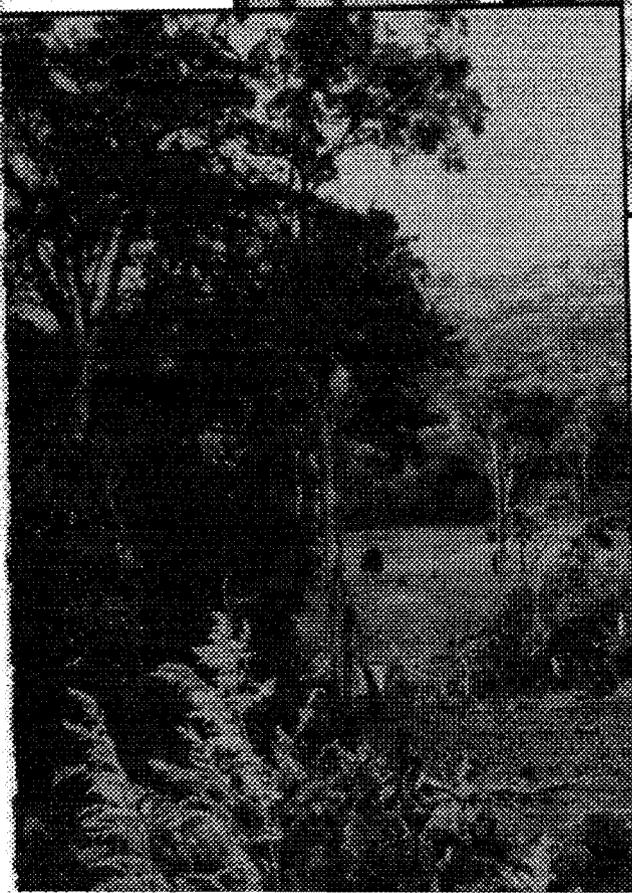
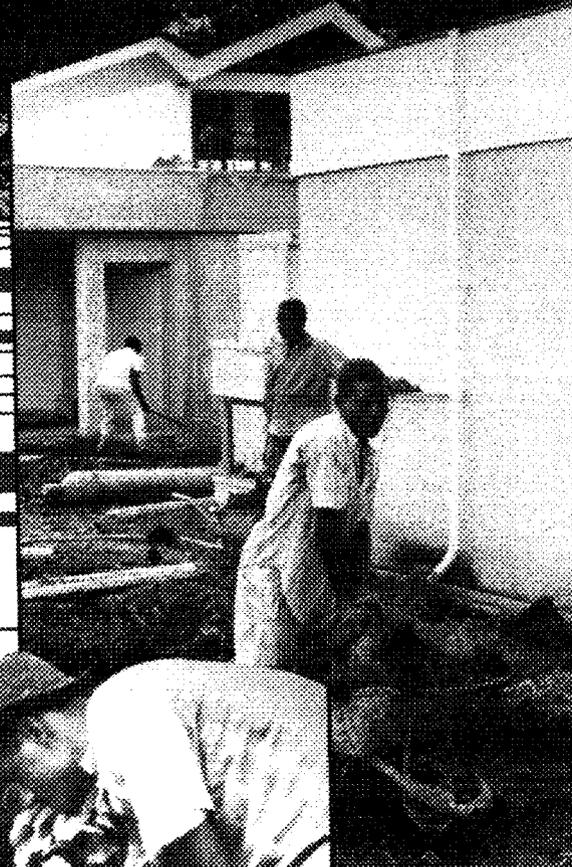


agenda

agency for international development

MARCH 1981



**FOOD,
FARMS
AND
FORESTS**

DEVELOPMENT UPDATE

Developing countries made striking progress in many ways during the 1970s, reports the Overseas Development Council. Their gross national product grew at an average annual rate of nearly 6%—compared with just over 3% in the developed countries. The manufactured exports of the South grew at an annual rate of more than 10%, and the PLQI (Physical Quality of Life Index, which combines information about infant mortality, life expectancy and literacy) of the developing countries increased from 39 in 1960 to 57 in the late 1970s.

