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CRITICAL ECONOMIC SITUATION IN AFRICA

Review of the emergency rehabilitation and reconstruction
situation in food-aid and drought-affected countries

Report of the Secretary-General

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I. INTRODUCTION

1. At its second regular session of 1984, the Economic and Social Council, in decision 1984/188 of 27 July 1984, decided (a) to request the General Assembly to include in the provisional agenda of its thirty-ninth session an item entitled "Critical economic situation in Africa" so as to bring to a successful conclusion the initiatives taken by the Council at its second regular session of 1984; and (b) to transmit to the General Assembly at its thirty-ninth session the documents relating to that question that were before the Council at its second regular session of 1984, together with the relevant summary records. Among the documents submitted to the General Assembly by the Council was the report of the Secretary-General on the critical social and economic situation in Africa (E/1984/68). In that report, the Secretary-General addressed the nature and magnitude of the crisis, both its emergency and longer-term aspects, currently confronting many countries of Africa, specified the ingredients of an effective response from the international community and called for concerted and co-ordinated action. In the addendum to his report (E/1984/68/Add.1), the Secretary-General elaborated on these issues on the basis, *inter alia*, of assessments made in several countries by resident co-ordinators with Governments and multilateral and bilateral donors, as reported to his Special Representative on the crisis in Africa.
2. The present report supplements the information contained in the addendum to the Secretary-General's report on the economic and social crisis in Africa (E/1984/68/Add.1) that was before the Economic and Social Council at its second regular session in July 1984. Its main purpose is to review emergency situations as at 31 August 1984 in 36 countries, of which 27 1/ were identified by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) and the World Food Programme (WFP) Special Task Force as facing abnormal food shortages, and nine were identified at the 10th meeting of the Economic Commission for Africa Conference of Ministers, held in Addis Ababa from 24-28 May 1984, as also being drought affected. 2/ It is expected that the number of countries and the composition of the list are likely to change further as more countries move into the 1984/85 marketing year.
3. These emergency situations are principally the result of persistent drought in many countries and its recent incidence in the eastern subregion. The critical areas are actual or impending shortages of food and water; serious losses of livestock; massive imports of food placing severe strain on already weak systems of transport, storage and distribution; increased malnutrition and health risks; and further displacement of drought-affected populations.
4. These concerns are reviewed in the report both separately and as integrated elements of crisis in subregional overviews. However, there is constant evolution in each sector so that the information is tentative, especially in projections of food harvests and supply. The data are also incomplete and merely indicative of the magnitude of needs and the extent to which the international community is responding. Information on the current food supply position and prospects is based on Report No. 6 of the FAO and WFP Special Task Force. The latter report also contains information on food aid deliveries, on international support for emergency and rehabilitation actions and proposals for action in the agricultural and livestock sectors.

5. The crisis has begun to make deep inroads into the economies of the entire continent. Gross output of developing Africa declined by 0.1 per cent in 1983 and only a marginal growth of 1.8 per cent is projected for 1984. As a result, per capita income has consistently declined since 1980 at an average annual rate of 4.1 per cent. While there are structural defects in the economies of many African countries, their present precarious position is largely the result of an unfavourable international economic environment. In 1983, although the terms of trade have somewhat improved, the quantity of export has shown the largest annual decrease since 1974. By 1983, external debt amounted to \$150 billion, of which \$120 billion were disbursed, with servicing cost amounting to 22.4 per cent of total export earnings. Other factors are deteriorating terms of trade, a rise in interest rates, and a decline in real terms of concessional financing. Net disbursements of official development assistance (ODA) for sub-Saharan Africa declined from \$8.3 billion to \$8 billion in 1982.

6. The economies of the entire continent have also suffered from the degradation and loss of agricultural soils, the destruction of vegetal cover, the desertification of pasture lands and the depletion of ground water. The diminution of river debits are unprecedentedly drastic in all ecological zones of the continent, and particularly important in semi-arid and sub-humid areas. Deforestation is particularly serious in West Africa. There is indeed need to pay greater attention to the interrelationships between people, development resources and environment.

7. This brief characterization of general economic conditions in Africa clearly points to the need to deal with the crisis in all its dimensions simultaneously. This report, therefore, focuses firstly on issues of the present drought-induced emergency situation in various African subregions and then on the main critical areas of food or agriculture, water, transport, storage, distribution, population displacement, health and nutrition, energy, environment, other social aspects and preparedness. It goes on to discuss briefly the longer-term aspects of structural adjustment, with particularly emphasis on actions required from African Governments themselves and from bilateral donors, multilateral financial and technical assistance institutions and non-governmental organizations. In this regard, due account has to be taken of the recent report of the World Bank entitled "Toward sustained development in sub-Saharan Africa: a joint programme of action", which was endorsed by the Joint World Bank/International Monetary Fund Development Committee on 23 September 1984.

8. This report was prepared by the Secretary-General's Special Representative with the assistance and substantive inputs of staff from several United Nations organizations and specialized agencies. United Nations resident co-ordinators as well as some non-governmental organizations have also provided substantial information on the situation in their respective countries of involvement.

II. EMERGENCY AND REHABILITATION ISSUES AND REQUIREMENTS

A. Overview of the emergency situation in the African subregions

9. The main area of concentration in the overview is on the current status of staple cereal production and the immediate prospects for food supply in the

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36 countries of the five subregions. The data selected are merely indicative of country situations as of mid-September 1984, in terms of weather conditions, actual or forecast harvests, assessed food aid and commercial import requirements, and known aggregated response of the donor community.

10. Critical problems in the transport, storage and distribution of emergency food supplies are also briefly surveyed. For other areas of concern, i.e. water supply, population displacement, health, nutrition, livestock, income generating relief and rehabilitation projects and energy, there is little change reported as yet in respect of information provided in the previous addendum to the Secretary-General's report (E/1984/68). These sectors are therefore reviewed only where such changes have been reported. Additional data are provided separately in a statistical technical paper of the Secretariat that will be circulated to interested delegations.

1. North Africa

11. Drought has sharply reduced cereal harvests in Morocco for the second consecutive year. Total grain production in 1984 is estimated at 3,300,000 tonnes, against a below-normal harvest of 3,600,000 tonnes in 1983. In a normal year, grain production totals 4,100,000 tonnes. The food supply situation is serious in five areas of the country, with the Red Cross and Red Crescent societies appealing for assistance in cash and kind for relief operations costed at \$2.3 million. In addition to cereal imports to meet a normal structural deficit, FAO/WFP estimates food aid requirement for emergency relief at about 120,000 tonnes to mid-1985.

12. In the Sudan, the Government has declared northern Darfur a disaster area following persistent drought since 1983. Relief operations were intensified during August. Prospects of 1984 sorghum and millet crops are very poor due to below-normal rainfall since June. A drop of 25 to 30 per cent is expected for the area sown to sorghum in the main producing areas in the eastern part (Gedaref). In the area of Damazin, despite an estimated increase of 20 per cent in the area planted, output is expected to be lower than in 1983 because of very low yield. Import requirements will depend on the final outcome of the harvest. However, even in a normal year, the Sudan imports about 500,000 tons of cereals to meet a structural deficit and to supply an estimated refugee population of 111,000. Between 70 and 75 per cent of the total import is food aid, provided principally by the United States of America.

13. In Tunisia, grain production in 1984 has improved by 200,000 tonnes on last year's drought-reduced harvest of 900,000 tonnes. However, this is still below production in a normal year of 1,300,000 tonnes. No food shortages are reported, but forecasts of wheat imports required for 1984/1985 amount to 800,000 tonnes.

14. Although limited data are available, two of the countries have serious problems in the transport, storage and distribution sector. Increased food import requirements for Morocco will place considerable strain on discharge and bagging facilities at the ports and on surface transport capacity. The Sudan has limited off-take capacity at Port Sudan, insufficient road and rail transport and an extended, fragile supply line to the southern part of the country, which may be better served from Kenya.

2. West Africa

15. For the Sahelian countries satellite images up to mid-September confirmed field reports of retarded pastoral growth in much of the Sahelian zone. There were isolated patches of adequate grazing, but generally sparse and erratic rainfall is posing a severe threat to livestock in large parts of Burkina Faso, Mali, Mauritania and Niger. Crops in the zone and Cape Verde are also badly affected. Crops in the Sudanian zone are more favourable with exception of south-eastern Mali, central and central-eastern Burkina Faso and central parts of southern Niger. There are particularly serious implications for food supplies in 1984/1985 for Mauritania, Niger, and possibly Mali.

16. In Burkina Faso, the drought conditions in the central provinces are worse than last year, when 250,000 head of cattle were affected. Overall, main season crop prospects are below average. Adequate rainfall in the south-west has improved the pastoral situation and the regional harvest could be average depending on rain continuing through September. The situation is the same in southwest Mali, although the levels of the Niger and Bane rivers remained extremely low. Elsewhere in the country, the rains were sometimes above average but erratic and therefore inadequate for pastoral growth especially in the northern Sahelian zone. Moderate to poor rainfall was reported in the Kayes-Segou and eastern areas. The food situation for 300,000 people in the Gao region is reported as "catastrophic" with grazing for livestock virtually non-existent after two years of drought. In Ansongo and Menaka districts, cattle loss is estimated at 50 per cent. Both Mali and Burkina Faso have requested multi-donor missions to assess the food situation.

17. In Mauritania, crops were planted following abnormally early rains in June, but development was retarded by a prolonged dry spell on the plateau lands, where cattle losses of between 40 per cent and 90 per cent were also reported. In Niger, cumulative rainfall for the season remained far below average in most parts. Only in parts of Niamey, Zinder, Dosso and Tahoua are conditions quite favourable. Pasture conditions are very poor and the situation for livestock is critical in most areas. The Government has requested an early assessment of the food situation by a multi-donor mission.

18. Assessments of food import requirements await the final outcome of harvests and the extent of rainfall in September. However, for the 1983/1984 period, the total estimate of cereal food aid and commercial imports required by the four countries is 878,000 tons, most of which are covered by pledges and scheduled purchases.

19. On the islands of Cape Verde, a prolonged break in the rains, which started in July, held up further plantings and retarded the development of emerging crops. Of a normal planting of 35,000 ha of maize and beans, only 13,000 ha had been planted by the end of August. On the Sotovolta islands, much of the germinating maize crop was in a critical condition due to scanty rainfall. Rainfall during the first half of September brought some relief and allowed more plantings. Food aid pledges for 1984 of 62,000 tons and a commercial import of 4,500 tons are sufficient to cover requirements to the end of the year.

20. In the coastal countries of the subregion, the rainy season was progressing normally in mid-September and the prospects for the main harvests are generally good. This includes the Ivory Coast, which was obliged to increase food imports earlier in the year following a long dry spell and uncontrolled bush fires. In all but the north of Nigeria, the present outlook is also good for the cereal and cassava crops that were blighted in the 1983/1984 season by disease and deficient rains.
21. For Gambia and Senegal the outlook for the harvests is better than last year, although northern Senegal has been hit severely by drought, affecting pastures and crops. But in southern Sudanian areas, including Gambia, conditions were favourable and larger areas were sown to cereals than in 1983. Senegal has requested a multi-donor mission for an early assessment of the food situation in northern areas.
22. Apart from scattered patches of drought, mostly in northern regions, there has been adequate to good rainfall in the other five coastal states: Benin, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau and Togo. Overall, the harvest potential is assessed as normal or better than average. Known imports scheduled for these countries in 1983/1984 amount of 1,126,000 tons, of which the requirement for food aid is above 700,000 tons. Known pledges amount to 533,000 tons.
23. The situation in the transport, storage and distribution sector varies from country to country; some could cope excellently with increased food imports whereas others were considerably strained. For example, well-established relief operations in Mauritania will allow for expansion whereas Guinea will have difficulty in dealing with any increased pressure on distribution networks.
24. The coastal countries have additional responsibilities in serving inland states and there are often blockages and deficiencies in the transit systems. Logistics management has improved in Senegal, but the domestic and transit food operation is plagued by a slow rail off-take at the port of Dakar. As a result, some shipments for Mali have been diverted to Abidjan in the Ivory Coast, which also serves the Burkina Faso corridor and is consequently under considerable pressure. The situation is similar for Togo, which must not only supply its own food distribution networks but also the east of Mali, Burkina Faso and Niger corridors. Since capacity in the port of Lomé is limited, there is a critical need for careful scheduling of arrivals and logistics planning.
25. Improved performance was noted recently in the supply operations from Benin to Niger and from Nigeria through the Niger-Chad corridors. However, it is essential that the border between Nigeria and Chad remains open to avoid unsustainable pressure building up on the alternative route via Cameroon.
26. Among specific problems in the sector throughout the subregion are poor infrastructure networks for internal distribution, inadequate feeder fleets, and the high costs of supplying land-locked countries by road rather than rail. In some instances, transport costs from port to destinations in Mali or Niger, for example, may be more than double the value of the basic food commodities.

