2 025 289	2 766 927	6 818 981	6.0
Total	5 958 679	8 724 424	14 541 574	16 335 550	31 699 835	36 999 673	114 259 735	100
Percentage	5.2	7. 6	12.7	14.3	27.7	32.5	100	

Table 1. Statistical tables and charts, estimates of mid-year population (in thousands)

	1958	1963	1968	1973	1978	1983
NORTH AFRICA	62134	69769	79952	90344	103258	116712
Algeria	10352	11205	13495	15772	18515	21258
Egypt	24655	27947	31693	35619	39636	43653
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	1255	1504	1836	2242	2748	3254
Morocco	10987	12665	14580	16309	18906	21503
Sudan	10814	11992	13428	14958	17376	19794
Tunisia	4071	4456	4920	5444	6077	6710
WEST AFRICA	74738	85536	98311	113946	132588	151230
Benin	1956	2222	2576	2948	3377	3806
Cape Verde	190	219	256	286	314	342
Gambia	312	359	438	496	569	642
Ghana	6303	7422	8240	9607	10969	12331
Guinea	3069	3360	3747	4206	4763	5320
Guinea-Bissau	519	524	484	507	553	599
Ivory Coast	3113	3768	4815	6149	7613	9077
Liberia	922	1071	1213	1473	1742	2011
Mali	3868	4394	4832	5376	6290	7204
Mauritania	926	1043	1182	1347	1544	1741
Niger	2715	3244	3802	4336	5001	5666
Nigeria	40186	46000	53100	61713	72217	82721
Senegal	2967	3326	3988	4696	5381	6066
Sierra Leone	2082	2302	2569	2895	3292	3689
Togo	1437	1613	1889	2119	2409	2699
Upper Volta	4173	4669	5180	5792	6554	7316
CENTRAL AFRICA	34761	39660	46073	52498	60241	67997
Angola	4667	5015	5362	5967	6732	7497
Burundi	2749	3063	3465	3795	4256	4717
Cameroon, United Republic of	5508	5967	6524	7210	8058	8906
Central African Republic	1371	1577	1783	1889	2127	2365
Chad	2919	3177	3497	3859	4309	4759
Congo	933	1029	1145	1287	1459	1631
Equatorial Guinea	234	258	281	309	346	383
Gabon a/	449	469	493	533	618	716
Rwanda	2510	2924	3462	4008	4508	5008
Sao Tome and Principe	63	58	64	78	83	88
Zaire	13358	16123	19997	23563	27745	31927

EAST AFRICA	70183	78888	88524	101917	117801	133661
Botswana	507	555	557	646	730	814
Comoros	182	224	258	288	320	352
Ethiopia	20100	21909	23438	26188	29705	33222
Kenya	7652	8855	10483	12482	14856	17230
Lesotho	841	917	1015	1137	1279	1421
Madagascar	5261	5825	6496	7304	8289	9274
Malawi	3249	3702	4227	4791	5669	6547
Mauritius	622	732	817	860	925	990
Mozambique	6369	6842	7274	8755	9935	11155
Seychelles	39	45	49	55	62	69
Somalia	2132	2388	2667	3006	3443	3880
Swaziland	330	370	398	463	544	625
Tanzania, United Republic of	9834	11115	12588	14372	16553	18734
Uganda	6356	7595	9164	10810	12780	14750
Zambia	3040	3490	4010	4675	5472	6269
Djibouti b/	59	94	123	195	309	359
Zimbabwe	3610	4230	4960	5890	6930	7970
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	869	1905	1212	1402	1612	1822

Sources: United Nations Demographic Yearbook, special issue: Historical supplement, New York, 1979.

a/ These figures, which are ECA Statistics Division estimates, differ considerably from those accepted by the Government of Gabon for 1970 and 1980.

b/ ECA, Statistics Division estimates.

Table 2. Growth rate for total population

	1958-63	1963-68	1968-73	1973-78	1978-83
NORTH AFRICA	2.43	2.92	2.68	2.97	2.32
Algeria	1.60	3.78	3.17	3.26	2.80
Egypt	2.54	2.55	2.36	2.16	1.95
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	3.67	4.06	4.08	4.15	3.44
Morocco	2.88	2.86	2.27	2.99	1.12
Sudan	2.09	2.29	2.18	3.04	2.64
Tunisia	1.82	2.00	2.04	2.22	2.00
WEST AFRICA	2.56	2.65	2.73	2.79	2.44
Benin	2.58	3.00	2.73	2.75	2.42
Cape Verde	2.88	3.17	2.24	1.89	1.72
Gambia	2.85	4.06	2.52	2.78	2.44
Ghana	3.32	2.11	3.12	2.68	2.37
Guinea	1.83	2.20	2.34	2.52	2.24
Guinea-Bissau	0.19	-1.58	0.93	1.75	1.61
Ivory Coast	3.89	5.03	5.01	4.36	3.58
Liberia	3.04	2.52	3.96	3.41	2.91
Mali	2.58	1.92	2.16	3.19	2.75
Mauritania	2.41	2.53	2.65	2.77	2.43
Niger	3.62	3.23	2.66	2.89	2.53
Nigeria	2.74	2.91	3.05	3.19	2.75
Senegal	2.31	3.70	3.32	2.76	2.43
Sierra Leone	2.03	2.22	2.42	2.60	2.30
Togo	2.34	3.21	2.32	2.60	2.30
Upper Volta	2.27	2.09	2.26	2.50	2.22
CENTRAL AFRICA	1.81	2.25	2.31	2.40	2.01
Angola	1.45	1.35	2.16	2.44	2.18
Burundi	2.19	2.49	1.84	2.32	2.08

Cameroon, United Republic of.....	1.61	1.80	2.02	2.25	2.02
Central African Republic.....	2.84	2.49	1.16	2.40	2.14
Chad	1.71	1.94	1.99	2.23	2.01
Congo	1.98	2.16	2.37	2.54	2.25
Equatorial Guinea	1.97	1.72	1.92	2.29	2.05
Gabon	0.88	1.00	1.57	3.00	2.99
Rwanda	3.10	3.44	2.97	2.38	2.13
Sao Tome and Principe.....	-1.67	1.99	4.03	1.25	1.18
Zaire	3.83	4.40	3.34	3.32	1.05
EAST AFRICA	3.02	2.44	3.13	3.17	2.46
Botswana	1.83	0.07	3.01	2.48	2.20
Comoros	4.24	2.87	2.22	2.13	1.92
Djibouti	9.76	5.53	9.65	9.64	3.05
Ethiopia	1.74	1.36	2.24	2.55	2.26
Kenya	2.96	3.43	3.55	3.54	3.01
Lesotho	1.75	2.05	2.30	2.38	2.13
Madagascar	2.06	2.20	2.37	2.56	2.27
Malawi	2.64	2.69	2.54	3.42	2.92
Mauritius	3.31	2.22	1.03	1.47	1.37
Mozambique	1.44	1.23	3.78	2.56	2.34
Seychelles	2.90	1.72	2.34	2.42	2.16
Somalia	2.29	2.23	2.42	2.75	2.42
Swaziland	2.31	1.47	3.07	3.28	2.81
Tanzania, United Republic of.....	2.48	2.52	2.69	2.87	2.51
Uganda	3.63	3.83	3.36	3.40	2.91
Zambia	2.80	2.82	3.12	3.20	2.76
Zimbabwe	3.22	3.24	3.50	3.31	2.76
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	5.30	4.86	4.67	4.33	3.26

Source: Computed from table 1.

Table 3. Crude birth dates

	1958	1965	1968	1978	1978	1983
NORTH AFRICA	47.56	47.43	45.88	44.00	43.56	41.85
Algeria	50.8	50.4	49.8	48.8	47.5	47.2
Egypt	44.0	43.1	41.0	37.1	38.6	35.2
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	48.5	49.0	49.5	49.0	47.4	45.4
Morocco	50.4	50.1	48.2	46.8	45.4	44.1
Sudan	45.0	45.5	45.5	45.8	45.8	44.7
Tunisia	46.7	46.5	41.3	36.5	36.7	34.5
WEST AFRICA	49.08	48.33	47.58	46.95	46.56	45.81
Benin	50.9	50.2	49.5	49.0	48.8	48.5
Cape Verde	46.7	43.9	37.7	31.8	25.7	23.8
Gambia	48.9	47.1	46.8	46.7	47.5	47.5
Ghana	47.8	49.7	50.0	48.6	48.4	46.7
Guinea	47.1	46.6	47.1	46.6	46.1	43.3
Guinea-Bissau	41.1	39.7	40.7	40.1	40.8	39.9
Ivory Coast	50.3	50.1	49.8	49.0	47.6	45.1
Liberia	51.3	50.9	50.3	49.8	49.7	47.9
Mali	50.2	49.6	49.1	49.0	49.1	49.2
Mauritania	51.1	50.2	49.9	49.9	50.2	50.4
Niger	52.4	51.3	50.7	50.9	51.4	51.7

Nigeria	52.1	51.8	51.0	50.2	49.8	49.5
Senegal	48.6	47.1	46.5	46.9	47.8	47.9
Sierra Leone	47.3	46.5	45.8	45.6	45.5	45.3
Togo	50.8	50.2	48.4	49.1	48.8	48.5
Upper Volta	48.7	48.4	48.1	48.0	47.8	47.9
CENTRAL AFRICA	45.74	45.08	44.42	43.01	43.11	42.64
Angola	49.5	49.5	49.1	48.0	47.6	47.3
Burundi	48.5	47.8	47.2	47.1	47.2	46.8
Cameroon, United Republic of.....	43.4	42.4	41.9	42.1	42.3	41.1
Central African Republic.....	42.1	41.8	41.2	41.0	41.5	42.3
Chad	46.0	45.1	44.2	43.8	43.9	43.8
Congo	45.7	45.4	44.9	45.0	44.6	47.9
Equatorial Guinea	43.5	42.4	41.9	42.1	42.3	41.1
Gabon	32.7	32.1	31.4	31.4	32.7	33.7
Rwanda	51.7	50.6	49.9	49.7	49.6	49.4
Sao Tome and Principe a/.....	52.1	50.7	49.3	36.2	36.4	36.6
Zaire	48.0	48.1	47.7	46.8	46.2	44.1
EAST AFRICA	48.01	47.41	45.71	44.91	45.05	44.13
Botswana	49.7	50.1	50.4	50.7	50.9	49.5
Comoros	48.4	48.0	46.9	44.4	40.0	37.5
Djibouti	47.1	46.6	46.1	45.6	45.1	44.7
Ethiopia	51.0	50.5	50.0	49.9	49.9	49.9
Kenya	52.1	50.7	50.2	50.5	50.8	49.0

Table 3 (continued)/Annex III

Lesotho	40.8	40.1	39.5	39.5	39.8	38.6
Madagascar	47.2	46.3	45.3	45.1	45.0	44.8
Malawi	53.3	52.6	51.8	51.4	51.1	50.8
Mauritius	43.8	39.5	33.1	27.1	25.7	23.4
Mozambique	45.8	45.9	45.8	45.5	44.8	44.6
Seychelles	39.7	41.3	35.3	29.5	40.1	40.0
Somalia	57.5	57.1	45.9	47.2	48.3	48.0
Swaziland	49.6	48.8	48.7	48.3	46.9	45.6
Tanzania, United Republic of	46.1	47.0	46.9	46.9	46.3	46.2
Uganda	45.7	44.4	44.2	44.9	44.7	44.6
Zambia	50.9	50.3	49.8	49.6	49.2	47.4
Zimbabwe	47.4	46.7	47.1	47.5	47.3	45.7
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	45.5	43.9	40.7	36.2	33.8	31.3

Sources: United Nations, Selected demographic indicators by country, 1950-2000, ST/ESA/SER.R/38, New York 1980.
United Nations, Demographic Yearbook. op.cit.

a/ ECA, Population Division estimates.

Table 4. Crude death dates

	1958	1963	1968	1973	1978	1983
NORTH AFRICA	21.5	19.53	17.51	15.48	13.76	12.13
Algeria	21.2	19.4	17.4	15.4	13.5	11.8
Egypt	19.9	18.0	15.9	14.2	12.8	11.4
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	19.9	18.3	16.8	14.8	12.8	11.2
Morocco	22.7	19.6	17.4	15.7	13.6	11.7
Sudan	25.0	24.0	22.1	20.2	18.4	16.5
Tunisia	20.3	17.9	15.5	12.6	11.5	10.2
WEST AFRICA	27.43	24.81	22.82	21.14	19.65	18.16
Benin	28.0	25.5	23.2	21.1	19.1	17.3
Cape Verde	15.5	13.6	11.7	10.0	8.8	8.1
Gambia	28.2	25.3	24.0	22.9	23.0	21.7
Ghana	25.1	23.3	21.2	19.1	17.2	15.4
Guinea	32.1	28.4	25.5	22.9	20.7	18.7
Guinea-Bissau	32.9	29.3	26.8	25.1	23.2	21.2
Ivory Coast	27.8	25.3	22.8	20.5	18.3	16.2
Liberia	25.8	23.4	21.1	19.1	17.2	15.3
Mali	27.8	25.4	24.2	23.1	22.1	21.1
Mauritania	28.4	25.6	24.5	23.3	22.3	21.3

Table 4 (continued)/Annex III

Niger	28.4	25.9	24.1	23.4	22.4	21.4
Nigeria	26.4	24.1	21.8	19.7	17.8	16.0
Senegal	28.1	25.3	24.0	22.9	22.1	21.1
Sierra Leone	28.3	25.5	23.1	21.0	19.2	17.4
Togo	28.1	25.5	22.9	21.0	19.0	17.2
Upper Volta	28.0	25.5	24.3	23.2	22.1	21.1
CENTRAL AFRICA	27.85	25.37	23.03	21.29	18.96	16.99
Angola	31.9	30.0	27.9	25.3	23.1	21.0
Burundi	27.9	25.4	23.1	25.2	19.8	18.4
Cameroon, United Republic of	28.5	25.7	23.2	21.2	19.4	17.4
Central African Republic	27.2	24.8	22.6	20.7	19.0	17.5
Chad	30.3	27.5	25.0	22.7	20.8	18.9
Congo	27.8	25.2	22.8	20.9	19.0	17.0
Equatorial Guinea	28.2	25.5	23.2	21.2	19.4	17.4
Gabon	29.6	27.1	24.9	23.2	21.5	19.9
Rwanda	28.5	25.8	23.4	21.2	19.3	17.4
Sao Tome and Principe a/	21.8	18.5	15.2	11.9	8.6	5.3
Zaire	24.7	23.6	22.1	20.7	18.7	16.7
EAST AFRICA	24.05	21.99	20.11	18.21	16.87	15.27
Botswana	25.4	23.3	21.3	19.3	17.4	15.4
Comoros	22.1	21.2	20.2	19.0	17.7	16.1
Djibouti	31.9	29.7	27.5	25.3	23.1	21.0
Ethiopia	29.1	27.4	25.9	25.4	24.9	23.1
Kenya	19.7	17.5	15.6	14.0	12.4	10.8

Lesotho	24.3	21.8	19.6	17.9	16.3	14.6
Madagascar	27.9	25.3	22.9	20.9	19.0	17.2
Malawi	28.5	25.8	25.3	21.1	19.1	17.2
Mauritius	11.1	9.3	7.7	6.7	6.2	6.0
Mozambique	27.4	25.1	23.0	21.0	19.0	17.2
Seychelles	11.5	11.4	10.9	8.5	11.2	10.1
Somalia	20.6	28.2	24.1	21.7	20.4	19.1
Swaziland	28.4	25.6	23.3	21.2	19.0	17.1
Tanzania, United Republic of.....	23.4	21.4	19.5	17.6	15.8	14.2
Uganda	21.7	19.4	17.5	16.0	14.4	12.8
Zambia	25.6	23.2	21.0	19.1	17.2	15.4
Zimbabwe	20.4	18.3	16.6	14.9	13.6	12.3
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	18.0	15.9	13.9	12.2	11.0	10.0

Sources: United Nations, Selected demographic indicators by country, op.cit.
United Nations, Demographic Yearbook. Special issue, op.cit.

a/ ECA Population Division estimates.