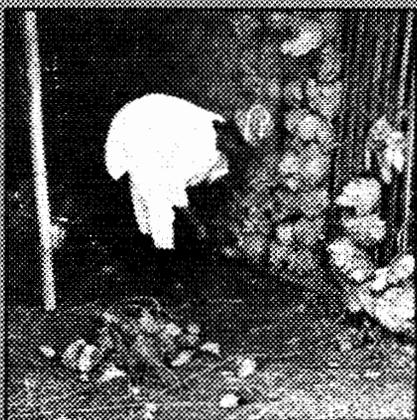
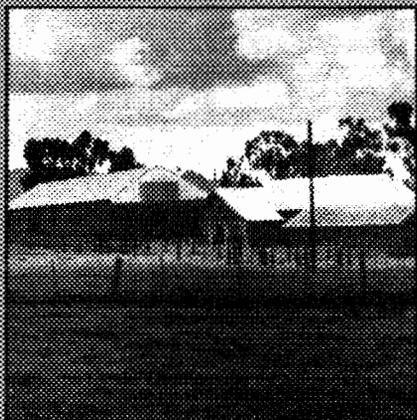
A breakthrough that could result in providing developing nations with millions of tons of protein a year may be in the offing. According to the *Los Angeles Times*, Scottish scientists at Stirling University have developed a technique for producing male-only fish. The work applies to several species of tilapia, a popular fresh-water food fish in tropical Africa and Asia. For the first three or four weeks of life, tilapia are neither male nor female. Later, male or female sex hormones determine the sex of the fish. The young fish grow rapidly, but once breeding starts, growth slows dramatically, making commercial farming difficult. By adding small doses of male sex hormones to water containing the fish, all fry become male. Having no mating partners, the male grow twice as fast as females, don't waste energy and calories on sex and just keep growing.

Generations of Indian women in the foothills of the Himalayas have helped support their families by gathering leaves and roots for medicinal purposes from nearby forests; their sons, by extracting turpentine from the trees. But then the government began selling rights to lumber companies to cut large areas of timber and before the women's eyes their source of income started to disappear. Even more important, they feared their sons would be forced to leave home to search for work elsewhere. When the lumber companies arrived, the women put their arms around the trees and refused to budge. The Indian government considered the women's plight and now formally supports them; cutting by the lumber companies has stopped.

New agricultural technology has only reached 10 to 15% of the world's 3 billion farmers, says agronomist and Nobel prize winner Norman Borlaug.

Consumer's guide: The U.N.'s *Development Forum* reports that the Consumer Guidance Society of India recently sampled foods commonly sold by roadside vendors in Bombay. The foods were tested for the most common food-related diseases, such as cholera, gastro-enteritis, dysentery and food poisoning. Of the eight samples, seven proved unfit for human consumption, with bacterial levels far exceeding the limits prescribed by health authorities.

The non-oil-producing developing countries now absorb 38% of United States exports and are the fastest growing export market for American goods, according to an Overseas Development Council report.



Cover: Home vegetable gardening is providing balanced meals to nutrition-starved families in Jamaica. In Africa, the "noble yam" persists as a favorite food, while in Asia, children are learning to plant trees. Deforestation in South America's tropical zones is spelling death for North America's songbirds—and trouble for U.S. farmers.

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A NEW FOOD SUPPLY AT THE DOORSTEP

Jamaican women
are learning
backyard gardening,
soil conservation
and nutrition,
at the same time.

by Lee Mullane

There is something new going on in rural Jamaica today. Young women—who know the land, families' needs and the economics of farming—are becoming a new breed of agricultural agent. Trained in composting, crop rotation and the principles of nutrition, they are traveling from farm to farm, talking to other women, listening and teaching. They are persuading small farmers, many of them women, that there are ways—old and new—to get more from their land.

Jamaica is a willing land. Until erosion in recent years robbed it of much of its topsoil, its rich tropical earth produced fruits and vegetables almost without being asked.