3. Central Africa

27. The pattern of main season rainfall was erratic in the subregion, with food supply prospects for 1984/1985 uncertain to poor. In Burundi and Rwanda, recent harvests of cereals and pulses were down 30 per cent and 50 per cent respectively on production last year. Early estimates indicate a total food import requirement to mid-1985 of 165,000 tonnes, of which the food aid component will amount to 132,000 tonnes compared with 17,000 tonnes in 1983/1984. Both Governments have recently issued appeals for emergency assistance from the donor community.
28. In the Cameroon, crop conditions are reasonable and no appeals for external aid are envisaged. Crop prospects in the Central African Republic were similarly good in August, although cereal import requirements for 1984 of 65,000 tonnes had not been fully covered by known food aid pledges and commercial imports.
29. Chad had rain in June, but then suffered a dry spell which meant re-seeding in late July with uncertain prospects for the harvest in November. In the Sahelian region of the country, conditions are extremely poor for crops and pastures causing movements of population towards the south, where there are already food shortages caused by last year's drought. In Koumra (Moyen-Chari) famine conditions were reported. Imminent famine or malnutrition is also indicated in the areas of Tanajile and east Longone. Present estimates of 1983-1984 food import requirements amount to 125,000 tonnes, the aid component of which, about 88,000 tonnes, is covered by pledges. The Government has requested an early assessment of the 1984 crop by a multi-donor mission. Sao Tome and Principe are similarly covered for a 1983/1984 food aid requirement amounting to an estimated 12,000 tonnes. However, the islands were ironically afflicted by heavy and unseasonable rains in August that led to pest infestation of the bean crop and delayed the drying of maize.
30. Zaire's 1983 crop season was normal, apart from patches of drought, mainly in Shaba Province. The situation has deteriorated this year, however, and at the end of August the Government appealed for emergency assistance for 185,000 drought-affected people in the subregion of Ituri, Haut-Zaire. There was also a critical need for seeds in this area, with an estimated 877 tonnes required for the planting season in mid-September. A Government mission was also assessing the impact of drought in parts of Kivu, Kasai and Bandundu Provinces. Altogether, 231,000 tonnes of cereal imports are required for 1984, of which 132,200 were covered as of June by food aid pledges of 76,000 tonnes and commercial purchases of 56,200 tonnes.
31. There is no up-to-date assessment available of the health and nutritional status of countries in the subregion. However, the Government of the Central African Republic has requested international donor assistance amounting to \$14 million for a range of projects to improve public health services. For Chad, a WHO mission reported the need for a post-war health rehabilitation programme amounting to \$300 million for major construction, equipment and drugs. In Sao Tome and Principe, the Government has requested donor assistance in the provision of medicines costed at \$600,000.
32. The situation in the food transport, storage and distribution sector in the subregion has already been partly covered in the preceding section on West Africa.

Burundi and Rwanda depend principally on the efficiency of supply from Kenya and the United Republic of Tanzania through Uganda. Chad and Central African Republic, the other two land-locked States, have extended supply lines from various West African ports and must bear exceptionally heavy transportation costs, for which substantial donor subsidies are required. Pressure on the Cameroon-Chad corridor has eased recently with an improved ferry service at Chari and storage facilities in the country have been upgraded. The Governments of Cameroon and Chad also agreed in August to go ahead with the construction of a Bailey bridge over the Logone River to accelerate the flow of relief food and other assistance. Financial assistance is being considered by various donors, including United Nations Development Programme, for the construction of the bridge. However, severe constraints remain on the delivery of supplies to impoverished rural communities, including an acute lack of transport capacity, fuel and maintenance resources, with the problems aggravated by an uncertain security situation. For the Central African Republic, a major problem is the seasonal closure of river ports and the need for a number of road and rail transshipments along the Congo-Central African Republic corridor. An alternative supply line, by road or rail, is possible from the ports of Douala and Pointe Noire, but costs are exorbitant.

4. East Africa

33. The April-June "long rains" failed almost entirely in the southern half of the subregion, except in areas east of Lake Victoria and along the coast. The situation is most serious in Kenya, where the maize and wheat crops are likely to be reduced to less than half the normal harvest of about 2,700,000 tonnes. Up to 2 million people could require famine relief in 1985. The drought, described as the worst in 50 years, extends to seven northern regions of the United Republic of Tanzania, including Arusha and Kilimanjaro, which are normally grain surplus areas. The Government has appealed for emergency food aid to meet the needs of drought-affected people over an 8-11 month period.

34. Projected total cereal import requirements for the two countries to mid-1985 are: for Kenya, 1,100,000 tonnes, against which 167,000 tonnes of food aid are so far pledged, including 18,000 tonnes of emergency food from WFP and 275,000 tonnes have been imported commercially. For the United Republic of Tanzania, a total of 430,000 are required, of which 92,000 tonnes of food aid have been pledged and 63,000 imported commercially.

35. The outlook for 1985 in Ethiopia and Somalia, where secondary season crops failed earlier in the year, is still uncertain and depends on the outcome of the current harvest. However, the rains were seriously deficient in parts of Ethiopia, affecting plantings of the main season crops and prolonging the drought and famine conditions in the critical areas of Wollo, Tigray, Bale, Harerge and Sidamo. As a result, the Government has revised its March estimate of 5.2 million drought-affected people to more than 7 million. Independent observers in the field expect the forthcoming cereal harvest in areas currently facing famine conditions to be at least 20-25 per cent lower than the poor 1983 crop, leading to the possibility of even more widespread famine from the end of 1984.

36. In Somalia, the "Gu" rains were late and generally deficient across the country, with no certain prospects of an adequate harvest in the south and a poor outlook in the north. Early reports indicate crop failures in the Gedo region in the south-west and a serious situation for livestock in the west and north-west through insufficient water in catchment areas.

37. The food situation for the two countries (1984) is as follows: for Somalia, a total import requirement of 330,000 tonnes, of which the food aid component was 260,000 tonnes, of which 237,000 were covered by pledges; for Ethiopia, the total requirement was for 400,000 tonnes of food aid, of which 350,000 tonnes have been pledged so far.

38. In Djibouti, lack of pasture due to the virtual absence of rainfall between June 1983 and July 1984 has severely affected the largely pastoral population of some 72,000 for whom WFP emergency food assistance was approved in August. Over 95 per cent of food requirements for the total population of 280,000 is normally met through imports. Current projections are for 32,000 tonnes of cereal imports in 1984, of which 22,100 tonnes are covered by commercial purchases and food aid pledges. An especially serious consequence of the drought, if it persists into 1985, will be an estimated depletion of the national cattle herd by up to 60 per cent.

39. For the islands of the Comoros, total cereal import requirements for 1984 are estimated at 26,000 tonnes. WFP emergency food assistance for 30,000 victims of cyclone "Flinch" was approved early in the year, but another cyclone, "Kamesy", caused further substantial damage to crops in April.

40. Since the drought in Kenya is a recent event, there is no firm assessment as yet of the nutritional status or prospects in the worst affected areas of the Rift Valley, Central, Eastern and North-Eastern provinces. However, relief food distribution will almost certainly be required in the pastoral areas if the present deterioration and death of cattle continues. In the United Republic of Tanzania, an estimated 463,200 are threatened with hunger and, in Ethiopia, 43 per cent of the population is considered malnourished, including 2.3 million children. In Somalia, up to 80 per cent of the population is assessed as undernourished.

41. A complicating factor for Ethiopia is a massive displacement of people, estimated by the Government at 2.2 million, of whom 380,000 are refugees from neighbouring countries. The Government of Somalia calculates its refugee population at 1.4 million, about half of them in camps, requiring 120,000 tonnes of food aid a year. The additional cost of transporting the food is \$13 million.

42. Generally, the transport, storage and distribution situation is critical for both countries. In Ethiopia, the magnitude of import requirements is placing considerable strain on the country's distribution system, beginning at the ports of Massawa and Assab, which have limited grain discharge and off-take capacities. Distribution of emergency supplies to the northern drought areas is further constrained by a low density road network and inadequate storage facilities.

43. The situation is more or less the same in Somalia, with occasional congestion in the ports of Berbera and Mogadiscio and disruption in the chain of distribution to the drought-affected areas. In common with other countries in the subregion, a major problem is a chronic lack of suitable transport vehicles, fuel, spare parts and maintenance resources. Djibouti, for example, will continue to serve parts of Ethiopia as well as its own rural areas only if priority attention is paid to maintaining the railway links.

44. Kenya and the United Republic of Tanzania have responsibilities for handling and transporting essential food imports to land-locked countries to the south and west. Although the performance of Dar es Salaam port has improved, there are still bottle-necks in the off-take system and both material and planning deficiencies related to the extended lines of supply. Moreover, the country's transportation capacity will be severely strained in the coming months by the volume of its own import requirements. The prospect is the same for Kenya, with more than one million tonnes of cereal imports needed to mid-1985 and up to an additional 165,000 tonnes for Burundi and Rwanda. This will entail perhaps overwhelming pressure on the port of Mombasa and road/rail resources, beginning in the September-November period with the arrival of the first 360,000 tonnes of grain imports. For both countries, an immediate, fully developed plan of logistics and the mobilization of all available transport is crucial.

5. Southern Africa

45. Drought persisted in the first half of 1984 in much of the subregion, with adequate rainfall recorded only in the highland areas of Angola and Mozambique. Cereal grain output was reduced in all countries except Malawi and Swaziland. ^{3/} Production in Lesotho and Zimbabwe is larger than earlier anticipated but still much below normal. Aggregated cereal production in the six affected countries (Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Zambia and Zimbabwe) in 1984 is estimated at 3.4 million tonnes compared with 4.8 million in a normal year. The sharpest reductions were in Botswana and Lesotho (87 per cent and 30 per cent below normal respectively), Angola (33 per cent) and Zimbabwe (35 per cent). A serious shortage of seeds is also reported throughout the subregion, which could adversely affect recovery of production after the next scheduled rains in October-November, assuming these are favourable.

46. According to the FAO and WFP Special Task Force the six countries are all facing serious food supply problems in 1984/1985, with requirements for cereal food aid and commercial imports considerably higher than last year. The most recent estimates are (in tonnes): Angola, 300,000; Botswana, 195,000; Lesotho, 190,000; Mozambique, 675,000 (including 329,000 tonnes for rural famine relief); Zambia, 335,000; and Zimbabwe, 520,000. The 1984/1985 estimates total 2,215,000 tonnes (as against 1,417,000 in 1983/1984), more than half of which (1,117,000 tonnes) will be required as food aid. Known pledges as at the end of September totalled 644,000 tonnes for the six countries.

47. Reduced grazing and water supplies are taking a heavy toll of livestock, with Zimbabwe expected to lose 450,000 head of cattle, or about 30 per cent of the national herd, by the next rains due in October. Serious losses are also expected in Botswana, Lesotho and Mozambique.

48. Malnutrition and associated health problems are major concerns in all six countries. An emergency health programme is under way in Angola, where 261,000 people are in need of assistance, including 127,000 displaced by the insurgent war. In Botswana, in certain areas malnutrition is as high as 42 per cent of the people and in Lesotho, 1,060,000 people are assessed as malnourished, 583,000 of them children. In Mozambique, starvation deaths were still reported in August among more than 1 million people affected by drought in Tete and other northern provinces. Between 60,000 and 100,000 destitutes have crossed the border into Zimbabwe in search of food. In Zambia, malnutrition is considered the most serious consequence of prolonged drought in the country, with the rate of increased incidence calculated at 30.8 per cent over a three-year period. In Zimbabwe, 464,200 children are undernourished, 214,000 of them in need of supplementary feeding.