Table 5. Life expectancy at birth, both sexes

	1958	1963	1968	1975	1978	1983
NORTH AFRICA	44.28	46.75	49.43	51.83	54.28	56.58
Algeria	44.7	48.3	51.4	53.9	56.3	58.5
Egypt	44.9	47.4	49.9	52.4	54.8	57.1
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	45.4	47.9	50.4	52.9	55.4	57.7
Morocco	45.4	47.9	50.4	52.9	55.4	57.7
Sudan	38.0	40.0	42.0	44.0	46.5	49.0
Tunisia	46.3	49.0	52.5	55.0	57.3	59.5
WEST AFRICA	36.66	39.13	41.24	43.19	45.10	47.11
Benin	36.0	38.4	40.9	43.4	45.9	48.3
Cape Verde	50.8	53.2	55.7	58.1	60.1	62.1
Gambia	36.0	38.4	39.7	40.9	41.0	42.5
Ghana	37.0	38.4	40.9	43.4	45.9	48.3
Guinea	33.5	36.0	38.5	41.0	43.5	46.0
Guinea-Bissau	30.5	33.5	36.5	38.5	41.0	43.5
Ivory Coast	36.0	38.5	41.0	43.5	46.0	48.5
Liberia	38.4	40.9	43.4	45.9	48.3	50.8
Mali	36.0	38.4	39.7	40.9	42.1	43.4
Mauritania	36.0	38.4	39.7	40.9	42.1	43.4
Niger	36.0	38.4	40.1	40.9	42.1	43.4
Nigeria	37.5	40.0	42.5	45.0	47.5	50.0
Senegal	36.0	38.4	39.7	40.9	42.1	43.4
Sierra Leone	36.0	38.4	40.9	43.4	45.9	48.3

Togo	36.0	38.5	41.0	43.5	46.0	48.5
Upper Volta	36.0	38.4	39.7	40.9	42.1	43.4
CENTRAL AFRICA	32.4	37.9	40.2	42.2	45.0	47.5
Angola	32.1	34.0	36.0	38.5	41.0	43.5
Burundi	36.0	38.4	40.9	38.4	44.9	46.9
Cameroon, United Republic of	36.0	38.5	41.0	43.5	46.0	48.5
Central African Republic	36.0	38.5	41.0	43.5	46.0	48.5
Chad	33.8	36.3	38.8	41.3	43.8	46.3
Congo	36.0	38.5	41.0	43.5	46.0	48.5
Equatorial Guinea	36.0	38.5	41.0	43.5	46.0	48.5
Gabon	35.0	37.0	39.0	41.0	43.5	46.0
Rwanda	36.0	38.4	40.9	43.4	45.9	48.3
Sao Tome and Principe a/	36.2	38.7	41.1	43.6	46.0	48.6
Zaire	39.5	40.5	42.0	43.5	46.0	48.5
EAST AFRICA	40.2	42.5	44.8	47.2	49.2	51.5
Botswana	38.4	40.9	43.4	45.9	48.3	50.8
Comoros a/	42.0	43.0	44.0	45.0	46.0	48.0
Djibouti a/	31.1	33.6	36.0	38.5	40.9	43.6
Ethiopia	35.0	36.5	38.0	38.5	39.0	41.0
Kenya	45.9	48.3	50.8	53.2	55.7	58.1
Lesotho	40.4	42.8	45.3	47.8	50.3	52.8
Madagascar	36.0	38.5	41.0	43.5	46.0	48.5
Malawi	36.0	38.5	41.0	43.5	46.0	48.5
Mauritius	57.6	60.4	63.2	65.5	67.1	68.5
Mozambique	36.0	38.5	41.0	43.5	46.0	48.5
Seychelles a/	48.7	51.0	53.4	58.4	58.0	60.2
Somalia	35.1	36.8	38.5	41.0	43.0	45.0
Swaziland	36.0	38.4	40.9	43.4	45.9	48.4
Tanzania, United Republic of	40.5	43.0	45.5	48.0	50.5	53.0
Uganda	42.5	45.0	47.5	50.0	52.5	55.0
Zambia	38.4	40.9	43.4	45.9	48.3	50.8
Zimbabwe a/	44.0	46.5	49.0	51.5	53.5	55.5
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	48.2	50.7	53.4	56.0	58.1	60.1

Sources: United Nations, Selected demographic indicators by country, op.cit.

a/ ECA, Population Division estimates.

Table 6. School enrolment ratios for the first level of education

	1958	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1983
NORTH AFRICA							
Algeria	N.A.	46	68	75	89	N.A.	N.A
Egypt	N.A.	66	75	69	72	N.A	N.A
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya.....	N.A.	59	78	111	150	N.A.	N.A.
Morocco	N.A.	47	57	52	61	N.A.	N.A.
Sudan	N.A.	25	29	33	40	N.A.	N.A.
Tunisia	N.A.	66	91	100	95	N.A.	N.A.
WEST AFRICA							
Benin	N.A.	26	34	40	53	N.A.	N.A.
Cape Verde	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A	N.A.	N.A.
Gambia	N.A.	12	21	26	35	N.A.	N.A.
Ghana	N.A.	N.A.	69	61	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Guinea	N.A.	30	31	33	35	N.A.	N.A.
Guinea-Bissau	N.A.	25	26	44	75	N.A.	N.A.
Ivory Coast	N.A.	46	60	76	87	N.A.	N.A.
Liberia	N.A.	31	41	53	62	N.A.	N.A.
Mali	N.A.	10	24	26	28	N.A.	N.A.
Mauritania	N.A.	8	13	16	22	N.A.	N.A.
Niger	N.A.	5	11	14	19	N.A.	N.A.
Nigeria	N.A.	36	32	34	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Senegal	N.A.	27	40	43	45	N.A.	N.A.

Sierra Leone	N.A.	23	29	34	29	N.A.	N.A.
Togo	N.A.	44	55	72	98	N.A.	N.A.
Upper Volta	N.A.	8	12	13	15	N.A.	N.A.
ENTRAL AFRICA							
Angola	N.A.	21	39	70	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Burundi	N.A.	18	26	30	22	N.A.	N.A.
Cameroon, United Republic of	N.A.	65	94	107	119	N.A.	N.A.
Central African Republic	N.A.	32	56	69	79	N.A.	N.A.
Chad	N.A.	16	34	37	38	N.A.	N.A.
Congo	N.A.	78	114	133	155	N.A.	N.A.
Equatorial Guinea	N.A.	62	65	67	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Gabon	N.A.	100	134	164	202	N.A.	N.A.
Rwanda	N.A.	49	53	70	58	N.A.	N.A.
Sao Tome and Principe	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Zaire	N.A.	60	70	90	92	N.A.	N.A.
EAST AFRICA							
Botswana	N.A.	42	65	65	85	N.A.	N.A.
Comoros	N.A.	14	24	36	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Djibouti	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Ethiopia	N.A.	7	11	17	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Kenya	N.A.	47	54	64	109	N.A.	N.A.
Lesotho	N.A.	83	94	95	121	N.A.	N.A.
Madagascar	N.A.	52	65	83	88	N.A.	N.A.
Malawi	N.A.	63	44	40	63	N.A.	N.A.
Mauritius	N.A.	98	101	108	106	N.A.	N.A.
Mozambique	N.A.	48	37	47	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Seychelles	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Somalia	N.A.	9	10	9	58	N.A.	N.A.
Swaziland	N.A.	58	74	90	102	N.A.	N.A.
Tanzania, United Republic of	N.A.	25	32	38	70	N.A.	N.A.
Uganda	N.A.	49	67	61	53	N.A.	N.A.
Zambia	N.A.	42	53	87	95	N.A.	N.A.
Zimbabwe	N.A.	96	110	99	99	N.A	N.A.

Source: UNESCO: Statistical Yearbook, 1970, 1978-79, 1980.

Annex III

Table 7. Total imports and exports (in millions of United States dollars)

	Imports c.i.f.				Exports f.o.b			
	1958	1968	1978	1980	1958	1968	1978	1980
NORTH AFRICA	2 644	3 149	26 341	30 844	1 603	4 169	21 168	44 677
Algeria	1 139	815	8 682	10 811	488	830	6 354	13 656
Egypt	690	666	6 727	4 860	478	622	1 737	3 046
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	97	645	4 602	5 850*	14	1 876	9 907	22 795
Morocco	393	548	2 970	4 185	345	450	1 511	2 403
Sudan	171	258	1 198	1 616	125	233	533	543
Tunisia	154	217	2 162	3 522	153	158	1 126	2 234
WEST AFRICA	1 266	1 892	20 451	23 171	1 167	2 002	15 378	32 846
Benin	21	50	267	328	18	22	26	46*
Cape Verde	13	10	44	56*	11	1	2	2*
Gambia	11	21	100	126	12	13	39	62
Ghana	237	308	993	469*	263	307	986	827*
Guinea	62*	50*	234*	325*	25	53*	294*	355*
Guinea-Bissau	8	18	49*	70*	7	3	8	12*
Ivory Coast	109	314	2 325	2 365*	150	425	2 322	2 376*
Liberia	38	107	481	534	54	168	486	601
Mali	38*	37	308	421	15*	11	147	178
Mauritania	28*	35	181	253	2*	72	123	194
Niger	10	42	247	353*	18	29	143	236
Nigeria	466	541	13 510	15 492*	380	591	9 984	26 845
Senegal	131*	180	756	1 038	137*	151	375	477
Sierra Leone	67	91	278	426	55	96	161	204
Togo	18	47	450	557	15	39	240	341
Upper Volta	9*	41	228	358	5*	21	42	90
CENTRAL AFRICA	756	1 115	3 817	5 269	779	1 245	4 791	8 019

Angola	130	303	801*	1 213*	128	271	769*	1 480*
Burundi	8*	23	98	168	6*	14	69	65
Cameroon, United Republic of	107	187	1 057	1 602	115	189	803	1 384
Central African Republic	19	36	55	81	16	36	72	117
Chad	28	54	120*	141*	25	31	53*	61*
Congo	58	84	242	424	14	49	119	971
Equatorial Guinea	13	25*	9*	22	19*	3*	17*	14
Gabon	35	65	595	682	39	124	1 107	2 199
Rwanda	3*	22	179	192*	3*	15	70	72
Sao Tome and Principe	4	6	15*	19*	8	9	19*	17*
Zaire	351*	310	646	725	406*	504	1 693	1 639
EAST AFRICA	1 263	2 455	7 740	10 766	1 069	2 313	5 473	7 793
Botswana	4*	33*	371*	584*	7*	10*	233*	450*
Comoros	3	7	19	32*	3	4	9	19*
Djibouti	9	35	160	194*	2	4	18	10*
Ethiopia	78	173	517	721	63	106	297	425
Kenya	170	356	1 710	2 305	93	249	1 022	1 299
Lesotho	14*	34*	269*	411*	4*	6*	35	45
Madagascar	126	170	443	685	96	116	386	387
Malawi	34	70	339	439	20*	48	185	295
Mauritius	63	76	501	619	61	64	326	431
Mozambique	115	235	250*	230*	71	154	113*	101*
Seychelles	2	6	53*	108*	2	3	13	19*
Somalia	25	48	241	275	19	30	107	141
Swaziland	15*	48*	311*	282*	16*	55*	199*	328*
Tanzania, United Republic of	108	257	1 143	1 226	135	240	468	508
Uganda	76	162	192	237*	130	216	302	576*
Zambia (imports f.o.b.)	178*	455	628	1 118	209*	762	869	1 400*
Zimbabwe (imports f.o.b.)	243*	290	593	1 300	138*	246	891	1 359
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	48	126	604	841	32	46	116	130
DEVELOPING AFRICA	5 977	8 737	58 953	70 891	4 650	9 775	46 926	93 465
Southern African Customs Union (imports f.o.b.)	1 555	2 632	7 191	13 540*	1 096	2 109	7 281	9 771*
TOTAL AFRICA	7 499	11 254	65 193	83 154	5 719	11 813	53 740	102 413
Oil-producing developing Africa a/	2 876	3 523	38 378	44 456	1 809	4 710	31 906	74 610
Non-oil producing developing Africa	3 101	5 214	20 575	26 435	2 841	5 065	15 020	18 855

a/ Oil-producing developing Africa includes Algeria, Egypt, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Tunisia, Nigeria, Angola, the United Republic of Cameroon, the Congo and Gabon.

* Estimates.