49. Emergency relief operations are extensive throughout the subregion, but constrained to a varying degree among the six countries by resource and organizational deficiencies in the food transport, storage and distribution sector. Acute shortages of capital, foreign exchange and skilled manpower limit the capacity of each country to expand, service and fuel its transport systems, to maintain strategic reserves of food, and to distribute basic supplies to remote drought-affected communities.

50. In Angola, there is widespread devastation in Huila and Cunene provinces after the withdrawal of South African forces and as a consequence of civil strife. Transport and communications infrastructure and equipment have been damaged or destroyed, together with wells, water-storage and power installations, hospitals and health centres. A seriously disrupted distribution system is aggravated by extremely low rates of discharge and off-take at the ports of Luanda, Lobito and Nogamedes due to lack of spares and maintenance.

51. In Mozambique, food imports have tripled over the past four years as human tragedy in the country worsened as a result of prolonged drought, cyclone disaster and insurgent activities. Transport infrastructure, both road and rail, are in a serious state of disrepair and in parts are close to collapse. A severe shortage of fuel, spare parts and skilled mechanics, together with security problems, cause frequent breakdowns in the supply lines to the worst-affected northern provinces, with emergency imports tending to pile up at the ports of Beira, Maputo and Nacala. Although there has been generous provision of trucks by the donor community, substantial assistance is still required to build up the transport fleets and keep them operational, to maintain the roads and to improve logistics management.

52. The present critical situation also impedes Mozambique's capacity to carry out its important transit responsibilities to land-locked countries to the south, with Malawi and Zimbabwe obliged to rely on more costly alternatives. The Beira-Malawi line is not operating for the time being and the two other lines out of Mozambique are severely limited in carrying capacity. As a result, Zambia's cargo mainly transits through the United Republic of Tanzania while the intractable problem for Botswana, Lesotho and Zimbabwe is reliance on the Republic of South Africa to handle and forward essential supplies.

B. An updated assessment and short-term outlook in critical areas

1. Food and agriculture

(a) Food-aid requirements, pledges and deliveries

(i) Quantitative assessment and monitoring

53. Information collected through the regular monitoring activities of the FAO Global Inter-country Early Warning Systems indicated in early 1983 that widespread food shortages in Africa during 1983/1984 were likely. Since April 1983 a FAO and WFP Special Task Force has been intensively monitoring food aid requirements, pledges and deliveries in the 24 countries identified as having abnormally high cereal import requirements for the 1983/1984 or 1984 marketing year.

54. Total cereal import requirements of the 24 countries in 1983/1984 are estimated at 5.3 million tonnes, of which the food aid component amounts to 2.9 million tonnes. By September 1984, generous food aid pledges from an increasing number of multilateral, bilateral and non-governmental donors had reached 2.6 million tonnes (88 per cent of requirements), compared with 1.5 million tonnes delivered in the previous marketing year and an annual average of 0.9 million tonnes between 1976 and 1979. Of these pledges 2.3 million tonnes (77 per cent of requirements) were expected to be delivered by end September, with the remaining 0.3 million tonnes scheduled for delivery before the end of 1984 (see annex). Based on the current average c.i.f. prices, the estimated value of pledged cereals amounts to over \$500 million.

55. Food aid requirements for Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Chad, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Lesotho, Mali, Mauritania, Sao Tome and Principe and Swaziland are fully covered by pledges, and only relatively minor gaps are reported for Senegal, Somalia and Togo. It is now impossible to fill the indicative gaps between requirements and food aid pledges for the Central African Republic, Mozambique, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe, amounting to a total of 228,000 tonnes, as in these countries the marketing year has ended and new crops have been harvested. However, new pledges are still required for Ethiopia.

56. The seven countries in southern Africa (Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe) and the United Republic of Tanzania in East Africa have now moved to the 1984/1985 marketing year. Their total cereal food aid requirements for this new period have increased to 1.4 million tonnes from 826,000 ^{4/} in the previous period, although Swaziland now requires no special food assistance since the country produced a normal harvest this year. Against these requirements, 644,000 tonnes have been pledged by donors, of which 416,000 tonnes were expected to be delivered by 30 September 1984.

57. Burundi, Kenya, Morocco and Rwanda, which were not monitored in 1983/1984, have abnormally high cereal import requirements for 1984/1985 as a result of drought-reduced main harvest in 1984. Food aid requirements have been estimated at 132,000 tonnes for Burundi and Rwanda, against which 24,000 tonnes have been pledged. Food aid for emergency relief amounting to 120,000 tonnes will be needed for Morocco.

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58. For Kenya, total cereal import requirements have increased from 185,000 tonnes for 1983/1984 to 1.1 million tonnes for 1984/1985. Total cereal food aid requirements are estimated at 525,000 tonnes. As of end-September 1984, 167,000 tonnes had been pledged with delivery starting in September 1984.

59. Apart from cereal food aid, a total of 230,000 tonnes of various commodities (dried skimmed milk, edible oil, pulses, canned fish or meat, dried fish, sugar, etc.) were delivered or are scheduled for delivery during the 1983/1984 or 1984 marketing year to the 24 African countries mostly by WFP and non-governmental organizations. Moreover, large quantities of food, including cereals, have been purchased locally by various donors, especially non-governmental organizations, for distribution to victims of drought or other calamities, including refugees.

(ii) Co-ordination

60. Given the magnitude of the African food crisis, special co-ordination of response has been necessary in respect of assessment of the needs of individual countries, of the consequent, massive increase in food imports and the large number of food aid donors involved. The FAO Global Information System has intensified its supply monitoring activities in the affected countries and established close links with food aid donors in order to provide reliable and timely information on food aid pledges and to focus attention on remaining deficit areas. FAO and WFP or multi-donor missions have visited most of the affected countries to assess food supply situations and food aid requirements, taking account of the strength of national infrastructures and the capacity of countries to undertake relief operations. The Governments of Burkina Faso, Chad, Mali, Niger and Senegal have requested multi-donor assessment missions for October/November 1984.

61. With the agreement of both donor and recipient countries, WFP has strengthened its capacity for co-ordination both at headquarters and in the field. Instructions were given to field offices to monitor the situation, including scheduled food deliveries, in close liaison with representatives of other donors. They also advise recipient Governments and donors on the timing of food aid deliveries, equating needs with handling facilities at the ports and with the storage, transit and internal transport capacity of the countries concerned. Detailed reports on food aid deliveries, both cereals and non-cereals, and on the evolving logistics situation are distributed monthly by the WFP Operational Task Force established in November 1983.

62. Delivery rates were accelerated in the summer of 1984, which meant that most of the pledged assistance generally reached the affected population during their most critical periods of need. To achieve this and to ensure effective co-ordination, several bilateral donors have chosen to channel most or all additional contributions through the International Emergency Food Reserve administered by WFP. Alternatively, they requested WFP to procure transport, and monitor delivery of their bilateral food contributions.

63. Special efforts have been made by African Governments and generous assistance has been provided by the international community in the sector of food aid logistics such as the provision of vehicles, equipment, spare parts, food stores,

short-term technical assistance and the financing of internal transport costs. However more co-ordinated efforts are still required to remove various constraints to timely delivery of food assistance. Airlifting of commodities to deliver urgently needed supplies and reach otherwise inaccessible communities was used only in a few countries (Chad, Ethiopia, Mozambique). This would indicate that Governments and the international community were better prepared to deal with the food crisis this year than during the 1970s drought in the Sahel, which involved the airlifting of 20,000 tonnes of food for famine relief and was still not enough to prevent thousands of famine deaths.

(b) Recovery and rehabilitation

64. It is necessary not only to survey emergency or immediate needs for food supplies in Africa, but also to review other short-term issues in the food and agriculture sector. These include: extensions and improvements in crop/food early warning systems; improved use by African countries of available information applied to agricultural practices; measures to mobilize resources already in the country, including food and seeds from surplus areas; pesticides and insecticides for the next planting seasons; expansion of crop areas by repair and rehabilitation or irrigation facilities; and provision of tools.

(i) Early warning systems

65. Food production in most African countries is clearly vulnerable to drought, crop disease and pest infestation. Inevitably, these natural calamities lead to large-scale and acute food shortages, hunger and malnutrition.

66. However, there are ways to mitigate these effects through foresight, planning and preparedness. In particular, Governments need to establish or strengthen early warning systems relating to weather, crop and pasture conditions. They should also have standing arrangements for dealing with food emergencies as these are signalled from the field.

67. Where a national early warning system does not exist, it should be set up as a priority and made simple and inexpensive. On the basis of information made available by different departments and organizations, a Central Early Warning Unit should analyse all data relating to the output of basic food crops, including rainfall and weather conditions; pest attack and other factors such as the application of fertilizers and improved seed. If possible, the unit should also monitor indicators relevant to an emerging food supply situation, such as the trend of food prices; the pace and pattern of supply to the markets; the position of Government and private food stocks; and scheduled arrivals of food imports.

68. Where a national system is already operating it may be that measures to strengthen its operation are needed, for example, to fill information gaps, improve the timeliness of reporting on changing situations, or to start a crop outlook reporting service covering rainfall and other natural factors, irrigation, use of agricultural inputs, areas planted, crop conditions and production forecasts. At the same time, there may be a need to strengthen the capacity of relevant institutions to analyse and use information produced by the system.

69. FAO has been assisting African countries in the preparation of early warning projects and their implementation and plans to intensify its activities in this area. Projects are planned or underway for countries of the Southern African Development Co-ordination Conference, as well as Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Rwanda and the Sudan. Requests for assistance have also been received from Burundi, Guinea, Madagascar, Senegal, Togo, Uganda and Zaire. In addition there is a programme of the Training Centre for Agro-meteorological and Hydrological Studies (AERHYMET) for meteorological forecasting in the Sahelian zone with the Food and Agriculture Organization and World Meteorological Organization inputs.

70. Countries prone to acute and large-scale food shortages should also take steps to improve their state of preparedness to meet emergencies. An important action in this regard is to prepare food relief contingency plans that would include tasks and procedures for implementation immediately a serious food supply situation is indicated. The list of necessary actions should include procurement of food supplies through release of existing reserve stocks or through domestic purchases or imports. Coupled with this should be thorough planning of the logistics of distribution to communities in need of additional food or famine relief. Provision should also be made to ensure that livestock can be sustained at appropriate population levels for given areas and that supplies of seeds and other agriculture inputs are made available or replenished. FAO is providing technical support through a programme of workshops to assist countries in developing national food relief contingency plans. A workshop covering eastern and southern African countries was scheduled for October 1984 in Addis Ababa.

(ii) Support for mobilizing local/subregional food resources

71. Experience shows that in most countries affected by the crisis, food shortfalls prevail in particular regions or provinces rather than throughout the country as a whole. To reduce reliance on food aid, countries should make greater use of supplies available in other areas of the country or in neighbouring countries. Procurement, delivery and distribution of such supplies would assure timely availability, acceptability of the food for consumption and suitability of the varieties for seeding purposes. Moreover, the total cost of delivered food-grains procured in the area would in most cases be comparable to that of materials provided from overseas. Local purchases also provide incentives to producers, and could result in expanded crop areas in the following growing season. Systematic mobilization of local and subregional food resources would represent a first concrete step towards effective implementation of a regional food security policy, as proposed by FAO.

(iii) Seed

72. Seed is the principal and often the sole input in basic food-crop production in the crisis-affected countries of Africa. It is traditionally reserved by farmers from their own harvests.

73. However, for various reasons, there may be insufficient seed stocks as the rains arrive and the planting season begins. For example, in periods of severe food shortages, people must consume the seed to survive. More often, stocks have

been depleted as a result of poor or erratic rainfall the previous season, which caused re-seeding, or through genetic deterioration reducing the potential yield from the seed.

74. There are also constraints to importing seed stock in a situation of shortage. Such seed stock may fail by comparison with material adapted to local ecological conditions and importation may effect a genetic deterioration of local seed or it may carry the risk of introducing disease.

75. In view of the importance of the issue, the following remedial actions are suggested:

(a) That farmers be given the opportunity to reserve sufficient seed through priority delivery of food aid supplies to areas of crop production whenever these are necessary;

(b) That there should be further international assistance to African Governments in identifying, testing and procuring grain suitable for seeding purposes and in treating and storing the seed before distribution to farmers ahead of the planting season;

(c) That subregional seed stocks should be established as emergency reserves for countries unable to locate suitable seed or preserve sufficient stock from their harvests.

76. A number of countries have already requested FAO to arrange missions to assess national agricultural situations, including examinations of problems of supply, handling and quality of seeds. Such missions are scheduled for Chad, Ethiopia, Mali and Niger. In addition to seeds, supplementary inputs are required, such as fertilizers, pesticides and insecticides, as well as technical assistance for their effective utilization. In many countries, there is also a need to rehabilitate irrigation facilities, to repair small water reservoirs and irrigation channels of the secondary distribution systems.

(iv) Livestock

77. The main problems for livestock in drought-affected countries are obviously shortage of feed and water and vulnerability to disease. In the present situation, stock losses are high and the surviving animals are substantially reduced in terms of productivity and value. This applies incidentally to draught animals used on farms, whose weakened state may reduce plantings and eventual food output.

78. In many countries, remedial action is being taken through programmes of disease control, animal nutrition, emergency water supply, and de-stocking where the size of the herds outweigh the carrying capacity of the land. The Pan-African Rinderpest Campaign is also expected to begin later this year. However, there are other health questions that need to be addressed together with numerous other issues in the livestock sector. Further international support and technical assistance is required for Government de-stocking operations and safeguarding national nucleus herds, including provision of new or additional water sources. The question of importing or mobilizing local fodder resources in emergency situations also needs further consideration.

2. Water supply

79. The supply of that vital source of life, water, is in a precarious situation even at the best of times in Africa. In the framework of the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade, more than 30 drought-affected countries have established national plans to manage and exploit this precious resource. These countries have submitted 220 projects to the international community requesting financial assistance totalling \$800 million.

80. In conditions of prolonged drought not only is the critical supply of water affected but also the quality of the available water, which may have catastrophic consequences for the health of the affected population. In order to prevent the spread of water-borne diseases, essential equipment for water bacteriological tests and chlorination facilities are needed. Support must also be given to encouraging communities to improve basic sanitary conditions by employing appropriate methods of dealing with latrines, refuse and multiple use of water sources (human and animal consumption).

81. The maintenance of the wells and other critical water systems is vital during a drought situation. The digging of wells and boreholes, as well as the creation of local maintenance brigades with an adequate supply system of spare parts, can be as important as the food relief programme. The training of technicians, the supply of simply well-digging equipment, pumps, vehicles and the organization of strategically located workshops/depots are critical for the drought-stricken countries. The mobilization of the local populations and the strengthening of national water-supply institutions have permitted the most severely-affected countries to survive devastating drought conditions without undue loss of life. The improvement of local hand pumps, as well as those driven by animal power, should be a priority.

82. The location of new sources of water and its exploitation through deep drilling can relieve a critical situation. The co-ordination of external aid and standardization of equipment is very important in this connection. Well-prepared water development plans to maximize and prioritize the use of available resources can make the difference between life and death. The conservation of water and well-designed water management systems are important in the fight against desertification as well as sustaining life in Africa. Many African countries are emphasizing the development of small-scale water development schemes, small earth dams and simple catchment systems to supply people and livestock and for irrigating crop-land, reducing the dependence of farmers on erratic rainfall. Small community and family gardens created around wells are also effective solutions to improving the basic diet of the resident population as well as creating additional sources of income.

83. The provision of water storage facilities, pumping equipment and motorized tankers are also crucial when the traditional sources of water fail. It is encouraging to note that emergency water supply assistance is receiving considerable support from both bilateral donors and United Nations organizations, notably the United Nations Sahelian Office, the United Nations International Children's Fund, the United Nations Development Programme, the United Nations Development Fund, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

84. Another aspect of the water supply problem relates to the critical situation in the urban areas, which has been aggravated by the decline of traditional sources of water and the accelerated migration to cities and towns as a result of the drought in the rural areas. The problems are serious in the major African cities as well as in the Comoros, Djibouti and Sao Tome and Principe and warrant further attention by the international community.

3. Transport, storage and distribution

85. Transport, storage and distribution are the component parts of an integrated system to move emergency supplies to the affected zones quickly, safely and at lowest cost. Logistics requirements differ with the type of commodities transported, and in relief operations these are mainly: bulk or bagged cereals imported from overseas requiring mass surface transport; medicines and vaccines, high-value and low-weight cargo imported from overseas; water distribution and domestic energy supply, calling for specialized transport services only within limited geographical areas.

86. Bulk and bagged cereals are the critical commodities in most cases and their passage in the transport chain from overseas ports to main distribution centres in drought-affected countries may encounter several bottle-necks, for example:

(a) Saturation of discharge capacity from ship to pier, caused by simultaneous shipment arrivals as a result of inadequate ship charter scheduling; delays in discharge also result in heavy demurrage payments; consequent serious financial implications;

(b) Congestion in the ports where quays and sheds are used as warehousing areas in lieu of trans-shipment facilities;

(c) Lack of planning in respect of port discharge capacities and the availability of transport to move the consignments from the port to the main distribution centres;

(d) Unserviceable or unsuitable equipment for handling bulk shipments and reticence to apply semi-unitized techniques to bagged shipments;

(e) Use of costly road transport over long distances when less expensive long-haul railway transport is available;

(f) Non-utilization of possible up-country relay warehousing facilities, or buffer discharge points, in order to alleviate port pressure and to speed the movement and eventual bagging of cereals;

(g) Supplementary difficulties arising from the need to cross national borders in order to reach land-locked countries.

87. From main distribution centres to the widely dispersed settlements, small-scale distribution of food aid is often constrained by a different set of

bottle-necks. Poor road networks, lack of repair and maintenance, inadequate spare parts, together with a shortage of vehicles and storage facilities, and in some cases traditional means of transport make it difficult, and in some cases impossible, to reach the affected population. Furthermore, in some countries internal strife complicates or sometimes severely handicaps the transport facility.

88. The second category of commodities, vaccines and medical supplies, are usually airlifted, normally at competitive prices so that internal transport costs are comparatively low. However, given their perishable nature, especially vaccines, these medical supplies require specialized refrigerated transport and storage equipment that is often not available. Agencies such as the Office of the United Nations Disaster Relief Co-ordinator, the United Nations Children's Fund and the World Health Organization are trying to meet these needs.

89. As mentioned in paragraph 10 above, data have been provided separately on the urgent needs and responses in this sector, including a tentative evaluation of the demand increasing cereals will make on entry port transport systems in a number of countries. From the available information and assessment some tentative conclusions can be drawn.

90. The increase projected in cereal import requirements, although severely taxing the entry ports and internal transport capacity of the region, is not beyond the overall capacity as assessed. Clearly, physical transport infrastructure up to the main distribution centres still needs further rehabilitation, including effective maintenance and possibly purchase of additional rail rolling stock, locomotives and road trucks.

91. Storage facilities (warehousing or silos) within the port of transit and along the main transit corridors up to the drought-affected areas are also deficient. Handling equipment must be better maintained, repaired and in some cases extended. However, it would seem that the most urgent requirement to improve the flow of relief supplies to the drought-stricken areas is not so much capital investment as improved logistics management.

92. This should include: (a) scheduling of overseas shipments to match with port discharge and off-take capacities; (b) monitoring and planning port off-take rates for the purpose of achieving the most economical allocation between different transport modes (rail and road) for more frequent turn-rounds of shuttle services; (c) reducing and stream-lining heavy and cumbersome administrative and customs clearance procedures and ensuring adequate communications between vital interchange points; (d) establishing storage and bagging facilities at critical trans-shipment points; (e) encouraging imaginative, provisional low-cost solutions to increase transport capacity (such as substituting open-top containers on platform wagons or tarpaulin-lined open wagons for unavailable hopper-wagons); (f) establishing distribution network programmes to affected areas; and (g) reaching appropriate agreements between land-locked and transit countries to facilitate the improved delivery of supplies to the hinterland.

93. Moreover, where possible, all available transport and storage capacity should be surveyed and a transport operations plan or guidelines established that match

with intended distribution plans. With improved logistics management, food aid commodities imported from overseas could be transported to the main regional distribution centres with a minimum loss of time, with little additional capital expenditure, and at tariffs lower than those prevailing at present.

94. The savings could then be used to finance the cost of distribution within the affected area itself. The resulting reallocation of available funds and means of transport would help to ensure that relief supplies could more effectively reach their final destination from the main distribution centres. The cost of operating this final section of the transport chain will nevertheless remain very high, often beyond the means of national budgets. Therefore careful consideration should be given to this matter by the donor community.

95. To improve the overall performance of potential capacities at every stage of the transport chain, it could prove useful to establish a transport task force within existing United Nations structures. This task force, established at subregional levels, would deal with logistics problems relating to maritime transport, entry port facilities and surface distribution to both affected national and land-locked hinterlands through transit corridors.

96. Already some agencies, non-governmental organizations and donors have provided ad hoc logistics support, but it is felt that a more systematic approach should be developed to implement improved overall logistics management and in parallel train national expert counterparts. This approach would not only be an immediate response to the crisis situation but would also contribute to permanently and practically reinforcing transport management capacities in all affected countries.

97. United Nations agencies, non-governmental organizations and donor countries could pool technical assistance resources, and within the task force framework, assign technical personnel. In light of its ongoing work in the area of management in shipping, ports and along the transit corridors serving land-locked developing countries, detailed operational terms of reference could be provided by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, in consultation with the appropriate organizations of the United Nations system. The cost of establishing such a programme would only be a minimal fraction of corresponding savings in expenditure disbursements, in time, in more adequate allocation of aid supply and as well as in optimal use of existing transport capacity.

4. Refugees and displaced persons

(a) Refugees

98. There are approximately 3 to 4 million refugees on the African continent, often in, or from, drought-affected countries. In several cases the drought has contributed to the advent of a new refugee situation or has created different situations where a new approach is required; in the vast majority of cases, drought is an additional but significant factor for UNHCR programme planning purposes.

99. As with any local community, drought can seriously affect different aspects of refugee settlement life, often requiring major programme adjustments, or a revision of priorities and objectives. As an example, a normal part of UNHCR's function is expanding water-supply sources, whether through additional drilling programmes, water-conservation measures, or water transport. In the case of drought, this is undertaken automatically through project revision and adjustment and normally does not require a new project.

100. While the direct impact of the drought on refugees dwelling in urban areas is initially less obvious than for those in the rural sector, the impact is often equally serious for a wide range of reasons. Competition for limited jobs and scarce resources increases and, as the refugees are aliens, they usually suffer most. Increased prices of scarce agricultural and farm produce, and severely affected sanitation and sewage arrangements, are some of the dimensions of the impact. These problems have to be dealt with as part of a wider national and international approach, and many relevant projects are being implemented. Urban water distribution points have been improved to ensure better water distribution and to reduce contamination. Counselling services are being reviewed and job/employment orientation given greater emphasis. Income-generation projects for urban refugees constitute another area of focus.

101. While UNHCR's activities are clearly targeted for people defined as refugees, there is also limited scope for assistance to refugees who return to their country of origin. Furthermore, UNHCR co-operates with development agencies in strengthening local infrastructure, so that those living near refugee projects can also benefit from facilities such as water supply and public health.

102. The Second International Conference on Assistance to Refugees in Africa (ICARA II) was held in Geneva from 9 to 11 July 1984. Besides focusing attention on refugees in Africa, it linked refugee and developmental issues so as to ensure closer co-ordination in future. Many of the projects proposed at ICARA II are directly relevant to the impact of the drought.

(b) Displaced persons

103. It is also important, in the context of the current crisis, to provide some indication of the magnitude of the problem of groups of people who, in addition to refugees and returnees under the UNHCR mandate, have been forced by drought conditions to leave their homes in the hope of survival. These groups are looking for pastures for their herds, comprising whole communities within countries. They also include a mass of people moving from rural to urban centres looking for job opportunities, as well as those who cross national borders and, on occasion, may be described as living in refugee-like circumstances. While population movements in tightly structured societies are generally difficult to monitor, this becomes almost impossible in areas where there are traditional nomadic patterns, where there has been an urban-rural drift for years, or where statistical information does not exist.