Table 8. Structure and growth rate of African trade by subregion

	Total share of African trade by subregion				Annual average rate of change in percentage			
	1958	1968	1978	1980	1958-1968	1968-1978	1978-1980	1958-1982
IMPORTS								
Total developing Africa	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	3.9	21.0	9.7	
North Africa	44.2	36.0	44.7	43.5	1.8	23.7	8.2	
West Africa	21.2	21.7	34.7	32.7	4.1	26.9	6.4	
Central Africa	12.6	12.8	6.5	7.4	4.0	13.1	17.5	
East Africa	21.1	28.1	13.1	15.2	6.9	12.2	17.9	
Other Africa	0.8	1.4	1.0	1.2	10.1	17.0	18.0	
Oil-producing Africa	48.1	40.3	65.1	62.7	2.0	27.0	7.6	
Non-oil-producing Africa	51.9	59.7	34.9	37.3	5.3	14.7	13.3	
EXPORTS								
Total developing Africa	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	7.7	17.0	41.5	
North Africa	34.5	42.6	45.1	47.8	10.0	17.6	45.5	
West Africa	25.1	20.5	32.8	35.1	5.5	22.6	46.0	
Central Africa	16.8	12.7	10.2	8.6	4.8	14.4	29.4	
East Africa	23.0	23.7	11.7	8.3	8.0	9.0	19.3	
Other Africa	0.7	0.5	0.2	0.1	3.7	9.7	5.9	
Oil-producing Africa	38.9	48.2	68.0	79.8	10.0	21.1	53.0	
Non-oil-producing Africa	61.1	51.8	32.0	20.2	6.0	11.5	12.0	

Table 9. Developing Africa: Unit value indices and terms of trade, 1970 = 100

	Unit value indices of Imports	Unit value indices of Exports	Terms of Trade
1958	88	94	106
1959	83	89	106
1960	85	89	104
1961	85	85	99
1962	87	84	95
1963	88	86	96
1964	90	90	98
1965	91	89	96
1966	92	93	100
1967	93	94	100
1968	92	94	102
1969	93	99	106
1970	100	100	100
1971	107	108	101
1972	117	119	101
1973	140	159	113
1974	209	321	154
1975	237	303	128
1976	238	337	141
1977	264	386	146
1978	259*	243*	94*
1979	271*.	281*	104*

* ECA Statistics Division.

Table 10. Total developing African imports and exports by commodity groups
(in millions of United States dollars)

	1958	1968	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980*
Imports								
Food, beverages and tobacco (0+1)	1 010	1 220	6 264	5 935	7 574	8 589	8 855	10 130
Raw materials (2+4)	235	365	2 093	1 671	2 268	2 418	2 602	3 048
Mineral fuels (3)	550	500	2 726	2 860	3 035	3 321	4 482	6 678
Machinery and transport equipment (7)	1 680	3 130	12 456	14 605	18 750	22 120	21 401	26 506
Manufactured goods (6+8)	1 940	2 590	10 868	10 902	13 478	16 021	16 742	17 546
Others	562	852	4 115	3 261	3 845	6 484	4 827	6 983
TOTAL IMPORTS	5 977	8 737	38 522	39 234	48 950	58 953	58 909	70 891
Exports								
Food, beverages and tobacco (0+1)	1 970	2 570	5 496	6 487	8 258	8 580	8 989	9 543
Raw materials (2+4)	1 900	2 270	5 036	5 185	5 248	5 190	6 075	6 533
Mineral fuels (3)	170	2 870	20 579	26 860	31 002	28 021	47 022	70 557
Machinery and transport equipment (7)	22	61	675	641	584	643	255	449
Manufactured goods (6+8)	620	1 890	2 805	3 243	3 512	3 378	4 816	4 533
Others	-	114	1 020	780	899	1 114	919	1 850
TOTAL EXPORTS	4 650	9 775	35 691	43 196	49 503	46 926	68 076	93 465

Table 11. Developing Africa: Direction of trade by major trading partners
(in millions of United States dollars)

	1958	1968	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980*
Imports From:								
World	5 977	8 737	38 522	39 234	48 950	58 953	58 909	70 891
Developed Market Economics	4 910	6 437	29 091	30 642	37 236	46 173	48 171	55 050
Developing Market Economics	790	1 076	5 193	5 267	5 428	6 876	7 409	11 503
Developing Africa	325*	548	1 648	1 452	1 609	1 883	2 197	4 283
EEC	3 560*	4 354	19 837	21 210	25 749	30 400	33 979	35 613
USA	395	828	3 906	3 501	4 259	4 871	5 141	6 357
Japan	375	320	2 031	2 383	3 215	4 030	3 865	5 958
USSR	92	182	525	506	601	542	487	1 353
Exports to:								
World	4 650	9 775	35 691	43 196	49 503	46 926	68 076	93 465
Developed Market Economics	3 770	7 563	26 602	33 403	38 752	34 786	55 929	76 322
Developing Market Economics	550	895	5 337	5 729	6 364	4 980	7 553	12 882
Developing Africa	325*	495	1 748	1 676	1 660	1 581	2 017	4 283
EEC	2 970*	5 687	16 658	19 044	20 520	18 999	26 839	37 383
USA	385	688	6 648	11 171	14 528	12 898	21 361	26 749
Japan	55	338	1 180	1 265	891	465	614	1 733
USSR	99	275	1 008	977	686	674	505	916

* Estimates.

Table 12. Gross domestic product and GDP per capita at current prices

SUBREGION AND COUNTRY	GDP at market prices in millions of dollars					GDP per capita in United States dollars				
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
NORTH AFRICA	10874	15093	22738	58050	134754	167	205	275	616	1255
Algeria	2676	3088	4512	1436	4248	252	267	338	921	2325
Egypt	4182	5526	7035	12487	20723	161	188	211	335	498
Morocco	1796	2600	3840	8993	16559	156	200	257	521	828
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	313	1448	3722	12770	37591	232	894	1870	5234	12721
Sudan	1111	1427	2186	3103	9238	94	104	154	317	505
Tunisia	796	1004	1444	4336	8167	202	226	290	777	1306
WEST AFRICA	7323	10623	20091	52477	155194	91	116	191	433	1100
Benin	148	189	251	528	1017	72	80	92	170	288
Cape Verde	22	26	28	71	109	113	112	106	236	329
Gambia	29	40	60	157	249	75	95	130	299	414
Ghana	930	1563	2214	4594	13458	137	205	257	465	1096
Guinea	211	266	658	895	1927	69	76	168	203	385
Guinea-Bissau	76	85	63	110	154	146	167	129	212	270
Ivory Coast	578	971	1493	3884	11315	123	184	260	572	1411
Liberia	222	316	408	855	1455	219	273	304	546	792
Mali	272	383	275	507	1202	67	84	52	86	182
Mauritania	82	158	204	477	691	85	153	176	361	467

Niger	203	300	400	727	2331	70	86	99	158	437
Nigeria	3360	4705	12174	35905	115049	79	97	215	545	1494
Senegal	651	823	865	1896	2528	184	209	196	380	448
Sierra Leone	238	391	418	681	1385	107	165	152	224	402
Togo	116	176	263	599	1148	80	104	134	270	452
Upper Volta	185	229	315	592	1175	42	47	58	97	172
CENTRAL AFRICA	3433	4450	6402	14468	22848	95	107	132	265	366
Angola	718	1053	1644	2552	3817	149	203	295	429	570
Burundi	196	154	245	415	789	67	48	69	110	184
Cameroon, United Republic of	496	718	1157	3088	6736	95	124	171	410	790
Central African Republic	125	172	205	402	732	86	108	116	203	328
Chad	180	239	326	698	1011	59	72	90	173	225
Congo	111	172	274	785	1539	119	164	231	582	1000
Equatorial Guinea	41	62	76	82	69	162	228	261	266	192
Gabon	128	206	335	2159	3958	287	439	680	4161	7210
Rwanda	119	149	220	568	1147	45	48	62	139	239
Sao Tome and Principe	17	20	15	24	46	272	287	208	298	553
Zaire	1302	1507	1904	3695	3003	92	86	88	148	104
EAST AFRICA	6138	8675	11740	22143	51174	83	105	132	216	432
Botswana	35	53	84	280	897	72	102	140	406	1144
Comoros	14	24	29	71	116	73	102	105	221	207
Djibouti	24	49	71	183	329	297	545	430	796	1003
Ethiopia	979	1353	1880	2900	4399	47	60	76	104	138
Kenya	679	1000	1610	3233	7083	84	107	139	237	432
Lesotho	35	55	72	151	372	48	65	67	127	279

Madagascar	544	673	899	1867	3409	99	111	133	246	399
Malawi	132	252	321	653	1555	38	65	71	126	257
Mauritius	137	194	187	561	916	206	256	227	634	958
Mozambique	865	1141	1827	3333	2842	131	157	226	368	280
Seychelles	9	12	23	43	126	225	260	451	724	1800
Somalia	131	184	221	492	1373	65	74	79	155	376
Swaziland	35	70	113	288	458	111	195	270	588	849
Tanzania, United Republic of	549	860	1284	2575	6068	53	74	97	168	339
Uganda	566	863	1324	3051	17377	78	102	135	264	1274
Zambia	586	910	1791	2461	3854	183	246	428	494	661
Zimbabwe	843	1032	1467	2689	5057	219	230	276	426	675
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	317	580	996	2414	4935	349	551	819	1758	3228
DEVELOPING AFRICA	28107	39469	63434	152240	373962	110	136	239	502	1072

Table 13. GDP by kind of economic activity at 1970 United States dollars constant prices

SUBREGION AND COUNTRY	Percentage distribution of GDP at factor cost									
	Agriculture					Mining and quarrying				
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
NORTH AFRICA	30.00	26.37	21.23	18.65	14.05	3.10	10.53	15.82	7.42	7.29
Algeria	21.36	20.26	13.25	12.54	9.23	6.94	15.64	13.53	9.03	7.69
Egypt	29.53	28.65	29.43	25.72	18.57	-	-	2.44	2.61	4.46
Morocco	32.16	31.68	22.77	17.46	15.13	6.07	5.61	3.78	3.34	3.58
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	15.45	5.12	2.56	3.65	2.94	0.72	55.11	63.20	20.31	16.95
Sudan	57.49	47.75	44.53	45.25	35.77	0.09	0.07	0.30	0.79	0.87
Tunisia	29.14	22.15	19.32	19.69	17.35	2.22	3.29	6.20	4.92	4.51
WEST AFRICA	53.96	48.31	43.85	34.32	25.87	3.00	5.32	5.81	5.84	5.32
Benin	45.08	42.63	45.96	39.37	50.25	-	-	0.15	0.26	0.29
Cape Verde	12.95	13.89	20.24	22.14	22.68	0.49	0.42	0.67	1.22	1.31
Gambia	57.88	60.46	30.72	35.39	24.57	-	0.76	-	-	-
Ghana	48.55	46.44	49.48	45.52	41.58	3.42	2.76	1.74	2.53	1.77
Guinea	42.70	33.07	66.73	63.72	55.46	4.86	11.56	1.20	3.08	4.25
Guinea-Bissau	50.96	57.85	62.55	59.95	58.87	-	-	-	-	-
Ivory Coast	49.43	41.16	35.21	31.37	25.41	0.73	0.59	0.21	0.19	0.58
Liberia	30.72	25.55	24.84	27.12	29.69	17.93	29.26	30.42	24.97	17.76
Mali	56.27	46.94	48.16	43.18	41.92	-	0.07	-	-	-
Mauritania	56.63	38.58	29.27	25.85	20.25	-	32.06	26.41	22.26	18.18
Niger	65.39	64.54	60.41	49.41	53.81	-	0.04	0.09	2.24	4.85

Nigeria	62.94	54.40	44.27	31.86	22.41	1.16	4.60	5.98	6.80	6.05
Senegal	34.79	34.31	27.16	27.54	25.27	1.84	2.48	1.03	1.55	1.60
Sierra Leone	39.68	34.80	29.86	30.72	32.81	16.38	17.82	17.47	12.01	6.95
Togo	58.11	49.81	39.79	30.30	23.62	3.21	6.23	4.75	1.00	2.10
Upper Volta	54.90	52.44	47.45	41.46	36.75	-	0.43	0.07	0.11	0.26
CENTRAL AFRICA	41.98	38.35	37.21	32.98	31.44	4.60	3.69	8.77	11.20	9.70
Angola	50.05	50.33	44.56	46.01	37.97	2.64	2.23	5.54	16.57	18.00
Burundi	75.93	72.46	68.24	67.87	63.21	-	-	-	-	-
Cameroon, United Republic of ..	38.42	36.38	33.75	36.47	33.02	-	0.19	0.70	0.49	1.24
Central African Republic.....	48.80	43.88	34.66	38.30	38.95	3.75	6.38	4.45	3.00	2.61
Chad	55.13	51.11	53.15	45.78	47.18	-	-	0.12	1.08	1.08
Congo	19.36	15.28	43.75	34.85	34.74	1.08	0.70	1.49	4.16	4.73
Equaterial Guinea	70.59	70.97	66.21	51.33	47.11	-	-	-	-	-
Gaben	30.80	26.37	17.24	10.33	8.33	17.39	20.43	32.04	24.93	19.79
Rwanda.....	81.04	76.33	68.64	52.99	51.96	1.91	1.68	2.05	2.10	1.59
Sao Tome and Principe	34.19	37.57	39.95	46.56	39.19	-	-	0.31	0.70	0.52
Zaire	29.97	21.80	21.14	19.10	19.56	8.20	5.88	19.62	18.64	17.53
EAST AFRICA	44.37	39.63	36.72	34.34	33.69	7.90	6.24	6.92	5.98	5.40
Botswana	57.63	44.97	42.08	31.57	20.22	-	0.56	1.06	3.76	13.73
Comoros	62.97	47.27	44.56	45.41	50.03	-	-	-	-	-
Djibouti	9.35	7.48	5.11	4.00	4.73	-	-	-	-	-
Ethiopia	64.72	56.95	54.66	51.10	48.41	0.14	0.37	0.23	0.14	0.10
Kenya	40.00	34.96	34.96	33.84	31.27	0.49	0.41	0.47	0.50	0.58

Lesotho.....	73.08	65.24	40.85	26.24	18.19	-	1.60	1.75	0.51	5.99
Madagascar	40.65	38.43	34.09	34.86	34.08	0.33	0.27	0.45	0.78	0.51
Malawi	57.52	57.21	47.37	40.83	37.58	-	0.06	0.16	0.08	-
Mauritius	22.39	24.50	24.34	16.35	14.22	0.18	0.13	0.11	0.15	0.30
Mozambique	54.81	48.24	43.46	43.88	42.86	0.38	0.38	0.34	0.61	0.43
Seychelles	14.05	11.07	15.13	13.55	10.94	11.57	8.96	-	-	0.18
Somalia	44.70	44.41	37.66	31.46	31.16	8.22	5.99	6.49	5.22	5.01
Swaziland	32.38	34.66	32.70	29.07	28.58	14.75	18.79	11.26	9.10	4.17
Tanzania, United Republic of ..	61.08	45.78	41.16	37.27	39.30	2.70	2.45	1.28	0.77	0.53
Uganda	53.00	52.27	55.49	56.82	59.03	0.72	2.30	1.69	0.82	0.46
Zambia	11.35	9.99	12.30	11.50	12.86	53.65	38.07	43.10	31.35	30.89
Zimbabwe	18.62	16.93	15.60	16.89	14.29	6.75	7.07	7.24	8.92	10.36
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	19.66	21.82	13.47	11.41	10.02	25.36	28.69	18.33	17.90	20.57
DEVELOPING AFRICA.....	41.28	36.66	33.42	28.15	22.77	4.57	7.63	9.82	7.07	6.61