104. The impact of the drought on a given community is dependent upon a number of factors, including existing resources and infrastructure, preparedness and adequacy

of contingency measures, governmental support, the viability of normal income-generating activities, political and economic policies, and prevailing market opportunities. Developing an integrated long-term approach to minimize the impact of drought, when it occurs, may help reduce the need for massive population movements. Without doubt there is a need for the affected countries and the international community to examine this question urgently, taking into account the humanitarian aspect and the fact that tackling the underlying causes of drought-induced population movements may in future prevent any unnecessary recurrent movements, and in the longer-term constitute the most cost-effective approach. While the prime responsibility for addressing this question rests with African Governments themselves, the international donor community could support efforts in this area.

105. Such a longer-term view is important even at the emergency stage. Emergency solutions should be designed to encourage self-help, to introduce lasting solutions, to prevent growing dependency on external aid and above all to remedy the causes that, together with drought conditions, have led people to abandon their homes and territories. For its part, the United Nations system can help assist in a variety of ways and through a number of organizations under the overall umbrella of UNDP.

5. Health and nutrition assessment

106. The information provided in the relevant tables of the annex is incomplete and merely indicative of problems, needs and responses in the health and nutrition area. For several countries a fresh assessment and up-to-date information is needed. Conclusions derived from the presently available information are therefore tentative.

107. Deteriorating health and nutrition conditions are one of the prime indicators of the degree of crisis in the drought-stricken areas. They aggravate the emergency situation, and if unattended they become in the longer-term a serious impediment to social and economic recovery and reconstruction. Available information indicates that for several countries a quick and effective response has helped to prevent further immediate deterioration of health and nutrition conditions, but that in most other countries the situation remains precarious at best. From a few countries it has been reported that if relief supply stocks give out in the next few months, large communities will again be at serious risk. From some countries, outbreaks of contagious diseases (cholera, measles, meningitis) have been reported, but generally these appear to be under control.

108. In the Sahelian region, which has only one crop per year, more than 70 per cent of food intake comes from cereals, mainly sorghum and pearl millet, and the average Sahelian diet does not satisfy individual energy and protein requirements, particularly for mothers and pre-school children. Two or three months before the annual food harvest, supplies are lowest at village and family level and food intake falls below minimum requirements, just when increased energy is needed for agricultural activities. The result is weight loss, reduced work performance and productivity, and birth of under-weight babies with attendant

health risks. The Sahelian region has a high rate of protein-energy-malnutrition (PEM), which affects 20 to 30 per cent of pre-school children, this results in peak child-mortality rates in the pre-harvest period. Estimates are that 40 per cent of pre-school children and 60 per cent of pregnant women are suffering from nutritional anaemia. These deficiencies, poor environmental hygiene and lack of safe drinking-water all contribute to a high incidence of infectious diseases and high mortality rates.

109. The rural population groups in central, eastern and southern Africa generally depend for their staple foods on maize and sorghum in sub-tropical and high-altitude areas, or on cassava, sweet potatoes, yams and fruits in tropical areas. The lower income and other vulnerable groups in particular derive their energy supply almost exclusively from these staple foods, and it is estimated that the diet of one quarter of the population in these regions is inadequate.

110. Little is known about the magnitude of malnutrition in African urban areas. So far, available data indicate that child malnutrition in isolated rural areas is still higher than in urban communities, but the increasingly rapid urbanization and rural/urban immigration, aggravated by recent massive influxes of rural victims, are creating serious health and nutrition problems due to inadequate health services and the very low income levels of the marginal urban population. In this respect it may be noted that African urban consumption patterns increasingly tend to favour expensive imported food, especially wheat. Cultural influences, food habits, educational levels, family consumption patterns and so on are further factors contributing to incidental or semi-permanent malnutrition.

111. The response to the emergency health and nutrition situations has appropriately focused on three major relief areas: supplementary and school feeding programmes aimed at vulnerable groups, especially mothers and young children; special medical protection, treating severe malnutrition and preventing epidemics among concentrations of drought victims; and special provisions for safe drinking-water supply and sanitation.

112. For many countries these relief efforts should continue, and in some cases be expanded, taking account of rapidly evolving drought conditions in the short term. However, it will also be necessary to give attention to the often urgent need for reconstruction of health infrastructure. In some countries this, as well as other infrastructures, have been severely affected by military action or conditions of civil strife; in many others, the health infrastructure has seriously deteriorated under the pressure, lasting for years, of economic crisis and attendant budgetary constraints. Especially in drought-prone regions this is a serious matter, as it reduces national resilience and preparedness to less than the minimum. Furthermore it would seem essential to maintain market supply to avoid speculation, hoarding and rising prices, and also to address vigorously the vulnerability of rural and urban groups whose income has fallen because of production failure or unemployment. This often means redesigning traditional centripetal market flows and paying particular attention to the organization of food distribution on concessionary terms. The needs of those who cannot afford to buy food should be paramount in the analysis of the food emergency situation and the execution of the response to it.

113. It is equally important to give special attention to the strengthening of health and nutrition monitoring systems and, where they do not exist, to their creation. The present drought emergency has brought into stark focus the vital need to know earlier (and better) when, how and to what extent populations are endangered by drought conditions. When drought hits, it is essential to know who are the ones to suffer first and most severely, but often there is only a general idea of estimated numbers and approximate location of vulnerable groups.

114. UNICEF and some other organizations are providing nutritional surveillance support in several countries, but there remains a clear need for nutrition data, especially to plan large-scale supplementary feeding programmes to vulnerable groups in drought-prone areas. In several countries there is a lack of nutritional data that would provide an early indication of any deterioration of the nutritional status for given populations in given areas. It would seem useful for agencies concerned to review jointly how national monitoring could be strengthened region-wide to arrive at commonly agreed conclusions.

115. In the assessment of the health and nutrition situation special mention should be made of the important and valuable role played by non-governmental organizations and voluntary agencies that are often the most directly involved in relief operations in the disaster areas. Their rapid and flexible response contributes to a large extent to the success of many relief operations. In several countries they are now fully ensuring transport and distribution of supplies in large-scale supplementary feeding programmes. There is close co-operation between them and the United Nations agencies at headquarters level and, in many cases, at the country level. In several countries the larger non-governmental organizations have traditionally implemented ongoing regular food and nutrition programmes for vulnerable groups and rural community self-help projects. In the longer term this particular experience will be very useful when nation reconstruction and rehabilitation efforts will need special support.

6. Energy

116. Although quantitative information is not complete on the short-term energy requirements, it is clear that hydropower supplies in many parts of Africa declined substantially in 1983 and early 1984 due to drought and consequent reduction in river levels and flow rates. The situation was particularly severe in countries such as Benin, Ghana, Ivory Coast, and Togo. In addition, the situation has been aggravated by the decline of export crops that paid for the importation of petroleum products. The consequent shortages of fuel greatly hamper the emergency operations, as well as the development of the affected countries, and calls for emergency financial allocations.

117. The lack of water and consequent reduction of power supplies has resulted in basic industries and services operating at low levels of productivity. The affected countries have also been obliged to divert large amounts of their limited foreign exchange earnings to the importation of emergency power generating equipment, as well as petroleum products and spare parts for their operation. All these developments have worsened the balance-of-payments situation with a consequent further negative impact on economic activity.

118. The drought and the loss of livestock have resulted in a decline in the availability of firewood, crop residues and animal products for fuel. The afforestation programmes have been greatly affected by lack of rain and the desperate search for firewood has compounded the ecological crisis in the Sahelian zones of Africa.

119. The non-oil producing countries in Africa must exploit their energy sources with great care. The Nairobi Conference on New and Renewable Sources of Energy identified a number of sources of energy that have not been fully developed in Africa - biomass, wind, solar, hydro and geothermal. The use of corn and sorghum stover, saw dust and bagasse, cotton and straw residues; charcoal produced from wastes and coffee-residue briquettes are some biomass fuel sources that can help alleviate the energy crisis in Africa. Solar and wind sources of energy have expanded possibilities in many African countries. Village-based tree plantations can provide a stable source of energy for household consumption. Conservation and more efficient cooking methods can also reduce fuel wood consumption and energy demand.

120. Africa has unexploited hydro, geothermal, coal, oil-shale, gas and even petroleum resources. The search for and development of these reliable sources of energy should remain a priority for those countries where such energy resources have been identified. The United Nations agencies have an important role to play in the appraisal and promotion of both conventional and new sources of energy.

121. The continued importation of petrol, diesel fuel and kerosene will remain crucial during the emergency situations faced by the African countries as a result of the drought and decreased foreign exchange earnings. Many countries of the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries have made concessionary arrangements to supply the most severely affected countries with the essential fuel for industry, transport and household consumption. Other donors are providing emergency power generating equipment and fuel for refugee settlements and hospitals as well as paying for vital aviation and ground transportation fuel.

122. Energy planning and management are crucial in connection with the immediate crisis as well as for long-term development. The World Bank and UNDP have collaborated in a comprehensive energy sector assessment programme that has identified the most promising sources of energy, manpower and institutional requirements, as well as viable investment projects. Both these institutions, as well as many bilateral agencies, are financing valuable technical assistance in this sector, but Africa will continue to require substantial amounts of capital as well as institution-building assistance to surmount the current energy crisis and establish a stable basis for economic and social development.

7. Social aspects of the crisis

123. One of the most important social aspects of the crisis is that of maintaining gainful employment. The vast majority of people in affected areas are farmers or herdsmen and the effect of drought is immediate and disastrous on their livelihood. Drought conditions usually force them to move away from their lands to

where they perceive help may be available. Usually this is towards over-crowded cities, already straining to meet escalating demands for utilities and basic services.

124. This accelerated rural/urban drift, with all its side-effects, is the second urgent aspect of the social crisis. Services to meet basic needs, for example decent housing, clean water, sanitation facilities, basic health services and transportation, are inadequate and unreliable. However, the overriding need is for a job, which most of the time does not exist. Without any cash income, or at best an incidental income from occasional part-time work, these displaced people cannot afford the price of such goods and services as may be available. The impact on central and local government administrations and services is serious. Apart from the loss of a major portion of local wealth and resources through the break in agricultural and livestock production, there are now increasing demands for basic needs for survival from the large groups of people jammed together in a few over-crowded cities, or in temporary camps, for whom the only hope is in food aid relief.

125. However, many Governments have acted to meet the social consequences of the emergency situation. Measures include special rural public works programmes in 14 African countries, most of which are among the countries worst affected by the drought. These use labour-intensive methods for the construction and maintenance of feeder roads, small bridges and culverts, irrigation schemes, water points, rural storage facilities, etc. They also provide people most seriously and immediately affected in rural areas with an alternative income (cash and/or food and clothing) so that they can keep their families in their home areas and are therefore under less pressure to migrate to the cities. Moreover, these programmes assisted by the donor community help to create and maintain the basic facilities for rural relief operations. To date, a large number of rural poor have benefited from such programmes, carried out with advice and assistance of the ILO and generous financial support by UNDP and bilateral donors such as the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and the Danish International Development Agency and others. In the United Republic of Tanzania more than two million paid working days have been generated by the scheme. UNDP has allocated \$5 million for 1982-1984 for least developed countries, mostly African, as well as other donors and institutions such as the European Economic Community/International Fund for Agricultural Development and WFP. However, a much more expanded effort is needed to overcome some of the immediate drought problems and to reduce the displacement of population groups, and to improve the maintenance and rational exploitation of the natural resource base through such measures as soil conservation, reforestation, sand dune fixation, small-scale water management, etc.

126. In several East African countries, another emergency-related programme with important longer-term benefits is now under way. It comprises special training activities focused on rural, extra-agricultural self-employment. It also includes vocational training for skills needed in the rural areas, for example, construction, mechanical skills, metal working and tailoring. Coupled with the vocational skill training is complementary small business training so that the skilled artisan can also establish and run a successful enterprise, either alone or in partnership or in a co-operative society. These schemes should result in

short-term improvements in the life of affected farmers and a longer-term modification of the rural social structure with regard to the cash non-farm earnings to augment agricultural income. This latter aspect is most important in helping build a rural infrastructure in which basic needs are met and sustained.

127. A third activity, under way in several African countries, which helps to alleviate the effects of drought, concerns the development, adaptation and use of appropriate technology in the form of tools and equipment. It is often linked to programmes such as those described above, and while creating opportunities to earn cash incomes it also meets the need for cheap farming tools under local conditions. A regional project, established by the Finnish Agency for International Development (FINNAID) and jointly implemented by ILO/FAO/ECA is operating in seven east and southern African countries. Additionally, UNICEF is operating similar programmes in a number of countries. Activities related to women are also under way in many countries with a view to strengthening the role of women and their contribution in the current crisis, especially in rural areas.

8. Natural resources and environment

128. Critical conditions with regard to the natural resource base and the environment exacerbate and are exacerbated by the crisis as soil cover is degraded, desertification increases and water resources diminish. In the effort to survive, populations degrade and destroy more vegetal cover and soil by the extension of unsuitable cultivation in marginal lands, reduction of fallow periods and overgrazing of rangelands. It has been estimated that more than two and a half million hectares of savannah have been destroyed in the last year, and deserts have been extended drastically. In addition to shifting agriculture and overgrazing, the destruction of forest cover for fuelwood and timber for export, at a rate that exceeds its capacity to regenerate, has consequences for water resources, energy availability and soil erosion, and may be influencing climatic conditions.

129. The combined effects of drought, desertification and deforestation have reduced water resources to an unprecedented degree and extent in most of the rivers and lake basins - even in the Oubangui-Congo/Zaire trade water - with nearly complete drying of inland lakes and deltas such as the Chad, the Okavango and the Niger central delta, and with corresponding depletion of the underground water resources.

130. The recent assessment of desertification made by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) in collaboration with UNSO shows the extension of desert conditions around the Sahara, Namib-Kalahari and Horn of Africa that result in the desertification of millions of hectares of pasturelands, the extension of Sahel-like conditions in savannah zones and an increase in dry season in forest countries.

9. Response capacity, including preparedness

131. The preceding sections contain a number of conclusions as regards domestic and international response in terms of identified needs and contributions that have

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been made. These, and the following general conclusions, may help to strengthen response capacity and also merit consideration in the framework of longer-term recovery activities.

132. Firstly, the major factor in an effective response to the situation in Africa is how African Governments, individually and collectively, view the drought emergency and how they decide to act upon it. This, in turn, depends to a large extent on how Governments are organized, not only in terms of national preparedness for a drought situation, but also with regard to the strategy and structure for development of their economies. There is a clear link between national response capacity and effective development policies and mechanisms. For example, countries that have focused development efforts at the local, district level are in a better position to assess needs quickly and accurately, and subsequently to monitor relief operations in rural areas.

133. Secondly, initiatives for responding to a drought situation, such as preparing and launching an appeal to the donor community, and the subsequent co-ordination of relief efforts, are a prime responsibility of the Governments concerned. However, in almost all cases, the large-scale relief operations require a fully integrated joint effort, involving many different government authorities and services, multi- and bilateral donors, the United Nations system at the country-level, and national and international voluntary agencies. Even where Governments are relatively well-organized, the need for general co-ordination poses large demands on national capacity, and organizational constraints often limit such capacity seriously. For a number of countries, this temporary problem has been overcome to some extent by calling for early support through the United Nations Resident Co-ordinator from agencies such as UNDR0, FAO/WFP and UNICEF, particularly for such initiatives as the initial assessment of needs, preparing appeals, and monitoring relief operations.

134. Thirdly, apart from gaps between identified emergency needs and response, there is also a large margin for improvement in the planning and management of emergency relief operations. Only in a few countries could this be considered as adequate, and more use should be made of United Nations system support, both at country level and through the specialized agencies, to supplement national efforts. Many Governments are also working under severe financial constraints and cannot expand capacity because of deficiencies in trained manpower and restrictions on augmenting recurrent costs in the state budget. In a number of countries this major constraint has been somewhat alleviated with non-governmental organizations, bilateral donors and some United Nations agencies assuming part of the financial burden of managing and conducting relief operations, including the hiring of national staff or making incentive payments. However, for some drought-prone subregions, Governments and donors together should give some thought to the creation of a relief operation stand-by capacity that would be self-contained, financially and logistically.

135. Fourthly, available information indicates that while, for the region as a whole, drought conditions are continuing, there have been relatively rapid changes in some drought-affected areas; good rainfall in some places, spreading drought conditions in others. Under these constantly changing conditions, rapid and

flexible response becomes even more important and there is an urgent need to strengthen the following aspects of response capacity: at the national or subregional level, crop and food early warning systems; monitoring systems for emergency and relief operations; logistics planning and management; and urgent expansion of storage capacity in remote rural areas. At the international level, apart from expanded facilities for pre-positioning food supplies and borrowing from nearby food stocks, there is a clear need for centralized monitoring of all overseas food shipments (food aid and commercial) in order to improve the scheduling of food shipments to African ports. Most of these ports have a limited off-take capacity and accurate forward scheduling of exceptionally large quantities of food-grains needed up to mid-1985 may help reduce port congestion or crucial shortage in rural areas. This would require technical assistance, some pooling of capacity and technical resources among the United Nations organizations concerned, and some financial provisions. However, compared to the sheer size and volume of present relief operations in the African region, such expenditure would amount to only a fraction of consequent savings in time, effort and material losses, and it would go far in meeting humanitarian objectives more effectively.

136. Fifthly, in a number of African countries the trend is to incorporate drought emergency planning with medium-term economic recovery planning, but the process is far from perfect and will need considerable support. The technical factors that inhibit effective planning, both for the short and longer term, include lack of statistical data, manpower constraints and lack of co-ordination that hampers the integration of preparedness and crisis objectives with long-term economic goals. The best course of action would be to strengthen national planning capacity at all levels, but this is a long and costly process. It may be an area in which African intergovernmental organizations could perhaps make an immediate contribution, with the support of United Nations organizations.

III. SOME LONGER-TERM FEATURES OF ADJUSTMENT IN THE AFFECTED COUNTRIES

A. Intra-African issues and policies

1. Overall economic policy and management

137. As stressed in the Special Memorandum concerning Africa's economic crisis prepared by the ECA Conference of Ministers, the policy mix required from African Governments themselves to cope with the crisis and redress economic deficiencies will vary from country to country. However, for most African countries, a common and widely recognized need is to devise economic policies which take into account not only their respective priorities but also the natural resources and domestic and external resources available.

138. It is essential, in this connection, that the planning process be conceived not as a shopping list of projects for potential donors but as a framework for mobilizing all resources in a sustainable manner for increasing the production of goods and services primarily for the use of the population, as well as an activity for assigning sectoral and subsectoral priorities. Hence, as pointed out in the Special Memorandum, economic policy in the context of overall development planning

should clearly spell out measures for providing appropriate incentives to producers in all sectors so that the entire population may fully participate in the rehabilitation and reconstruction efforts, thus enhancing human resources development.

139. With respect to national institutional and administrative structures and support mechanisms, it should be noted that the lack of comprehensive procedural arrangements in economic policy-making, plan preparation and plan/budget co-ordination has often led to misallocation of scarce resources, thus creating some confusion and doubt about government bodies from different perspectives. It is therefore essential for African countries to ensure that such structures and mechanisms are strengthened and improved so as to enable a clear establishment of priorities and an effective management of available resources.

140. In addition to ensuring sound global economic policy-making and management, African countries must also ensure better and more profitable management and administration of public enterprises and services, especially in utilizing more adequately all available skills and avoiding unnecessary or costly expenditure. More generally, unproductive endeavour, public or private, should not continue to constitute a drain on the economies of the African countries, given the severity of present economic problems.

141. An important area of emphasis in the context of improved management relates to the maintenance of means of production, including equipment, roads, vehicles, public buildings and more generally all social and economic infrastructure. In this respect, African Governments should devote more administrative and budgetary resources towards this end so as to increase the efficiency of their economies. Recent tendencies among donor countries and institutions clearly show their reluctance to finance additional investments because of inadequate or lack of maintenance. In the long run, this will become clearly detrimental to the flow of resources to African countries. An important area of emphasis for improved managements is the sustainable use and conservation of national resources.

142. Finally, more rigorous financial management, especially with respect to public expenditure, must be part of the recovery and reconstruction effort. Indeed, the magnitude of some non-productive public expenditures is such that in many African countries it should be possible to embark successfully on strict and austere budgetary policies without cutting down on essential social services, such as education and health, thus sparing vulnerable population groups.

2. Main sectoral policy issues

(a) Food and agriculture

143. The crisis has a long genesis reaching down to the colonial period. However, the 1970s was the decade when underlying problems reached critical proportions.

144. Most countries in Africa have the potential to support much larger populations, but there is a general imbalance between their population growth rates

and their capabilities to expand food production to meet demand. In the 1970s, agricultural production increased at less than 2 per cent per annum (cereals about 1.2 per cent; roots and tubers, 2 per cent; and livestock, 3 per cent). This compares with an estimated increase in food demand of at least 3 per cent. Only in four countries did domestic food production increase at a faster rate than demand over the decade. For the region as a whole, per capita value added production in agriculture declined by more than 1.5 per cent per annum.

145. With respect to external trade, agricultural export performance has been inadequate at a time of increased dependence on food imports requiring substantial foreign exchange. Real export earnings from crops and livestock declined 2 per cent per annum in the 1970s while imports of agricultural products increased by nearly 9 per cent, with the share of food in total imports reaching 20 per cent in 1980. An important disturbance in the period has been large fluctuations in the prices of export commodities and in export earnings. With these fluctuations, the purchasing power of African countries exporting agricultural commodities devalued by about 40 per cent since 1973 through adverse trends in price relationships and an inability to expand the volume of exports. The decline in purchasing power has been steady since 1977.

146. In sub-Saharan Africa, agricultural land has the potential to support more than three times the population of the mid-1970s. However, 15 out of 41 countries cannot feed existing populations from their own land resources without improving technology. Land in production has increased only slowly, by less than 1 per cent per annum, with fertilizer used at only 10 kg per hectare of arable land. Large areas are also currently underproductive or unusable because of disease-carrying pests such as tsetse which affects some 10 million square kilometres in 37 countries.

147. It is essential, therefore, that improved technologies be developed, particularly for rain-fed small-holdings and the transhumant agriculture in the fragile ecosystems typically found in Africa. It is equally important for African countries to stimulate with appropriate support from agricultural research programmes, with special emphasis on research on traditional food crops, and to adopt land tenure policies which provide security to land-owners and encourage long-term land improvements. Governments must also improve management of agricultural input distribution. Assistance in the provision of foreign exchange resources, so as to ensure essential imports for agricultural development, could be an important contribution of donors.

148. Policies with regard to labour resources are also important in a longer-term perspective. The labour force in the agricultural sector is growing slowly in comparison with overall population growth, while rates of rural-urban migration are high at 6 per cent per annum, implying rapid urbanization. Shortage of labour is a real constraint to agricultural development in many countries. In Africa, there tend to be more women than men working in agriculture, yet they lack access to land or have difficulties in obtaining credit, extension advice, and material inputs. This also warrants the consideration of Governments.

149. Assuming food demand keeps pace with population growth of 3 per cent per annum and with the growth in labour force of only 1.3 per cent (excluding effects of other demographic and income changes), the implication is that labour productivity must increase by at least 1.7 per cent, a level that generally cannot be obtained with current technologies. There is therefore a need to make life in rural areas more attractive so as to retain sufficient labour on the land where land is still relatively abundant.

150. Another consideration is the fact that past pricing policies have turned domestic terms of trade against agriculture. Frequently they have been particularly unfavourable for the production of food crops. In many countries, the intervention of Government parastatals in marketing, agricultural taxation and consumer-oriented price setting has been a contributing cause of poor performance in the agricultural sector. In some cases, the effects of varying foreign exchange rates have also led to a deterioration of agricultural performance. In many countries these problems are compounded by logistical or structural constraints such as difficulties with the procurement of inputs, lack of necessary infrastructure and/or inefficient domestic marketing systems.

151. However, since the adoption of the Lagos Plan of Action, many countries have embarked on policies aimed at correcting past development strategies that have tended to be primarily industrial- and urban-oriented. In designing new strategies, including food sector strategies, the priorities to be assigned to different subsectors would vary from country to country. Regardless of the precise mix, however, it is essential that domestic public expenditure on agriculture should be commensurate with the importance of the sector in the economy.