Annex III (continued)

Table 13. GDP by kind of economic activity at 1970 United States dollars constant prices

SUBREGION AND COUNTRY	Percentage distribution of GDP at factor cost									
	Other industries					Services				
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
NORTH AFRICA	21.46	20.75	20.09	24.16	25.21	45.44	42.35	42.85	49.77	53.35
Algeria	21.54	17.35	22.16	28.10	33.10	50.16	46.75	51.06	50.33	49.98
Egypt	25.08	27.32	25.48	25.75	23.96	45.38	44.03	42.25	45.92	53.00
Morocco	17.96	19.47	21.97	26.29	24.22	43.81	43.23	51.48	52.92	57.07
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	18.03	11.00	9.08	21.55	25.42	65.80	28.77	25.16	54.49	54.69
Sudan	15.28	14.82	16.27	14.12	13.85	27.11	37.34	38.91	39.84	49.51
Tunisia	18.86	20.46	18.68	20.45	22.05	49.77	54.11	55.80	54.94	56.09
WEST AFRICA	11.02	13.44	12.20	14.86	17.44	32.02	32.93	38.64	44.98	1.37
Benin	9.83	11.28	12.24	13.81	10.45	45.09	46.08	41.66	46.57	39.02
Cape Verde	1.32	1.99	27.84	25.93	26.05	85.24	83.71	51.25	50.76	49.93
Gambia	1.93	3.06	9.63	12.20	15.56	40.19	35.72	59.67	52.41	59.87
Ghana	10.56	15.77	17.66	18.75	19.09	37.47	35.03	31.12	33.20	37.57
Guinea	13.51	14.04	6.45	5.83	5.55	38.94	41.33	25.62	27.38	34.74
Guinea Bissau	0.80	1.10	2.95	3.09	3.90	48.24	41.05	34.51	36.97	37.23
Ivory Coast	13.97	16.11	20.26	20.42	26.55	35.86	42.14	44.32	48.02	47.46
Liberia	13.08	7.07	10.32	10.62	12.70	38.28	38.12	34.42	37.29	39.86
Mali	11.58	18.03	16.20	15.64	16.36	32.15	34.96	35.64	41.19	41.72

Mauritania	21.43	5.98	12.06	11.02	14.33	21.94	23.36	32.25	40.87	47.24
Niger	11.64	10.65	9.82	12.88	11.16	22.97	24.77	29.68	35.47	30.18
Nigeria	9.98	13.21	10.02	13.89	17.00	25.91	27.79	39.73	47.45	54.54
Senegal	14.26	14.15	21.76	23.50	26.35	49.12	49.06	50.05	47.41	46.78
Sierra Leone	9.52	9.96	[illegible].34	12.66	13.17	34.41	37.42	41.33	44.60	47.08
Togo	9.68	12.27	16.11	16.49	16.96	29.00	31.69	39.35	52.20	57.33
Upper Volta	13.07	12.39	16.48	21.87	21.64	32.03	34.74	35.99	36.57	41.35
CENTRAL AFRICA	13.83	14.42	12.44	14.26	15.07	39.59	43.54	41.57	41.56	43.78
Angola	5.37	5.05	9.70	7.70	9.06	41.94	42.39	40.20	29.72	34.97
Burundi	7.41	6.90	9.36	10.19	13.85	16.67	20.63	22.40	21.95	22.94
Cameroon, United Republic of...	19.43	21.93	15.43	14.99	16.02	42.15	41.51	50.12	48.05	49.71
Central African Republic.....	8.88	11.17	18.79	17.46	19.37	38.57	38.57	42.09	41.24	39.08
Chad	12.17	13.28	7.22	10.03	8.08	32.70	35.61	39.51	43.11	43.56
Congo	20.41	22.23	13.07	10.95	11.55	59.15	61.79	41.69	50.04	48.98
Equatorial Guinea	8.83	9.79	9.46	12.20	8.80	20.59	19.27	24.33	36.47	44.00
Gabon	15.22	14.25	13.39	24.93	28.85	36.59	38.95	37.32	39.81	43.03
Rwanda	4.70	5.32	6.45	15.91	16.61	12.35	16.67	22.86	29.01	29.84
Sao Tome and Principe	1.74	2.90	10.09	10.77	9.73	64.06	59.53	49.73	42.07	50.56
Zaire	18.61	20.98	14.72	15.01	13.93	43.22	51.34	44.52	47.25	49.52
EAST AFRICA	12.77	15.19	16.45	18.90	18.39	34.96	38.94	39.91	40.78	42.53
Botswana	11.86	17.04	19.91	29.23	23.81	30.51	37.43	36.95	35.43	42.24
Comoros	8.33	15.27	22.60	20.05	13.74	28.71	37.45	32.80	34.54	36.26
Djibouti	13.91	17.53	13.78	18.58	18.56	76.75	75.01	81.11	77.41	76.71

Ethiopia	12.19	14.28	15.02	13.65	15.41	22.96	28.40	30.09	35.12	36.08
Kenya	14.32	17.58	19.61	21.33	23.50	45.19	47.05	44.96	44.33	44.65
Lesotho	-	3.21	5.74	13.78	17.94	26.92	29.95	51.67	59.45	57.88
Madagascar	10.36	13.68	16.70	17.38	17.90	48.65	50.62	48.76	46.98	47.51
Malawi	11.06	14.24	22.02	25.04	23.93	31.42	28.49	30.44	34.05	38.50
Mauritius	26.58	25.61	24.45	31.39	33.60	50.87	49.76	51.10	52.11	51.88
Mozambique	8.67	11.96	11.63	14.39	11.77	36.14	39.42	44.57	41.12	44.94
Seychelles	28.10	30.94	17.21	16.20	16.38	46.29	47.10	67.71	70.16	72.50
Somalia	8.22	6.79	11.69	15.33	15.53	38.86	42.73	44.16	47.90	48.31
Swaziland	8.61	14.20	16.96	24.93	26.22	44.26	32.36	39.08	40.90	41.03
Tanzania, United Republic of...	6.21	11.62	16.02	15.50	12.26	29.99	40.15	41.55	46.46	47.91
Uganda	12.39	10.92	10.30	8.81	6.83	33.89	34.51	32.52	33.56	33.68
Zambia	11.30	15.44	12.19	22.88	20.41	23.70	36.50	32.40	34.27	35.84
Zimbabwe	26.47	27.59	30.17	28.26	28.81	48.16	48.41	46.96	43.93	46.55
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	15.38	13.40	16.46	14.85	14.24	39.60	36.09	51.87	55.85	55.09
DEVELOPING AFRICA	15.57	16.67	15.92	19.00	20.40	38.58	39.04	40.84	45.78	50.21

Table 14. Expenditure on GDP at 1970 United States dollars constant prices

SUBREGION AND COUNTRY	Percentage distribution at market prices									
	Private consumption					Public consumption				
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
NORTH AFRICA	71.50	65.08	59.37	62.03	58.91	16.45	16.85	19.20	24.34	24.92
Algeria	65.38	63.06	53.57	63.26	60.15	19.84	19.03	18.14	20.01	17.86
Egypt	68.21	66.46	65.74	58.37	58.03	17.57	20.05	24.71	24.72	20.51
Morocco	73.60	73.94	74.77	69.23	61.33	13.42	13.68	12.54	16.38	24.92
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	105.37	36.46	29.72	52.50	48.15	19.14	11.84	16.63	44.06	45.69
Sudan	79.45	76.92	69.25	69.84	74.55	7.94	12.72	21.03	16.36	19.07
Tunisia	75.79	70.51	66.95	65.95	65.87	16.79	15.01	17.26	15.07	17.92
WEST AFRICA	80.63	75.50	78.34	71.79	64.63	9.95	10.31	8.72	12.85	14.17
Benin	71.17	80.87	77.58	81.08	88.12	18.96	16.46	12.87	11.33	7.46
Cape Verde	95.30	103.23	128.68	113.42	109.30	9.71	12.75	10.04	11.79	10.84
Gambia	63.46	68.05	75.25	72.79	82.61	27.88	20.14	22.43	12.82	24.80
Ghana	72.59	78.05	73.66	72.42	69.83	10.04	12.75	12.84	12.87	15.44
Guinea	79.08	72.60	80.20	71.98	67.07	14.78	21.46	13.11	13.98	17.50
Guinea-Bissau	97.21	100.21	105.22	106.94	106.83	6.16	8.50	19.42	21.00	18.91
Ivory Coast	66.62	63.61	59.31	57.05	60.76	11.43	14.65	15.65	17.22	18.71
Liberia	66.23	63.35	50.61	62.39	55.31	10.81	11.27	11.06	10.98	10.92
Mali	83.48	77.38	70.45	80.57	76.96	13.24	15.43	15.79	16.98	18.65
Mauritania	76.89	55.09	52.94	56.72	65.87	24.51	16.92	16.35	24.63	28.04
Niger	77.05	77.93	85.53	81.99	77.83	13.77	11.55	12.16	12.94	14.61

Nigeria	89.07	77.08	82.54	72.72	62.68	5.89	6.62	5.69	12.06	13.37
Senegal	71.25	71.14	73.84	72.44	76.67	21.31	16.98	14.87	14.20	14.87
Sierra Leone	80.88	82.30	76.79	77.02	71.81	8.82	7.08	9.04	10.48	8.85
Togo	84.43	74.49	76.58	65.28	75.50	14.59	8.10	10.07	15.54	19.31
Upper Volta	78.68	82.90	92.19	88.92	86,45	15.22	11.20	9.27	10.55	12.51
CENTRAL AFRICA	70.28	63.08	62.20	58.57	61.44	14.10	15.24	18.31	19.41	19,06
Angola	76.93	76.65	67.47	62.89	64.68	9.40	11.33	14,07	25.97	28,46
Burundi	91.96	89.66	86.78	86.64	84.01,	2,68	6.92	9.66	10,50	12,97
Cameroon, United Republic of	71.43	68.25	72.71	73.47	73.46	13.80	17.48	12.91	10.50	9.65
Central African Republic	73.05	72.64	69.55	74.35	74.68	17.86	17.45	19.11	22.31	21.29
Chad	82.66	84.41	80.41	74.29	73.85	13.06	14.24	16.00	22.10	22.58
Congo	80.73	54.82	60.87	90.07	89.37	19.27	17.65	20.52	19.49	17.96
Equatorial Guinea	51.42	49.58	59.99	88.50	94.50	8.23	11.38	16.61	27.02	38.89
Gabon	45.25	50.00	40.17	36.07	44.73	14.56	16.54	18.91	18.76	22.38
Rwanda	81.51	80.91	87.95	75.38	71.45	10.08	14.11	8.69	16.05	14.54
Sao Tome and Principe	67.47	75.04	50.00	50.38	46.08	10.17	14.97	24.01	25.52	36.56
Zaire	62.21	44.40	45.45	38,63	39.48	18.43	18.03	27.40	22.93	22,52
EAST AFRICA	73.77	71,16	67.24	65.05	65.81	11.64	13.24	13.86	15.44	16.73
Botswana	88.40	76.99	76.40	57.75	53.97	14.80	20.90	18.64	16.50	19.35
Comoros	82.56	83.06	73.07	84.28	67.60	10.28	8.48	13.43	12.67	21.43
Djibouti	66.66	71.17	64.58	69.60	64.58	43.13	50.81	22,91	25,54	36.07
Ethiopia	81.48	78.25	80.22	75.17	73.02	7.70	11.11	9.81	14,07	14.68
Kenya	78.65	69.64	63,42	52.67	52.60	13.77	14.82	16.39	18.20	19.75

Lesotho	108.10	108.67	114.53	164,22	130,20	16.60	17.60	12,16	24.28	21.94
Madagascar	75.41	73.65	67.88	65.35	65,54	20,12	22,56	20,13	17,34	19.20
Malawi	83.26	83.30	71.32	76.14	70.89	16.10	14.87	15,35	12.87	10.40
Mauritius	79.24	68.76	70.04	63.49	48.60	14,77	14.96	15,84	13.97	20,02
Mozambique	80.73	80.24	75.57	74.51	75.89	11,22	12,41	14.03	12.75	13,60
Seychelles	88.64	91.22	83.80	64.26	48.45	11.36	8.78	14,15	21,63	29.36
Somalia	77.89	82.93	73.29	67.09	63.47	16.04	15.15	18,18	25.25	27.55
Swaziland	51.60	48.21	54.32	69.69	51.97	17,20	12.75	13.46	12.43	10.59
Tanzania, United Republic of	75.76	74.03	68.73	74.55	73.51	10.21	10,46	13.17	17.10	15.79
Uganda	77.73	76.14	73.15	79.38	83.63	9.35	11.04	10,44	13.24	13.89
Zambia	48.11	46.19	40.58	36.08	44.03	10.08	12.80	15,52	18.33	19.75
Zimbabwe	64.37	65.35	65.74	63.16	67,19	10.60	11.49	12,02	11.39	16.65
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	69.01	70.65	62.82	61.42	59,10	12.76	11.96	12.32	13.24	14.05
DEVELOPING AFRICA	74.31	69.21	67.55	65.59	62.37	13.28	13.97	14.61	18.29	19.33

Table 14a. Expenditure on GDP at 1970 United States constant prices (continued)