152. In some countries, demographic issues need to be given much more attention. High rates of population growth and high rates of rural-urban migration have often worsened the food supply-demand imbalance. It is therefore essential for individual countries to devise policies in which population growth and development objectives are closely interrelated.

153. Finally, priority goals in Africa should not ignore the forestry sector. Africa has over 200 million ha of tropical forests: 3 million are under management. Deforestation is estimated at 4 million ha annually. Vast tracts of the additional 500 million ha of open woodland and savannah forests are being depleted for fuelwood and by shifting cultivation and overgrazing. Just over 100,000 ha are planted annually, about 3 per cent of what is destroyed annually. Trade in forest products in Africa has now deteriorated from a significant surplus until 1971 to a progressively growing deficit of nearly \$1 billion per year.

154. Drastic remedial action is required to prevent further deterioration of the environment, of land and water resources, and of agricultural productivity. Reforestation, including green belts and fuelwood plantations, must be increased. Fuelwood is already so scarce in some areas that family life is interrupted searching for it. In some areas it is so expensive that nutritional standards are declining not for want of food but for want of wood to cook with. Literacy campaigns and mass housing schemes are thwarted for want of paper and construction timber. The employment potential of the sector is not being realized and scarce

managerial skill is being lost as attention to the sector declines. Deforestation is a contributing factor to the desertification process and the emergency situation now confronting parts of the continent.

(b) Human resources development

155. In spite of considerable investment in education and training, there remains a serious shortage of skilled manpower in most African countries. As emergency and relief operations have demonstrated, it is often easier to mobilize supplies and equipment than to find enough experienced personnel to manage and maintain the operations, especially in the area of logistics.

156. In the longer-term, over the period of adjustment of national economies, this inadequacy in terms of critical functions and key personnel in both production and service sectors will clearly limit the pace of economic reform and development. Yet, at the same time, the array of African education and training institutions built up over the past 25 to 30 years are often underutilized for various reasons, including insufficient recognition of their contribution to development. In the present economic situation, many of them are now under severe financial strain and in some instances have been temporarily closed.

157. A determined effort is required to adapt the training capacity and competence of existing educational institutions to better respond to urgent and longer-term manpower needs; to make them more operational instruments of development; and to convert them into financially self-sufficient institutions wherever possible. Only in this way will there be a reversal of the trend of decline in education and training capacity now apparent in many African countries.

158. It is imperative that Governments generally should give special and urgent attention to human resource development, which is central to effective economic reform and recovery. The reinforcement of institutions of education and training should remain a priority in the formulation of national development policies and structure framework so that African countries lay a foundation in human knowledge and skills for self-reliant and self-sufficient development. This applies particularly to the need for close synchronization between the natural resource base and capital investment policies, on the one hand, and the development of human resources, on the other, whether at rural and artisan level or in commerce and industry. Deficiencies in co-ordination have too often resulted in large numbers of trained people without real job prospects, without a real future. Finally, too many employment opportunities have been left unexplored, especially in the rural sector, where the momentum effects of neglect and decline are already evident.

159. Given the present resource constraints, especially at the national level, maximum use should be made of regional institutions, which should be strengthened and diversified through technical co-operation and other assistance from the international community. While many of the issues have been debated for some time, the present social and economic crisis has given a new sense of urgency to the need for practical solutions to Africa's acute problems in this basic sector of human resources.

(c) Transport and communications

160. Adjustments are required in this sector in four critical areas:

- (a) Improved planning, management and monitoring of transport activities;
- (b) Improved utilization of shipping, ports and road, rail, lake and air fleets;
- (c) Rehabilitation and extension of transport infrastructure;
- (d) Negotiation and implementation of transit agreements among countries of each subregion, as well as shipping agreements.

161. It should be understood that the current crisis of food supply is not creating a new transport problem in the region. Rather it demonstrates, in a drastic way, the chronic weakness of a system that has produced few dynamic responses in an emergency situation. The adjustments are in any event necessary and merely made more urgent by the prospect of massive food imports in the immediate future.

162. In the light of recent experience, each country vulnerable to food shortages must increase control of shipping services, improve port performance, carefully survey its trunk routes for mass food transportation, relating to existing infrastructure but also to the most economically viable modes of transport, rail, road, lake or river. These principal corridors in area distribution points should be cleared of whatever impedes the flow of transport, which may mean major construction, reconstruction, upgrading or repair. It may be that the networks will also need expansion or realignment to interlock more closely with those of neighbouring countries.

163. In most cases, these programmes for infrastructural improvement will be extensive and feasible only with donor assistance. However, maintenance of the infrastructure, once the main work is completed, should be considered a priority for Government funding, perhaps partly derived from levies on users of the trunk networks.

164. Another no less important consideration is the development of secondary feeder networks from the main distribution centres into the drought-prone rural areas.

165. Many African countries should increase participation in shipping through cargo aggregation and sailing rationalization schemes, bulk shipping pools and shippers councils.

166. For many African countries, heavy capital investment is required for the development of shipping capacities and port handling facilities, for the construction and rehabilitation of surface transport, for the purchase of railway stock and vehicles and for establishing adequate storage networks for seeds and edible grains. However, capacity can be increased in almost all areas through improved planning, management and maintenance of transport systems.

167. There is also a need to remove barriers that impede the transit of supplies from one country to another. Clearly each country has the right to apply entry and customs regulations to protect its own interests, but there should be no unnecessarily restrictive practices. This is particularly important in respect of emergency relief supplies, for which a general code of conduct is now recommended.

168. It might prove useful to set up permanent subregional transport task forces responsible for the systematic planning of all traffic flows in relief operations. These units, in close co-operation with national, intergovernmental and international organizations, would monitor both the performance and costs related to all modes of transport and each segment of the supply chain. They would undertake subregional logistics management, develop projects for donor assistance, and assess needs for technical assistance and training.

(d) Environmental issues

169. The growing recognition of the need to maintain the natural resource base and assure sustainable environmentally sound development, has led African countries to convene, in co-operation with the Economic Commission for Europe, UNEP and the Organization for African Unity, an African Conference on Environment at the ministerial level. This Conference is expected to be held in 1985 and to formulate specific recommendations and approaches. Priorities are expected to be set and a regional programme developed to deal with the most serious and urgent environmental problems, notably those relevant to the crisis in Africa, such as drought, desertification and water-resources management, through the implementation of the decisions taken by the Heads of States and of Governments in the Lagos Plan of Action and Final Act.

170. The long-term trend of diminution of per capita food production is linked with the degradation of the environment. It is of great importance during the present period of emergency relief to generate and use knowledge on the natural resource base and trends in its evolution, not only to forecast calamities but also to avoid environmentally destructive development in the future.

171. Africa uses only a small part of its mineral water and energy resources as inputs for rural production. Environmentally sound mobilization of these resources should be accelerated. The productivity of ecosystems should be used on a sustained yield basis. The process of progressive desertification is induced or produced by populations obliged to over exploit the land for survival, and must be addressed with the utmost urgency. There should be emphasis on the conservation of soils and forests. Other factors of great importance are endemic sicknesses (river blindness and trypanosomiasis) that have brought about the underexploitation of the humid areas. A great effort will be necessary to control these diseases and organize the rational settlement of populations in these sub-humid ecosystems, in the framework of the African strategy of self-reliance.

B. External support

1. External trade

172. The recent global recession and, in some cases, reduction in the output of exportable crops following the drought have seriously eroded the foreign exchange earnings of virtually all African countries. Urgent as well as longer-term actions are required to improve export earnings and the performance of the commodity sector, which is the main foreign exchange earner for most African economies. A rigorous review of export policies could form an integral part of national rehabilitation and development programmes.

173. Compensatory finance arrangements are immediately relevant to export earnings problems related to the crisis. Benefits from these sources within current rules and regulations might be augmented through (a) technical assistance to increase familiarity with their operations and facilitate application for compensation; (b) accelerated processing of requests for compensation and subsequent disbursements; (c) compensation for difficulties in meeting domestic costs of important projects due to externally caused losses in Government revenues.

174. In addition to measures already taken by the International Monetary Fund with respect to its Compensatory Financing Facility (CFF), it might be appropriate, given the present difficult conditions in many African countries, to adjust repayment conditions according to the ability to pay of the countries concerned. In this respect, from the first quarter of 1982 to 1984, 11 countries presently classified as food-aid-dependent and/or drought-affected countries have made repayments on their earlier CFF drawings in the amount of SDR 199.5 million.

175. In the Lomé Convention, the intention to include issues related to regional co-operation and aid against drought and desertification is encouraging. The addition of new commodities, including processed goods in both Stabex and Sysmin, might also be an important step, not only in the context of the current crisis but also for longer-term considerations. However, the generation of additional sources of finance or alternative kinds of assistance for countries in critical situation seem to be of particular importance for Stabex.

176. Developed market-economy countries not members of the European Economic Community and developed socialist countries might also explore the possibility of establishing compensatory finance mechanisms to reduce shortfalls in their respective portions of Africa's exports. Furthermore, drought-affected African countries might benefit considerably from an early conclusion of the ongoing discussions aimed at increasing compensatory finance facilities.

177. The following might also be beneficial for the affected countries in the area of external trade: (a) increased assistance in import procurement practices, especially of food; (b) intensifying efforts for the facilitation of intraregional trade including food commodities; and (c) promotion of agreements between commodity-importing developed countries and African exporters in crisis situations with a view to paying remunerative prices in return for supply guarantees.

178. In the long run, the aim should be to strengthen the African commodities sector. Between 1979 and 1983, Africa has received 14 per cent of the total World Bank and International Development Association loans to agriculture. These resources might be augmented both through an increase in African agriculture's share in the existing World Bank programmes and an appropriate share of any additional funding to be earmarked for Africa. Another source of finance for this purpose could be the Second Account of the Common Fund, to which substantial pledges have already been made. An early utilization of these funds might therefore be considered, especially for the implementation of projects already prepared for various commodities of interest to the drought-stricken countries of Africa. Furthermore the entry into force of the Common Fund and the successful conclusion or renegotiation of International Commodity Agreements, including adequate economic provisions for reduction of excessive price fluctuations and other development measures, would strengthen and stabilize the commodities sector, and thus enhance the capacity of affected African countries to face future difficulties. Other areas for strengthening not only the export sector but also the economy in general include the development of marketing skills, increasing the processing of commodities in the producing countries, and technology planning and procurement. The coverage of a generalized system of preferences (GSP) might be extended where appropriate to cover all important commodities. Attention should also be paid to the development of non-traditional products for exports.

179. Finally, commodity-linked securities might provide a possible financial resource for countries, especially those that do not have access to international capital markets, including some of the food-aid-dependent and/or drought-affected countries. Although the implementation of such securities has so far been slow, there might be a fresh effort applied to enhance the utility of these financial instruments with the assistance of the competent international organizations. The rights to exploit commodity resources in these countries could also represent a negotiating instrument for obtaining improved access to finance.

2. External debt

180. At the end of 1983 Africa's external debt from all sources was estimated at about \$120 billion. Of this total, disbursed medium- and long-term debt amounted to \$107 billion, while short-term debt is estimated at \$13 billion. Over the period 1975-1983 total disbursed debt was estimated to have grown at an annual average rate of about 18 per cent: this growth has exceeded by a significant margin growth in GDP or exports. During this period important shifts have taken place in the composition of debt: by 1983 the share of total debt outstanding at concessional terms had declined to 36 per cent (compared with 45 per cent in 1975). As a result of the hardening in the overall terms of debt and stagnation in exports, the debt-service ratio has grown from 11 per cent in 1975 to 22.4 per cent by 1983.

181. Over the next few years debt-service payments are expected to rise even more rapidly in part as a result of large payments falling due from the reschedulings of recent years. Debt-service payments, which averaged about \$8 billion during the 1980s, are likely to double over the period 1985/1987. In the absence of a

substantial growth in gross disbursements, the projected debt-service obligations may well result in a negative net transfer from oil-importing African countries over the next several years.

(a) The case for debt relief

182. Given the difficulties in raising exports over the medium-term, both because of supply constraints and because of poor prospects of growth in demand and of improvements in commodity prices, a strong case exists for realigning more closely projected debt-service obligations of African countries with their servicing capacity.

(b) Elements of a programme for debt relief

183. Debt relief for African countries can take several forms, including debt cancellation, waiver of debt-service payments over a selected period and recomputation of existing ODA debt at more concessional terms. It should be recognized, however, that the component of debt outstanding that can be the subject of Governmental decisions is relatively small: it excludes, for example, multilateral debt including payments due to IMF, accumulation of arrears and debts owed to private entities. A broad-based programme to deal with the problem could consist of:

(a) Debt relief relating to official debts;

(b) Changes in the conditions at which additional multilateral debt is contracted;

(c) Improved framework for debt reorganization;

(d) Improved debt management.

(i) Debt relief associated with bilateral official development assistance

184. Debt service associated with bilateral ODA debt outstanding at the end of 1982 owed by non-oil importing countries is projected at about \$1.0 billion per annum over the period 1985-1987. Debt relief measures in favour of African countries can take several forms: UNCTAD resolution 165 (S-IX) provides the most readily available framework for adopting a wide range of measures in favour of the least developed and other poor African countries. In particular, implementation by countries not members of the Development Assistance Committee and the socialist countries of East Europe could yield substantial additional relief for the African countries. Additional measures could include the conversion of all existing bilateral ODA debt owed by the least developed and other countries affected by the present crisis into grants.

(ii) Multilateral debt

185. While loans from multilateral institutions have yielded significant levels of net flows to African countries taken as a group the overall terms of total

multilateral debt has resulted in multilateral debt service exceeding disbursements for a growing number of countries in Africa. Since it appears that multilateral debt is not subject to reorganization, debt service to these institutions represent an inflexible component of external obligations and has been a source of mounting rigidity in the management of external debt. This rigidity could be relieved if the multilateral development finance institutions extend a significantly larger percentage of their loans in the form of concessional programme assistance, with higher local- and recurrent-cost financing.

(iii) Framework for debt reorganization

186. Of the 40 reschedulings in the Paris Club since 1979, more than 30 have involved 14 countries in Africa. The need for repeated rescheduling suggests that the Paris Club framework has not succeeded in providing the required breathing space during which effective adjustment and financial reform could take place and enhance future debt-servicing capacity. One possible solution could be that future rescheduling could be multi-year in character and that for African countries affected by the present crisis and other poorer countries, the Paris Club arrangements could consider consolidating all payments due over the period 1985-1990 and reschedule them over 15 years, with a grace period of 10 years.

(iv) Improved debt management and debt monitoring

187. Many countries in Africa do not have adequate machinery for monitoring and management of external debt. Valuable advisory assistance is being provided by various international organizations in connection with the debt rescheduling and structural adjustment programmes under way in many countries currently affected by the crisis. Further technical assistance to African countries to improve their debt management capacity, including improved collection and monitoring of debt statistics, is required. The programme for improved debt management at the national level should pay particular attention to the terms at which additional debt is contracted and the use to which it is put.

3. Financial flows

188. Extensive reports and analyses of the economic crisis in Africa underline the crucial importance of an increased flow concessional finance to beleaguered countries of the region. They need this form of assistance to carry out immediate recovery and rehabilitation programmes and longer-term plans for structural adjustment of their economies and pattern of development. In particular, substantial relief from balance-of-payments difficulties for many of these countries is necessary since their own capacity to increase export earnings is seriously constrained by problems of supply to the markets and the vagaries of market demand. Only through long-term, "soft" loans (or grants) can these countries hope to import the machinery and tools for recovery and development.

189. In this connection, facilities established by IMF related to African balance-of-payments problems are of considerable assistance to a number of countries, especially in respect of external debt. However, further support is

needed if they are to achieve their prime objective of building up existing productive capacity and clearing bottlenecks in the development process, including severe limitations on the import of transportation maintenance and other essential equipment. For this reason, there should be further consideration of the appeal of African finance ministers for a longer adjustment period than at present contemplated by the IMF, for more flexible conditions to reduce hindrance to the flow of finance, and for extensions of repayment periods. To help make recovery programmes more effective, both multilateral and bilateral donors might also consider accepting a larger share of local- and recurrent-cost financing.

190. With respect to longer-term financing, many proposals have already been made on ways and means of increasing the availability of concessional finance, especially through African institutions such as the African Development Fund, as well as through the international agencies, notably the World Bank. These proposals are particularly important in the context of implementation of the World Bank's proposed joint programme of action for sub-Saharan Africa.

191. It is now widely recognized that most African countries have embarked, or are about to embark, on policies to restore economic and financial balance; to manage the use of financial resources more rigorously through more efficient allocation; and, more generally, to undertake painful adjustments. For these measures, they need stronger support from their development partners, beginning with increased concessional financing. The persistent appeal is that donor countries should make every effort to increase bilateral ODA to Africa, in particular to the 26 African least developed countries in the context of the implementation of the Substantial New Programme of Action. Increased financial support should also be provided to the World Bank and the IMF so that these institutions are able to allocate additional IDA resources and SDRs respectively to African countries.

192. Finally, the second replenishment of the International Fund for Agricultural Development should be completed as early as possible, given the important role of the Fund in the rehabilitation and development of the agricultural sector. Ultimately, unless strong financial support is provided to Africa, both in the short and long term, the current courageous efforts under way in many African countries will not produce the expected results, at least not in the foreseeable future. Instead, structural economic defects will remain to perpetuate the present crisis.

IV. CONCLUSION

193. The foregoing review of the crisis in Africa clearly indicates an increasing determination to avert social and economic disaster for African countries through organized joint efforts of the African States and the international community. These efforts, now under way, address both the emergency requirements and the longer-term needs and issues.

194. However, the situation generally remains precarious. Changes have occurred in several African subregions, some of them of a critical nature, especially in the areas of food-import needs, transport and distribution, and health and nutrition.

195. As a result of strenuous efforts in 1983/1984 to meet food requirements, the amount of food aid pledged covered almost 90 per cent of the estimated requirements. It is assumed that greater efforts will be required in 1984/1985, since drought is again affecting a number of countries in the region. Moreover, a number of countries are unlikely to meet import targets through commercial purchases because of foreign exchange constraints, and continuous assessment is therefore recommended.

196. As of mid-September, available information indicated poor crop prospects and high import requirements for 1984/1985 for 11 among the 36 countries covered by this review. For these 11, total cereal import requirements were estimated at 6.9 million tonnes (including a structural import deficit in Morocco of 2.9 million tonnes). The food aid requirements to meet abnormal food shortages in these 11 countries were estimated at 2.1 million tonnes. It is anticipated that the above figures may be significantly increased as a result of poor-end-year harvests for 1984 in other countries of the region.

197. Transport, storage and distribution of relief supplies continue to be a principal bottle-neck, primarily because of inadequate preparedness and deficiencies in logistics planning and management, of which maintenance of existing transport capacity is a crucial part. Given the vast scale of food aid shipments, continued strong donor support is essential in this sector, especially in the provision of equipment, spare parts, logistics, technical assistance, increased storage capacity and cash grants for internal transportation. The identified needs are substantial, amounting to \$54 million. Subregional co-operation on transport matters, especially between coastal and landlocked countries, is also important.

198. Other emergency areas such as health, nutrition and livestock, remain as critical as they were a few months ago. While United Nations organizations have increased their efforts in supplementary feeding and in health survival actions for the most vulnerable groups, there are still many needs to be covered. The remaining gap for health and nutrition needs as at 31 August 1984 is estimated at \$377 million, which includes initial, incomplete estimates of \$370 million for reconstruction and rehabilitation of basic health infrastructure in a few countries facing critical situations. Further assessments are necessary. In the planning of, and mobilization for large-scale relief operations, as well as in the longer-term reconstruction and rehabilitation activities, full account should continue to be taken of the indispensable and crucial support role of the non-governmental organizations and voluntary agencies, and of their rapid and flexible response capacity.

199. Many countries are suffering substantial losses of livestock. In the short term, efforts should focus on protecting surviving herds and keeping them in good condition. Where necessary, destocking operations should be carefully planned and executed with the minimum delay. In the long term, national livestock policies should favour and encourage the maintenance of cattle herds at a level compatible with available pasture, especially in drought-prone countries.

200. A serious aspect of the African social and economic crisis is that of population displacement. ICARA II recently addressed the question of the impact of

refugees on African countries and laid the basis for dealing with their needs and problems in the context of longer-term development programmes, formulated by the countries of asylum with the assistance of UNHCR and UNDP. There remain the large numbers of people, estimated at over 5.7 million, who left homes and lands in rural areas looking for food, water, employment and other basic human necessities. Only a small percentage of them are registered or living in camps. An assessment of drought-induced displaced populations is urgently required. For these people it is also imperative to integrate emergency and humanitarian relief objectives with the creation of economic opportunities in the rural areas and the long-term goals of rural development.

201. The importance of preparedness for drought emergency situations is being increasingly recognized. Many countries have established or strengthened national mechanisms and policies for the purpose of planning and co-ordinating relief efforts, as well as for better resource mobilizations, and are making increasing use of weather and crop forecast and other monitoring systems. These efforts will need continued technical and financial assistance, and the United Nations country-level system, in particular the resident co-ordinators, could play an important role in this respect. In addition, full use should be made of the experience and technical capabilities of African intergovernmental organizations and of the many opportunities for subregional co-operation. In many cases these institutions can help provide coherent frameworks for reconstruction and development.

202. With respect to water supply, the current trends for implementing multipurpose, small-scale schemes should be continued as they address most of the critical areas, particularly food production, through small-scale irrigation, health, nutrition and livestock and energy. Resources made available to UNDP when the United Nations Emergency Operation Trust Fund (UNEO) was liquidated in December 1983 has provided important support in this area and more resources are required in order to expand such programmes.

203. In addressing the current emergency situations, the African countries and the donor community are also giving increasing attention to longer-term structural requirements. The recent World Bank report, entitled Toward Sustained Development in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Joint Programme of Action represents a useful framework for concerted action. The primary responsibility rests with the African Governments themselves, particularly in the areas of: (a) formulation of coherent and realistic national rehabilitation and development programme (b) improved management of the economy including, in particular, the proper allocation of available financial resources and the provision of adequate price incentives to producers; and (c) development of entrepreneurship in all economic sectors.

204. While the above set of national measures are necessary and urgent on the part of African Governments, it is equally important to complement them with adequate international support in the interrelated areas of primary commodity export, external debt and financial flows. Existing compensatory mechanisms should be made as flexible as possible in view of the African countries' present need of resources for recovery and reconstruction. Furthermore, bilateral creditors should make additional efforts aimed at alleviating the debt burden, inter alia, through new rescheduling schemes and the waiving of debt-service payments over an agreed period of time.

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205. As advocated in the World Bank report, it is essential for the donor community to place their strategy for alleviating the debt-service payments of African countries in the wider context of the resource requirements of the affected countries. If African countries are to implement major programmes of policy reform, adequate bilateral and multilateral financial assistance must be made available so as to improve the import capacity and savings gaps of countries necessary for economic recovery and rehabilitation.

206. Finally, much of what has been discussed in this review has been stated before. Over the last five years, several major studies and surveys have been made of the causes and remedies of the African crisis situation. African Heads of State have collectively expressed themselves in highly pertinent statements such as the Lagos Plan of Action. These efforts to analyse the problems besetting Africa and to design strategies to overcome them have added much to the store of knowledge and insight as to how Africans should move from its present dependence to self-reliance and self-sufficiency. As indicated in the World Bank report, a consensus framework now exists for all dimensions of the crisis. For all parties concerned, "the political decisions to be made will not be easy but they are now urgent".

207. It will now be necessary to move forward from reflection to concrete action. In this transition Africa should not stand alone: its economy is still too fragile to withstand the enormous stresses and strains of moving from crisis to reconstruction and development.

Notes

1/ Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Ethiopia, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Mozambique, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Somalia, United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

2/ Cameroon, Comoros, Djibouti, Ivory Coast, Niger, Nigeria, Sudan, Tunisia and Zaire.

3/ Swaziland was on the 1983/84 list of 24 countries facing abnormal food shortages in 1983/84, but it is not among the countries identified as facing such shortages in 1984/85.

4/ Actual food aid received was 622,000 tonnes. Requirements for Mozambique, Zambia and Zimbabwe were not fully met.