SUBREGION AND COUNTRY	Percentage distribution at market prices														
	Gross capital formation					Exports of goods and services					Imports of goods and services				
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
NORTH AFRICA	20.68	18.58	19.81	29.89	29.71	21.57	23.12	26.20	17.75	17.95	30.20	23.63	24.58	34.01	31.48
Algeria	35.22	18.83	37.09	48.39	45.69	23.47	22.24	25.33	14.01	10.45	43.92	23.16	34.13	45.67	34.13
Egypt	15.49	18.57	13.96	20.87	23.29	19.26	17.04	14.35	17.35	24.74	20.53	22.12	18.76	22.50	26.57
Morocco	10.56	10.94	15.86	24.35	20.87	26.73	20.59	18.20	15.72	17.76	24.31	19.15	21.37	25.68	24.87
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	44.37	29.32	18.51	34.53	32.09	14.85	57.85	65.46	21.46	17.54	83.72	35.47	30.32	52.55	43.48
Sudan	11.94	12.66	11.83	15.20	19.35	16.96	16.56	16.16	22.62	9.15	16.31	18.86	18.27	24.01	22.12
Tunisia	14.48	27.58	20.28	26.44	28.25	22.98	18.81	21.93	20.62	23.32	30.04	31.90	26.41	28.08	35.36
WEST AFRICA	13.32	16.68	13.47	25.33	27.89	20.64	19.27	17.24	13.69	10.92	24.54	21.75	17.77	23.66	17.61
Benin	17.46	13.83	17.01	21.09	14.46	13.66	13.15	27.64	25.69	29.24	21.26	24.31	35.10	39.18	39.28
Cape Verde	16.90	10.47	18.39	19.51	19.07	51.33	33.83	36.75	29.63	16.12	73.24	60.27	93.87	74.39	55.37
Gambia	12.50	13.89	14.15	18.73	39.67	44.23	44.44	29.74	48.38	32.54	48.08	46.53	41.57	52.72	79.63
Ghana	22.59	16.92	14.17	12.58	12.66	25.73	15.67	23.15	15.98	22.66	30.96	23.38	23.82	13.85	20.59
Guinea	5.76	7.15	14.82	16.50	13.44	24.95	19.18	6.93	12.94	15.27	24.57	20.40	15.06	15.39	13.29
Guinea-Bissau	5.62	4.13	13.55	5.35	9.28	5.75	4.33	4.94	5.89	9.01	14.75	17.17	43.12	39.19	44.01
Ivory Coast	14.31	18.74	22.01	21.06	31.69	33.59	29.59	37.07	33.90	25.43	25.95	26.59	34.05	29.24	36.59
Liberia	13.51	15.70	21.68	23.51	23.71	42.32	42.85	58.88	40.35	44.55	32.87	33.16	42.23	37.22	34.49
Mali	10.71	15.22	17.63	14.95	13.01	13.24	10.04	19.86	22.46	20.68	20.68	18.08	23.73	34.97	29.30
Mauritania	37.51	13.01	22.58	40.80	25.12	17.25	46.26	42.01	35.35	28.97	56.15	31.26	33.89	57.49	48.00
Niger	9.18	11.07	9.46	11.09	13.06	15.57	14.86	15.06	20.64	17.19	15.57	15.42	22.22	26.66	22.69
Nigeria	10.77	18.31	11.57	29.14	30.93	14.58	17.20	10.97	8.23	5.64	20.30	19.20	10.78	22.75	12.61
Senegal	9.36	11.89	15.70	15.78	15.16	26.86	19.82	27.20	26.06	27.99	28.78	19.53	31.61	28.48	34.69
Sierra Leone	7.35	14.31	15.29	11.05	10.89	39.18	26.65	31.27	20.94	27.32	36.24	30.33	32.39	19.50	18.88
Togo	11.68	23.63	14.49	27.47	41.27	16.55	20.98	29.58	22.51	24.39	27.24	27.19	30.73	30.80	60.48
Upper Volta	7.92	15.24	11.13	23.24	22.27	6.10	10.70	9.83	11.65	9.55	7.92	20.04	22.42	34.37	30.78
CENTRAL AFRICA	13.66	17.95	18.49	24.01	19.56	34.27	39.69	32.44	32.59	36.54	32.30	35.96	31.44	34.59	36.59
Angola	11.63	9.58	13.11	9.27	12.76	19.83	20.94	28.38	39.29	44.68	17.79	18.49	23.03	37.42	50.57
Burundi	6.25	5.58	4.49	6.93	12.29	12.50	10.34	10.57	12.27	8.01	13.39	12.50	11.49	16.35	17.27
Cameroon, United Republic of	10.20	15.74	17.65	20.69	18.81	24.24	19.68	25.51	20.75	20.03	19.67	21.15	28.78	25.41	21.95
Central African Republic	15.91	17.45	18.11	14.03	15.08	17.53	19.81	19.42	13.87	13.01	24.35	27.36	26.20	24.58	24.06

Chad	11.26	9.15	10.63	13.08	7.09	15.54	15.76	23.32	21.75	25.02	22.52	23.56	30.36	31.22	28.54
Congo	52.73	21.65	24.93	16.51	13.12	34.18	58.12	40.38	17.63	21.55	86.91	52.23	46.70	43.69	42.00
Equatorial Guinea	11.52	16.80	8.87	7.88	8.42	94.64	71.00	51.32	51.82	72.83	65.84	48.77	36.80	75.20	114.65
Gabon	39.24	25.00	29.65	70.32	38.09	38.29	51.97	47.80	30.49	37.15	37.34	43.50	36.52	55.64	42.34
Rwanda	6.05	9.81	7.09	11.14	12.70	12.44	12.10	11.51	11.68	15.66	10.08	16.94	15.23	14.26	14.35
Sao Tome and Principe	9.38	12.47	20.32	29.96	22.53	42.32	26.02	54.49	42.18	39.90	29.34	28.52	48.48	48.12	45.06
Zaire	12.29	27.80	25.64	25.84	23.48	53.00	70.06	43.59	48.89	63.69	45.93	60.29	42.08	36.30	49.17
EAST AFRICA	15.33	14.44	18.58	17.39	13.94	28.24	29.31	26.44	26.11	23.37	28.99	28.17	26.13	23.99	19.85
Botswana	8.40	18.52	38.46	42.08	35.56	22.80	27.51	26.60	50.42	56.71	34.40	43.92	60.10	66.75	65.60
Comoros	14.29	23.73	26.69	27.77	43.08	22.86	15.26	19.72	14.15	15.17	30.00	30.51	32.87	38.90	47.39
Djibouti	19.61	20.25	14.06	12.86	13.85	27.45	24.39	52.71	48.47	40.53	56.86	66.65	54.28	56.47	55.03
Ethiopia	12.12	13.56	11.81	9.41	12.26	9.75	11.76	10.00	10.26	9.03	11.04	14.68	11.83	8.92	9.00
Kenya	17.11	14.57	21.93	12.76	12.57	22.26	33.19	27.89	37.90	33.19	31.78	32.21	29.63	21.51	18.10
Lesotho	2.02	11.48	9.84	23.42	21.73	11.74	15.56	8.21	8.91	14.17	38.46	53.32	44.75	120.83	88.05
Madagascar	10.95	10.23	15.58	14.44	14.50	11.92	15.73	17.40	23.93	16.55	18.41	22.17	21.00	21.05	15.79
Malawi	18.43	13.93	26.06	20.79	22.04	18.54	18.42	22.65	20.52	19.09	36.33	30.52	35.38	30.33	22.42
Mauritius	29.85	16.82	13.84	24.44	23.55	31.54	46.53	49.43	66.92	78.36	55.38	47.07	49.14	68.83	62.53
Mozambique	9.53	9.30	13.19	7.48	8.78	13.64	13.87	17.70	14.96	15.31	15.12	15.82	20.49	9.70	13.58
Seychelles	9.16	15.72	36.96	39.43	33.17	22.71	22.81	17.90	55.33	87.69	31.87	38.52	52.81	80.65	98.64
Somalia	12.20	13.66	15.38	21.12	23.38	17.50	19.27	16.46	23.43	16.62	23.64	30.94	23.92	36.89	31.02
Swaziland	17.20	25.70	22.84	18.64	20.27	48.40	65.94	69.14	44.08	47.43	34.40	52.59	59.75	44.84	30.25
Tanzania, United Republic of	11.73	14.60	22.53	21.10	17.21	32.15	26.06	23.98	18.20	9.53	29.85	25.15	28.42	30.95	16.05
Uganda	9.21	10.48	13.33	7.82	8.40	24.75	26.71	22.22	13.43	11.39	21.03	24.38	19.14	13.87	17.31
Zambia	23.82	23.99	27.10	29.71	14.18	80.58	56.64	53.59	47.51	40.80	62.59	39.62	36.79	31.63	18.76
Zimbabwe	26.49	15.47	21.18	25.85	11.03	41.18	51.13	31.11	26.33	28.54	42.64	43.45	30.06	26.74	23.42
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	15.63	17.70	28.30	29.40	24.78	57.29	58.85	22.37	21.35	23.32	54.69	59.16	25.82	25.41	21.25
DEVELOPING AFRICA	16.52	17.05	17.39	25.34	25.65	24.82	25.77	24.23	19.59	17.90	28.92	25.99	23.79	28.80	25.25

Annex III

Table 15. Growth of GDP at factor cost by kind of economic activity in 1970 United States dollars constant prices

SUBREGION AND COUNTRY	Annual average growth rate (in percentage)											
	GDP at f.c.				Agriculture				Mining and quarrying			
	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980
NORTH AFRICA	4.84	6.07	5.97	6.83	2.17	1.55	3.29	1.18	33.85	15.05	-8.58	6.94
Algeria	-1.81	4.95	8.42	5.64	-2.83	-3.61	7.80	0.06	15.45	1.95	0.63	2.39
Egypt	5.31	2.67	4.42	8.31	4.67	3.21	1.67	1.53	-	-	8.57	21.18
Morocco	3.84	6.39	5.20	4.86	3.52	-0.41	0.08	2.50	2.16	-1.65	4.17	6.43
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	32.20	16.24	6.71	8.82	6.00	1.12	15.17	4.79	215.45	19.45	-14.20	6.28
Sudan	3.53	5.00	2.87	3.88	-0.25	3.53	3.40	-0.45	0.00	43.10	32.03	6.20
Tunisia	5.59	5.93	9.86	6.26	3.85	2.39	11.10	3.87	13.40	21.06	5.13	4.91
WEST AFRICA	3.98	11.65	5.43	7.07	1.62	9.48	0.60	1.19	16.53	11.56	9.27	5.84
Benin	2.76	5.30	3.18	0.83	1.71	6.84	0.34	6.68	-	-	19.93	2.88
Cape Verde	1.22	8.02	-1.65	3.26	5.92	4.56	0.21	3.70	-	-	10.90	4.72
Gambia	5.33	9.46	4.33	-0.30	5.59	-4.14	8.44	-3.81	-	-	-	-
Ghana	0.41	3.29	1.21	-1.47	-0.48	4.61	0.15	-3.17	-3.65	-5.98	10.12	-8.17
Guinea	2.95	15.10	2.87	1.73	-2.24	32.47	2.02	-0.93	21.91	-27.52	26.51	8.63
Guinea Bissau	4.42	-3.90	2.27	-0.93	3.79	-6.94	1.56	-0.85	-	-	-	-
Ivory Coast	8.33	7.72	6.00	6.11	5.10	4.01	3.78	1.81	4.56	-9.71	6.10	35.13
Liberia	6.47	0.64	3.30	1.56	2.52	0.00	5.25	3.43	17.61	1.44	-0.45	-5.03
Mali	-1.41	3.19	2.61	1.92	-5.03	3.82	1.36	1.41	-	-	-	-
Mauritania	10.04	6.22	2.00	-	1.92	0.36	0.26	-4.05	2.09	0.00	-0.62	-1.61
Niger	6.71	4.74	-1.02	8.11	6.51	3.34	-3.55	10.68	-	-	133.87	27.16
Nigeria	4.92	17.56	7.05	9.31	1.91	12.81	0.61	1.91	38.56	23.87	12.51	7.92
Senegal	1.03	1.27	2.37	-1.36	0.75	-3.38	3.63	-2.07	6.72	-14.97	12.25	-0.40
Sierra Leone	10.40	1.89	1.38	2.21	7.57	-1.36	1.99	3.59	12.12	1.26	-5.60	-6.26
Togo	7.10	9.14	2.00	3.19	3.77	4.29	-3.29	-1.77	20.11	1.92	-20.05	20.25
Upper Volta	-1.63	7.93	1.01	1.34	-2.31	5.62	-1.20	-1.02	-	-	11.36	20.50
CENTRAL AFRICA	0.03	4.43	2.14	0.97	-1.75	3.78	-0.24	0.05	-4.25	24.17	7.60	-1.84
Angola	5.86	3.61	-8.26	-2.15	6.01	1.12	-7.25	-4.77	2.21	24.00	18.01	0.42
Burundi	-8.52	6.72	1.12	4.77	-9.31	5.43	1.14	3.40	-	-	-	-
Cameroon, United Republic of	2.22	9.14	4.74	5.50	1.11	7.47	6.58	3.44	-	-	8.99	29.02
Central African Republic	-1.01	3.28	0.44	1.67	-2.95	-1.52	-2.53	2.08	10.76	-4.36	-6.26	-0.73
Chad	0.08	4.23	2.42	-1.28	-1.39	4.97	-0.27	-0.57	-	-	72.75	-0.60

Congo	3.84	7.77	7.10	1.11	-0.78	32.99	2.55	1.08	0.00	31.95	38.62	5.40
Equatorial Guinea	2.80	3.60	-9.88	-14.59	2.98	2.18	-13.30	-14.32	-	-	-	-
Gabon	4.00	7.95	17.87	0.47	0.82	-0.81	9.86	-3.16	7.63	18.20	14.41	-3.27
Rwanda	-6.70	15.67	9.04	4.77	-7.79	13.16	3.62	4.44	-7.79	14.87	12.87	0.01
Sao Tome and Principe	1.30	-4.07	-5.11	3.71	2.71	-8.97	-0.99	-0.48	-	-	12.33	-1.05
Zaire	-3.88	0.62	3.81	-1.68	-9.80	0.00	1.74	-1.13	-9.97	27.94	2.82	-2.72
EAST AFRICA	4.36	6.46	3.23	2.18	2.01	-4.62	1.88	1.80	-0.47	8.70	0.44	0.54
Botswana	6.40	4.00	8.15	12.66	0.76	2.80	3.07	3.10	-	-	80.13	51.72
Comoros	7.96	3.40	2.21	6.10	0.00	3.71	2.27	2.21	-	-	-	-
Djibouti	12.97	7.16	6.00	-2.67	8.45	0.00	1.16	2.79	-	-	-	-
Ethiopia	4.66	3.97	2.25	3.25	2.01	3.12	0.90	2.17	20.11	-4.36	-6.26	-2.86
Kenya	6.97	7.64	4.73	5.02	4.09	7.67	4.09	3.43	5.92	11.84	7.03	8.61
Lesotho	7.10	-0.99	6.81	8.09	5.08	-10.16	-0.45	1.41	-	-	27.62	168.13
Madagascar	0.80	5.82	1.05	1.57	-1.98	3.02	1.57	1.16	0.00	14.87	13.98	-5.52
Malawi	9.86	3.81	9.33	5.10	9.55	0.00	6.28	3.49	-	-	-5.00	0.00
Mauritius	6.61	-0.48	7.46	4.72	8.71	-0.49	2.24	3.12	-	-	30.00	21.67
Mozambique	2.37	7.78	-2.02	-0.04	-0.24	5.57	-1.67	-0.49	4.56	3.71	10.72	-6.09
Seychelles	3.71	10.76	4.56	6.34	0.00	24.57	2.29	2.42	-	-	-	-
Somalia	-0.78	4.30	4.41	2.42	-0.75	0.76	0.79	2.19	-6.01	4.94	0.27	1.57
Swaziland	10.56	6.27	7.08	6.78	13.30	3.96	4.67	6.40	16.47	-4.36	-5.31	2.56
Tanzania, United Republic of	6.15	6.16	4.48	5.83	0.21	3.88	2.56	7.00	4.32	-6.51	-1.72	0.68
Uganda	4.07	10.51	0.18	0.07	4.29	8.11	0.69	0.85	21.67	-3.58	-12.72	-9.77
Zambia	4.32	8.20	4.95	-1.06	1.66	12.87	3.56	1.36	-2.65	10.94	-1.12	-0.53
Zimbabwe	3.78	5.23	6.35	-0.92	3.76	1.77	12.05	-5.46	4.28	5.99	12.16	2.30
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	10.64	6.62	4.86	5.47	12.98	-3.19	5.04	17.80	13.41	-2.52	-0.84	2.76
DEVELOPING AFRICA	3.96	7.65	4.86	5.59	1.49	5.66	1.39	1.21	15.18	13.19	-1.69	4.45

(continued)

Table 15a. Growth of GDP at factor cost by kind of economic activity in 1970 United States dollars constant prices

SUBREGION AND COUNTRY	Annual average growth rate (in percentage)							
	Other industries				Services			
	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980
NORTH AFRICA	4.13	5.39	9.95	7.74	3.37	6.33	9.21	8.35
Algeria	-5.97	10.20	13.69	9.15	-3.17	6.81	8.16	5.50
Egypt	7.12	1.57	4.32	6.76	4.68	1.82	6.22	11.48
Morocco	5.53	9.00	9.04	3.16	3.59	10.15	5.86	6.55
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	19.73	11.89	26.80	12.47	12.04	13.15	25.43	9.04
Sudan	2.98	6.89	0.07	3.45	10.38	5.86	3.79	8.78
Tunisia	6.68	0.43	11.97	7.84	5.50	8.51	9.59	6.71
WEST AFRICA	8.12	9.49	9.66	10.54	4.48	15.24	8.78	10.00
Benin	5.92	6.96	5.15	- 4.90	3.30	3.06	5.56	-2.49
Cape Verde	0.00	47.58	-3.04	3.13	0.00	1.61	- 2.02	2.72
Gambia	12.47	-11.09	9.86	4.56	3.40	20.48	2.61	3.08
Ghana	8.80	5.69	2.38	-1.09	-0.91	0.85	2.68	1.52
Guinea	4.20	-1.44	0.50	0.48	4.15	4.66	4.35	6.74
Guinea-Bissau	0.00	14.87	0.00	0.00	6.72	2.13	3.71	-0.64
Ivory Coast	11.60	12.29	6.23	11.82	11.07	9.33	7.76	5.92
Liberia	-5.77	8.45	3.80	5.35	6.33	-1.47	5.02	2.96
Mali	7.63	1.01	1.88	2.93	0.27	3.67	5.79	2.21
Mauritania	-15.89	23.52	0.85	4.56	11.67	13.44	7.50	2.99
Niger	5.06	3.50	4.34	5.01	8.45	8.54	2.69	4.85

Nigeria	10.96	11.24	14.28	13.83	6.40	26.27	11.14	12.46
Senegal	1.01	10.36	3.98	0.87	0.99	1.70	1.30	-1.47
Sierra Leone	11.20	4.81	3.47	2.96	12.23	3.85	3.00	3.37
Togo	11.55	15.47	1.97	3.87	8.90	13.92	8.37	5.29
Upper Volta	-2.24	13.94	6.90	0.88	0.00	8.55	1.48	3.90
CENTRAL AFRICA	0.89	1.36	4.98	2.09	1.97	3.45	2.41	2.07
Angola	4.56	18.05	-12.37	1.02	6.10	2.51	-9.80	-1.13
Burundi	-10.35	13.81	2.71	11.84	-4.59	8.45	0.66	5.81
Cameroon, United Republic of.	4.71	1.72	4.17	6.80	1.92	13.29	4.11	6.31
Central African Republic	3.96	14.87	-1.21	4.04	-0.99	5.19	-0.01	0.73
Chad	1.99	-7.22	8.45	-5.40	1.95	6.29	4.67	-0.89
Congo	5.15	-3.58	4.28	1.57	4.77	-0.40	11.35	0.72
Equatorial Guinea	3.71	3.13	-6.51	-16.74	1.76	8.45	-1.82	-11.11
Gabon	2.38	6.50	33.86	3.41	5.28	6.76	21.89	4.17
Rwanda	-6.51	21.06	30.92	6.03	0.00	22.55	14.60	5.43
Sao Tome and Principe.....	-	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-5.59	-7.87	6.96
Zaire	-1.53	-6.21	4.16	-3.90	-0.51	-2.23	5.23	-0.75
EAST AFRICA	8.04	8.16	6.14	1.62	6.62	6.98	3.74	3.06
Botswana	14.87	6.96	17.98	8.90	10.44	3.26	7.58	17.12
Comoros	24.57	14.87	0.00	-7.79	14.87	2.38	4.32	1.81
Djibouti	18.47	5.15	12.20	-2.64	13.00	8.65	5.06	-2.58
Ethiopia	7.98	4.98	0.30	5.84	9.23	5.17	5.47	3.84
Kenya	11.40	9.93	6.56	7.06	7.79	6.67	4.47	5.17
Lesotho	8.45	0.00	31.95	12.89	9.63	10.29	10.37	7.93

Madagascar	6.54	9.92	2.07	2.00	1.61	5.02	0.37	1.81
Malawi	14.17	14.87	12,13	4.10	8.30	4.51	12,14	7.75
Mauritius	6,09	-1.44	13.09	5.99	6,26	0,00	7.89	4,80
Mozambique	9.06	7.17	2,24	-3.97	4.15	10,46	-3.10	1.79
Seychelles	5,92	-5.59	5.92	8.45	3.71	18.47	4,92	7.48
Somalia	-6.01	17.84	10.40	2.77	1.10	4.84	6,29	2,53
Swaziland	21.67	16.27	16.83	7.45	4.36	9,00	8.18	6,78
Tanzania, United Republic of...	20.48	13.20	3.83	0.97	12.41	6.99	6.86	6.48
Uganda	- 0.66	15,83	-2.93	-5,00	3,82	15.05	1.00	0.18
Zambia	11.14	3.24	19,02	-3,33	13.72	5.71	6.46	-0.13
Zimbabwe	4.06	7.58	4.89	-0.50	3.55	4.97	5.11	0.45
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	7.63	11.10	2.73	4.59	8.60	14.65	4.83	2.32
DEVELOPING AFRICA	5,36	6.64	8.64	7.10	4,17	8.61	7.29	7.56

Table 16. Growth of expenditure on GDP in 1970 United States dollars constant prices

SUBREGION AND COUNTRY	Annual average growth rate (in percentage)											
	GDP at m.p.				Private consumption				Public consumption			
	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980
NORTH AFRICA	5.04	6.52	5.89	7.43	3.08	4.59	6.85	6.33	5.56	9.34	11.19	7.94
Algeria	-1.43	6.38	8.14	7.97	-2.14	2.97	11.86	6.88	-2.25	5.39	11.97	5.55
Egypt	6.53	3.26	3.84	8.64	5.98	3.03	1.81	8.09	9.40	7.67	3.99	4.03
Morocco	3.52	7.51	5.35	5.31	3.61	7.75	3.72	2.73	3.92	5.62	12.51	15.56
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	29.80	15.81	7.67	8.36	4.96	11.18	21.08	6.43	17.92	23.90	32.59	9.07
Sudan	3.92	5.56	2.61	5.13	3.24	3.37	3.02	7.61	14.23	16.72	-2.13	7.36
Tunisia	4.32	4.79	9.74	6.96	2.83	3.71	9.37	6.96	2.10	7.69	6.73	10.76
WEST AFRICA	5.22	9.85	5.73	6.80	3.84	10.66	3.95	4.65	5.97	6.22	14.53	9.29
Benin	3.10	5.62	3.43	0.32	5.97	4.70	4.46	1.94	0.00	0.64	0.90	-7.47
Cape Verde	0.73	0.00	-2.36	3.06	2.21	4.99	-4.56	2.32	5.92	-5.59	0.77	1.55
Gambia	5.39	9.00	5.33	0.24	6.47	11.60	4.37	2.55	0.00	10.20	-5.06	17.14
Ghana	3.07	-0.13	4.46	-1.44	4.58	-1.27	4.51	-1.67	8.14	0.00	4.50	2.64
Guinea	3.75	14.59	2.76	3.46	2.02	16.89	0.60	2.24	11.61	3.91	4.14	8.39
Guinea-Bissau	1.54	-7.89	2.24	-0.23	2.01	-6.75	2.57	-0.19	9.86	8.45	3.92	-1.63
Ivory Coast	8.99	8.53	6.41	7.06	7.97	7.02	5.64	8.39	14.40	10.04	8.61	8.90
Liberia	6.29	0.80	2.65	1.61	5.25	-3.64	7.53	-0.59	7.26	0.45	2.75	1.69
Mali	-1.13	2.85	2.52	1.87	-2.60	0.95	5.26	0.94	1.71	3.05	4.02	3.82
Mauritania	10.66	6.20	3.20	0.56	3.47	5.41	4.93	3.62	3.40	4.88	12.60	4.11
Niger	6.89	4.50	0.73	8.83	7.24	6.38	1.38	7.78	2.95	5.34	1.71	11.47
Nigeria	6.37	15.36	7.03	9.03	3.34	16.95	4.43	5.92	8.84	11.95	25.78	12.21
Senegal	1.33	0.85	2.41	-0.67	1.31	1.61	1.96	0.37	-3.09	-1.76	1.40	0.10
Sierra Leone	10.31	2.25	1.44	2.16	10.73	0.83	1.49	0.87	5.39	7.89	5.13	-1.01
Togo	6.91	9.25	3.53	3.11	4.32	9.90	-0.14	6.51	-4.90	14.04	13.08	7.73
Upper Volta	-0.79	7.25	2.32	1.29	0.22	9.60	1.59	0.71	-6.51	3.01	5.26	4.94
CENTRAL AFRICA	0.94	5.50	2.40	1.14	-0.82	4.79	1.35	2.10	2.89	9.02	3.55	0.82
Angola	6.39	3.70	-6.77	0.85	6.31	1.08	-6.78	1.32	10.29	8.31	4.09	2.62
Burundi	-7.96	6.96	0.76	6.33	-8.44	6.29	0.89	5.67	11.38	14.87	2.65	11.05
Cameroon, United Republic of	0.00	12.33	4.91	5.14	2.00	10.52	5.15	5.16	8.04	2.61	0.74	3.40
Central African Republic	0.47	3.33	0.33	1.33	0.32	2.56	1.66	1.36	0.00	5.39	3.54	0.35

Chad	0.61	4.23	2.88	-1.57	1.11	3.18	1.19	-1.73	2.25	6.47	9.74	-1.15
Congo	3.74	9.63	7.53	1.16	-4.08	11.94	16.65	0.92	2.06	12.56	7.31	0.53
Equatorial Guinea	3.08	3.50	-8.45	-12.85	2.06	7.74	-1.29	-11.65	6.96	13.18	0.51	-7.09
Gabon	5.12	18.29	19.25	2.34	7.26	3.26	20.06	5.70	7.89	10.64	18.48	6.68
Rwanda	-6.43	16.17	9.31	5.00	-6.51	18.10	6.29	3.87	0.00	4.84	24.60	3.10
Sao Tome and Principe	0.89	-8.19	-4.32	2.88	2.53	-13.99	-4.30	1.12	8.45	5.92	-2.74	11.78
Zaire	-1.30	2.65	3.60	-2.15	-7.74	3.12	0.48	-1.72	-1.76	11.64	0.49	-2.33
EAST AFRICA	4.86	6.28	2.93	2.13	4.11	5.08	2.24	2.40	7.61	7.26	5.21	3.80
Botswana	6.37	5.59	9.80	13.56	3.13	5.49	3.44	11.74	13.18	4.24	7.03	16.94
Comoros	8.45	3.86	2.24	0.35	7.39	0.98	6.13	-3.13	0.00	14.87	1.49	11.38
Djibouti	13.18	6.43	5.69	-0.48	14.26	4.45	7.26	-2.07	17.61	-9.94	8.06	7.06
Ethiopia	5.05	3.96	1.52	3.29	4.20	4.48	0.21	2.75	13.09	1.36	9.33	4.50
Kenya	7.06	8.45	4.49	4.73	4.48	6.45	1.03	4.94	8.65	10.67	6.92	6.70
Lesotho	7.03	1.76	6.89	8.18	7.57	2.64	14.41	3.25	8.45	-5.59	22.43	6.20
Madagascar	1.27	6.06	0.61	1.53	0.79	4.39	-0.15	1.59	3.52	3.69	-2.19	3.61
Malawi	9.02	5.04	8.88	5.37	9.13	1.84	10.48	3.87	7.31	5.78	5.09	1.25
Mauritius	6.67	-0.31	8.61	5.09	3.71	0.00	6.47	-0.29	7.71	0.69	6.16	3.36
Mozambique	2.49	7.65	-1.65	0.14	2.32	6.37	-1.89	0.51	4.66	10.27	-2.88	1.48
Seychelles	4.94	10.44	4.07	6.93	3.71	10.76	-0.09	1.15	0.00	24.57	14.95	14.93
Somalia	-0.40	2.33	5.23	2.53	0.88	-0.12	3.57	2.02	-1.28	6.96	11.96	4.35
Swaziland	11.58	6.37	8.04	6.78	9.86	9.16	14.45	1.03	6.58	6.40	6.88	3.68
Tanzania, United Republic of	6.58	6.82	4.61	5.40	6.13	5.24	6.36	5.39	7.36	11.74	10.34	4.19
Uganda	4.85	5.77	0.35	-0.39	4.39	4.95	2.07	0.82	8.25	4.64	5.46	0.76
Zambia	6.95	8.36	2.50	-1.02	6.05	5.59	0.26	4.67	12.21	12.69	6.52	0.75
Zimbabwe	3.47	5.51	7.10	0.72	3.80	5.62	6.36	0.75	5.22	6.41	5.92	7.44
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	10.89	9.11	4.29	6.02	11.42	10.39	2.03	7.33	9.46	13.81	4.93	7.38
DEVELOPING AFRICA	4.62	7.39	4.86	5.73	3.19	6.82	4.27	4.66	5.74	8.31	9.74	6.93

Table 16a. Growth of expenditure on GDP in 1970 United States dollars constant prices (continued)

SUBREGION AND COUNTRY	Annual average growth rate (in percentage)											
	Gross capital formation				Exports of goods & services				Imports of goods and services			
	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1970	1960-1965	1965-1970	1970-1975	1975-1980
NORTH AFRICA	2.34	7.89	15.63	7.28	6.53	9.21	-1.53	8.26	0.02	7.36	13.69	5.98
Algeria	-13.01	21.80	14.56	6.86	-2.47	9.17	-2.19	2.15	-13.27	14.90	17.48	1.98
Egypt	10.45	-2.47	15.47	11.29	3.96	-0.22	9.99	21.08	8.13	-0.09	8.33	15.79
Morocco	4.25	15.76	18.33	3.26	-1.72	4.87	2.72	7.92	-1.31	9.88	9.93	5.36
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	19.50	5.63	23.75	6.90	70.39	18.69	-12.77	4.78	9.32	12.23	22.50	4.72
Sudan	5.04	4.10	9.48	10.75	3.45	5.04	10.25	-12.91	6.96	4.84	10.15	2.79
Tunisia	10.02	-1.50	16.97	8.44	0.28	8.07	8.88	9.68	5.60	0.86	11.41	12.05
WEST AFRICA	10.02	5.29	20.19	9.19	3.77	7.44	1.22	2.15	2.71	5.50	12.43	2.05
Benin	-2.16	10.59	9.29	-6.46	2.59	22.51	2.68	3.27	6.07	13.36	6.65	0.85
Cape Verde	-9.71	10.76	1.00	3.31	-8.46	2.13	-6.36	-7.63	-3.20	9.69	-6.19	-2.69
Gambia	4.56	9.86	11.24	18.53	5.51	1.15	15.64	-1.05	3.71	6.79	10.14	7.91
Ghana	-2.78	-3.54	9.38	1.51	-6.68	8.01	-1.16	14.58	-2.56	0.23	-4.72	12.99
Guinea	8.45	32.50	5.09	0.35	-1.49	-6.39	17.65	6.90	0.00	7.80	4.48	1.32
Guinea-Bissau	-4.36	17.61	-14.95	11.80	-4.36	-5.19	7.07	10.47	4.24	11.03	0.39	2.08
Ivory Coast	14.99	12.20	6.09	17.37	6.19	13.59	4.76	1.47	9.59	14.03	3.64	12.54
Liberia	9.71	7.26	5.43	2.62	6.61	7.39	-3.85	4.73	6.47	5.76	0.12	0.89
Mali	6.50	5.34	-0.59	-0.46	-6.71	18.04	5.86	0.22	-3.73	8.61	11.72	-1.57
Mauritania	-10.07	18.13	21.05	-6.63	34.34	4.20	4.66	-2.79	-1.62	7.99	22.48	-2.20
Niger	10.76	1.66	7.06	12.53	5.92	4.56	15.58	5.04	6.79	12.22	5.52	5.46
Nigeria	18.29	5.23	29.63	10.43	9.95	5.44	2.13	2.40	5.20	2.78	26.64	-0.48
Senegal	6.07	3.84	2.68	-1.13	-4.64	7.46	3.07	3.26	-5.96	10.73	0.29	4.23
Sierra Leone	25.54	3.84	-2.53	2.84	2.13	5.55	-6.08	8.03	6.37	3.62	-8.05	2.87
Togo	23.36	-1.02	18.15	16.14	12.47	16.72	5.50	7.51	6.87	11.98	3.83	21.19
Upper Volta	12.89	1.18	20.54	0.56	11.38	5.25	6.67	-2.62	19.57	10.04	11.99	-0.64
CENTRAL AFRICA	7.05	5.71	8.36	-2.09	4.38	0.92	2.49	3.63	3.55	2.28	4.58	2.60
Angola	2.29	10.52	-11.40	7.42	7.60	10.23	-2.05	3.77	7.25	8.33	2.62	7.14
Burundi	-10.07	1.92	10.03	20.36	-11.42	7.63	4.60	-0.76	-9.38	-4.94	8.82	7.65
Cameroon, United Republic of	12.32	11.57	8.83	3.24	-1.31	14.95	2.20	4.44	4.46	16.08	2.52	2.16
Central African Republic	2.13	4.28	-3.63	3.92	2.53	3.30	-6.09	0.01	3.20	2.38	-0.66	0.90
Chad	-3.71	7.84	15.13	-12.11	0.98	12.59	1.64	1.99	1.34	9.81	3.91	-3.16
Congo	-12.94	12.34	-0.83	-2.11	15.56	1.91	-8.80	5.35	-6.36	7.30	6.96	0.31
Equatorial Guinea	12.89	-8.64	-10.08	-11.25	-2.85	-2.82	-7.41	-4.00	-2.95	-2.02	5.15	-4.72

Gabon	-4.03	11.67	50.96	-3.41	11.70	5.92	9.46	5.46	8.34	4.06	31.57	-2.41
Rwanda	2.13	9.86	19.77	8.10	-6.30	13.97	11.07	12.74	3.71	13.56	9.22	5.77
Sao Tome and Principe	8.45	0.00	10.49	-0.74	-7.79	5.92	-7.82	1.90	0.00	0.00	-4.68	1.54
Zaire	16.15	0.97	5.29	-3.92	4.38	-6.65	6.21	3.72	4.24	-4.49	2.24	4.92
EAST AFRICA	3.62	11.77	1.98	-2.15	5.64	4.11	2.79	0.07	4.26	4.69	1.48	-1.54
Botswana	24.57	21.67	14.17	12.21	9.10	5.29	28.61	18.07	11.84	12.74	12.87	13.51
Comoros	24.57	5.92	3.96	17.60	0.00	8.45	-2.08	9.22	6.96	7.39	10.66	5.24
Djibouti	17.08	-1.89	13.63	5.55	10.20	23.93	4.38	-4.15	16.95	2.19	7.44	-0.77
Ethiopia	7.39	1.12	-2.70	13.64	9.05	0.65	3.02	3.52	11.12	-0.44	-2.73	3.58
Kenya	3.55	17.74	-4.53	6.94	15.93	4.75	12.98	2.05	7.32	6.63	-0.56	2.55
Lesotho	47.58	0.00	27.87	10.41	14.87	-9.71	30.77	28.50	14.22	-1.78	31.49	1.75
Madagascar	0.00	15.20	0.10	1.91	6.96	8.38	7.78	-5.11	5.13	4.87	1.38	-3.43
Malawi	3.13	19.14	5.51	11.94	8.92	9.68	6.85	4.34	5.47	7.97	5.75	0.43
Mauritius	-4.84	-4.07	22.84	4.37	15.39	0.66	17.97	9.68	3.40	0.44	17.35	4.89
Mozambique	1.98	15.35	-11.34	3.41	2.86	13.04	-4.37	0.84	3.43	13.34	-14.49	8.18
Seychelles	14.87	35.10	9.30	4.47	0.00	5.92	36.96	18.35	4.56	19.14	14.83	13.01
Somalia	1.55	4.72	12.18	6.27	1.66	-1.08	16.26	-1.61	5.35	-2.77	14.95	2.27
Swaziland	21.29	4.36	4.00	9.14	19.05	7.24	0.64	8.68	20.95	9.10	3.30	-0.60
Tanzania, United Republic of	11.31	16.44	3.63	1.26	2.21	5.03	-0.47	-5.73	3.01	9.49	8.74	-6.41
Uganda	7.54	11.01	-7.25	1.13	6.49	1.95	-8.97	-2.66	8.01	0.73	-3.44	9.71
Zambia	7.07	11.06	5.25	-13.68	-0.35	7.17	0.27	-2.74	-2.42	6.77	0.00	-10.39
Zimbabwe	-7.07	12.32	12.35	-15.29	8.04	-4.50	3.82	0.89	3.90	-2.01	4.63	-1.31
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	13.70	10.05	5.37	3.94	11.49	0.21	2.58	2.95	12.65	4.07	-0.30	5.20
DEVELOPING AFRICA	5.11	7.77	13.27	6.03	5.46	6.03	0.56	4.02	2.45	5.45	9.14	3.08

Table 17

Electrical energy - Total production in million KWh

SUBREGION AND COUNTRY	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
NORTH AFRICA	5471	8567	13117	20350	29852*
Algeria	1325	1116	1979	3773	5120*
Egypt	2639	5473	7591	10386	15150*
Morocco	1012	1284	1935	3042	4772*
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	105	152	426	1163	1650*
Sudan	74	174	392	640	950*
Tunisia	316	368	794	1346	2210*
WEST AFRICA	...	2832	6731	10542	14685*
Benin	10	22	33	4	5*
Cape Verde	...	3	7	8	10*
Gambia	5	8	13	27	37*
Ghana	374	528	2920	3996	4575*
Guinea	102	174	388	500	510*
Guinea-Bissau	1	4	10	20	22*
Ivory Coast	67	220	517	962	1775*
Liberia	...	278	502	855	895*
Mali	15	28	57	92	155*
Mauritania	...	30	73	95	105*
Niger	8	16	39	70	48*
Nigeria	528	1177	1550	3211	5700*
Senegal	127	204	330	410	470*
Sierra Leone	41	106	197	193	205*
Togo	...	13	68	46	73*
Upper Volta	8	21	27	53	100*
CENTRAL AFRICA	...	...	5415	7071	7465*
Angola	140	317	644	1305	1425*
Burundi	...	14	21	23	25*
Cameroon, United Republic of	911	1100	1163	1316	1347*
Central African Republic	8	21	47	52	64*
Chad	8	18	42	56	65*
Congo	27	42	76	110	134*
Equatorial Guinea	...	...	7	8	9*
Gabon	20	42	97	253	445*
Rwanda	19	...	81	140	167*
Sao Tome and Principe	4	6	7	8	9*
Zaire	2456	2618	3230	3800	3775*
EAST AFRICA	...	...	...	...	...
Botswana	...	...	30	274	450*
Comoros	...	...	2	3	4*
Djibouti	9	22	43	73	105*
Ethiopia	102	246	520	666	740*
Kenya	222	328	583	953	1650*
Lesotho	...	4	...	...	...
Madagascar	107	107	246	335	385*
Malawi	28	50	145	295	345*
Mauritius	55	103	220	329	435*
Mozambique	153	426	682	628	11500*

Table 17 (continued)/Annex III

Seychelles	...	2	7	27	48*
Somalia	5	12	28	53	77*
Swaziland	...	...	138	165	172*
Tanzania, United Republic of	166	214	479	653	710*
Uganda	396	572	778	766	672*
Zambia	836	672	3852	6191	8700*
Zimbabwe	2388	4116	6410	6131	4900*
OTHER DEVELOPING AFRICA	...	...	...	...	...
DEVELOPING AFRICA	...	...	...	...	...

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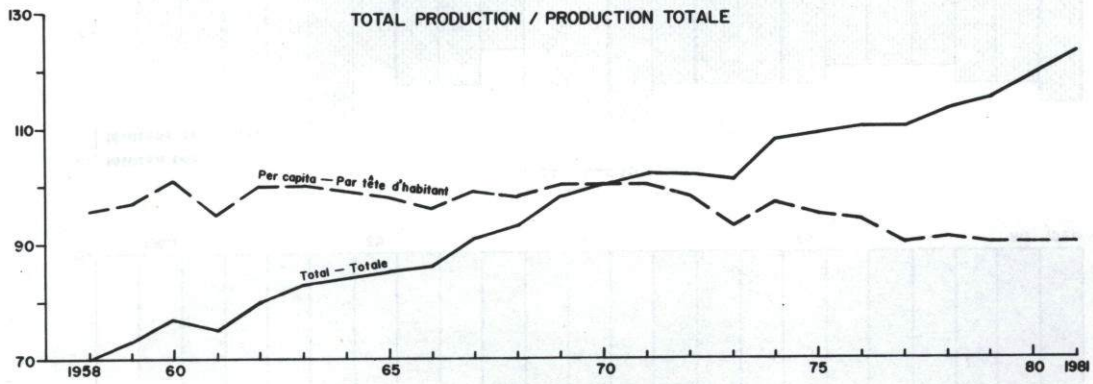
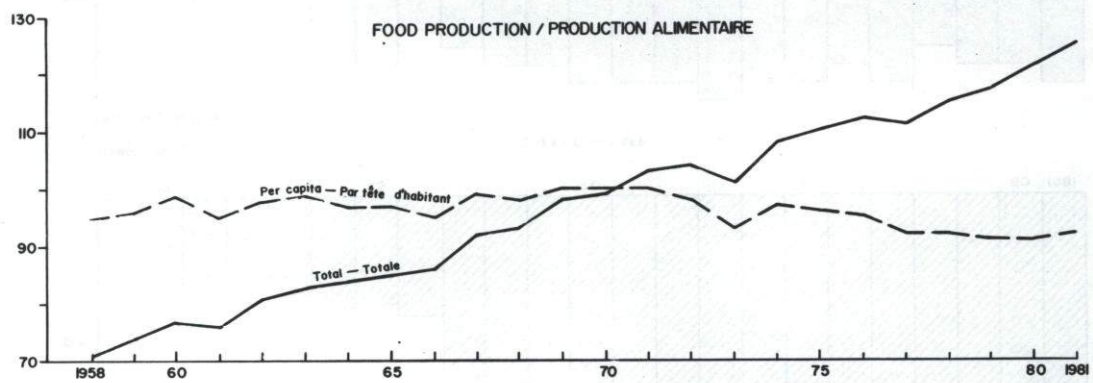
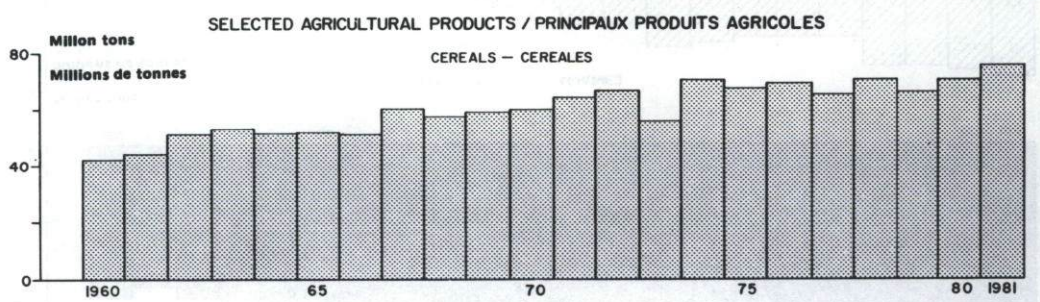
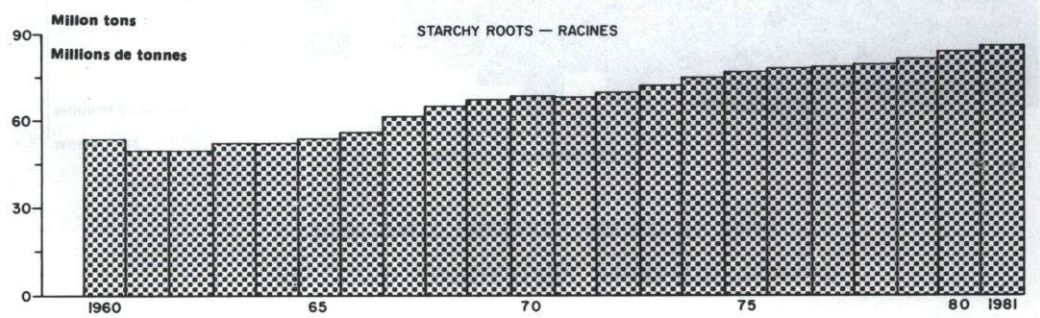
1969–1971=100





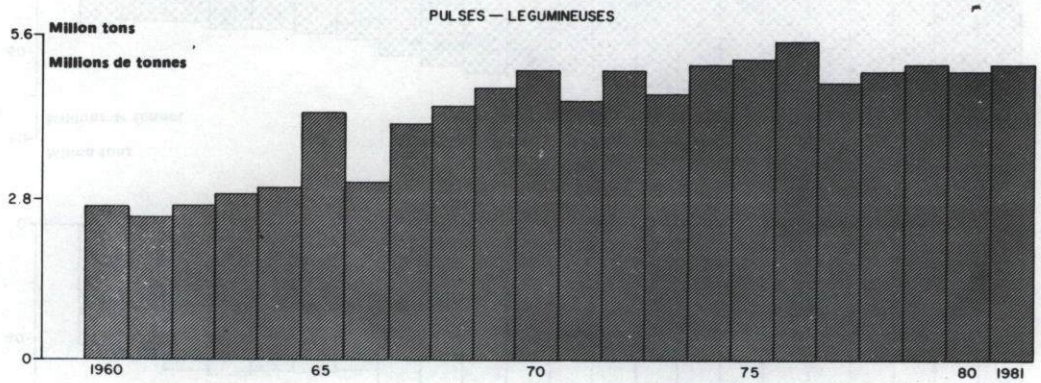




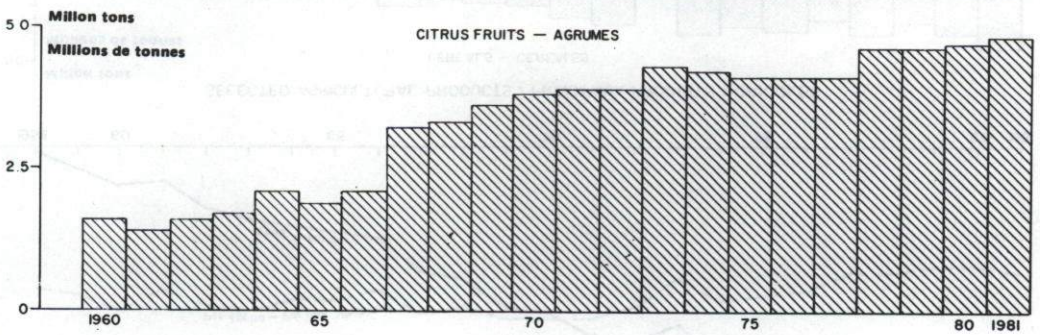
SELECTED AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS (continued)

PRINCIPAUX PRODUITS AGRICOLES (suite)

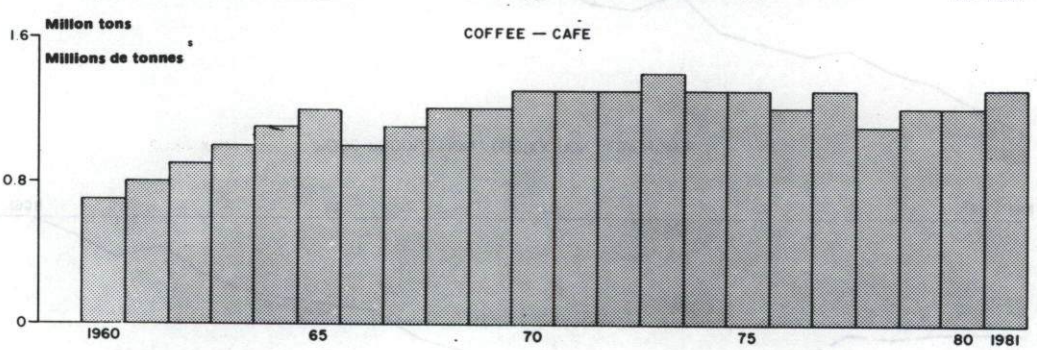
PULSES — LEGUMINEUSES



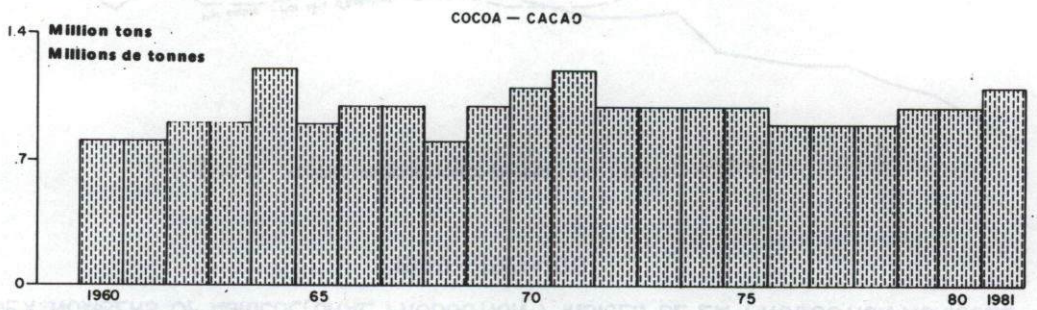
CITRUS FRUITS — AGRUMES



COFFEE — CAFE

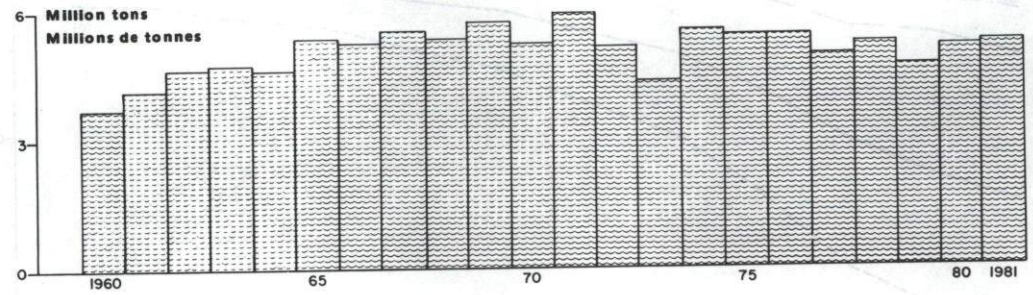


COCOA — CACAO

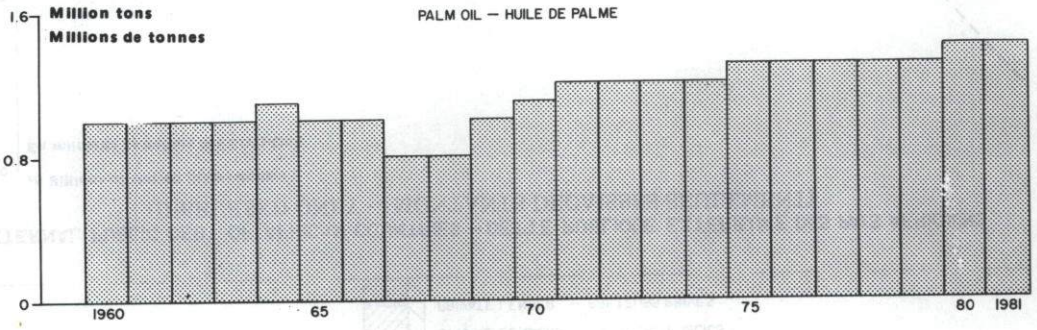


SELECTED AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS (continued)
PRINCIPAUX PRODUITS AGRICOLES (suite)

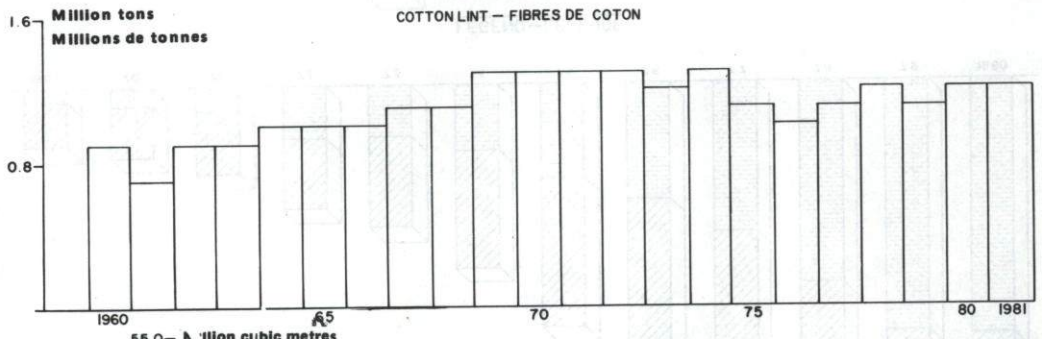
GROUNDNUTS — ARACHIDES



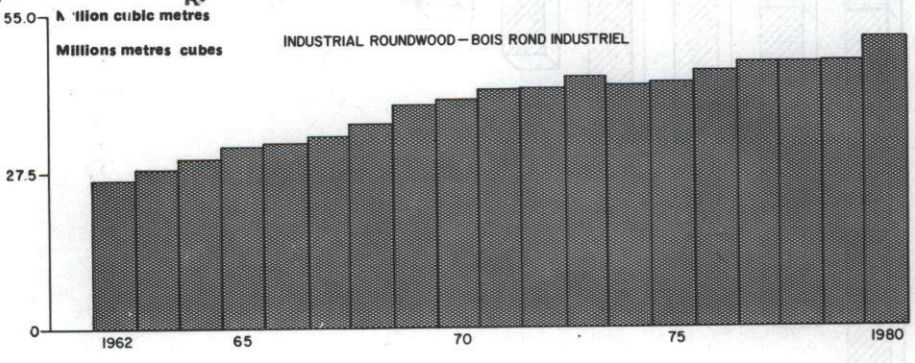
PALM OIL — HUILE DE PALME



COTTON LINT — FIBRES DE COTON

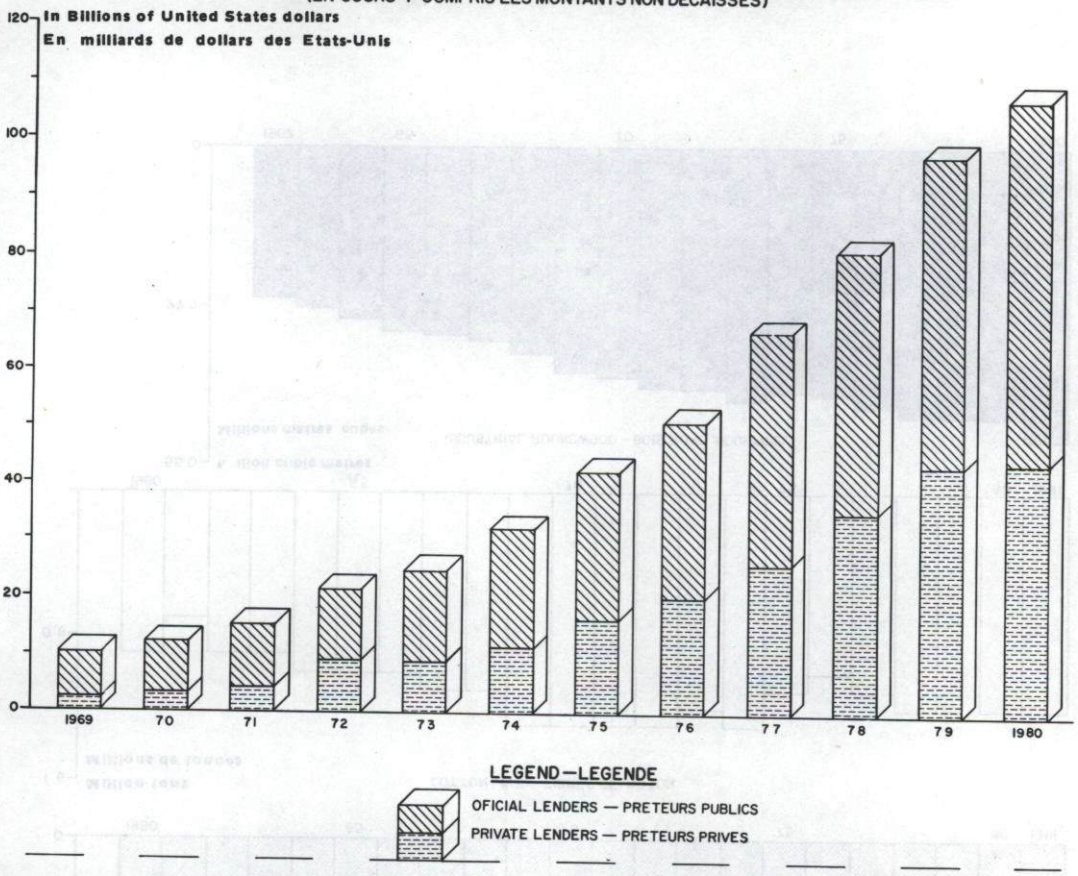


INDUSTRIAL ROUNDWOOD — BOIS ROND INDUSTRIEL



EXTERNAL PUBLIC DEBT OF AFRICAN COUNTRIES BY TYPE OF CREDITOR
(OUTSTANDING INCLUDING UNDISBURSED)

DETTE PUBLIQUE EXTERIEURE DES PAYS AFRICAINS PAR CATEGORIE DE CREANCIERS
(EN COURS Y COMPRIS LES MONTANTS NON DECAISSES)



EXTERNAL PUBLIC DEBT OF AFRICAN COUNTRIES — DETTE PUBLIQUE EXTERIEURE DES PAYS AFRICAINS
(DISBURSED ONLY - MONTANTS DECAISSES SEULEMENT)