Breadfruit and avocado-pears grew wild and abundantly. Farmers had little difficulty.

But there is a problem now, and it's getting worse. Jamaica, like many other developing nations, is reeling under the combined blows of population growth, deforestation, country-to-city migration and economic chaos. In an attempt to fight back and save the vital watersheds, stop the erosion and boost food production, the Jamaican government has encouraged small farmers to plant cash crops to send to the hungry in the cities and to sell on the foreign market. The trouble with this measure is that it allows the farmers very little for themselves or their



families. Cash crops—coffee, bananas, cocoa, yams—don't provide a balanced meal. The farmers are too poor to buy what they need to supplement the crops they grow to sell. Over time, the farm children show signs of malnutrition.

Twenty percent of the children under 4 are significantly under-



Young women spend a month in training in gardening and nutrition. This is followed by refresher courses and additional training.

weight. The death rate for 1- to 4-year-olds is twice that of Barbados, Trinidad and Tobago. Just under half of all pregnant women are anemic.

The fledgling crop of new extension agents—they number about 23 now—are under the Family Food Production Plan, itself a recently

added part of a wider effort of the Jamaican government, with help from AID. That effort, called the Integrated Rural Development Program, begun in 1978, is aimed first at halting soil erosion and second at increasing food production and helping farmers take care of their own.

With headquarters in Christiana,

the Integrated Rural Development Program has sought over the past several months, primarily through soil conservation but also through extension services and credit, to:

- Improve the standard of living for farm families.
- Increase the amount of food for those not living on farms.



Since the first extension agents went to work last April, more than 540 home gardens have been planted.

Jamaica, like many developing nations, is reeling under the combined blows of over-population, deforestation, country-to-city migration and economic chaos.

- Improve Jamaica's trade balance by cutting down on food imports. Jamaica now imports over half of the food it needs.
- Provide an important source of foreign exchange through exports.
- Create a rural market for industrial goods and services.

Jamaica's economic problems are well known. Increasing poverty has taken a heavy toll on the people and the land.

The small farmers hold the key to food self-sufficiency for Jamaica. The extension agent project is geared to women farmers because men are migrating in increasing numbers to cities and other countries in search of jobs.

In common with women throughout the developing world, the Jamaican farm woman is finding her resources dwindling while responsibilities mount. She is expected to feed and care for her family, see to education when it is possible, and grow crops to sell and eat too, when there is enough. If her man is working abroad, she waits for what little money he can send home.

With an eye toward improving the conditions so many rural Jamaican women face and toward including them in the overall rural program, AID and the Jamaican government initiated the Family Food Production Program last year as a model "project-within-a-project." It is centered in the Two Rivers and Pindar Watershed areas in the northeastern region of the island nation. According to the program's designers, Elsa Chaney and Martha Lewis, both on contract to AID's Office of Women in Development, it is a nutrition-food production package based on carefully planning a cycle of continuously growing, nutritious vegetables. These vegetables are chosen for their ability to complement the traditional starchy diet.

It means that women are being encouraged by their own countrywomen to plant a series of vegetables that will almost completely balance their diet (some meat is needed). The objective is to keep the household garden producing something all the time. The agents are suggesting that the gardens be made right outside the door, though many Jamaican women have to walk a distance. But with a garden nearby, a woman can tend her crops while doing other chores, considerably cutting the time involved and insuring careful cultivation. For example, watering becomes a natural extension of household duties when a woman can toss dirty water used in the house literally from the door step onto the garden. That's much easier than trekking perhaps miles carrying a water jug.

"To pin it down," explains Chaney, "The Family Food Production Plan is a cycle of nine nutritious vegetables, which, if planted in roughly the order laid out and combined properly with the starchy foods, will give a family pretty good nutrition with only occasional animal protein."

The plan was worked out by Lewis, a gardening expert who collaborated closely with the project

horticulturalist. For example, if you put rice with peas (kidney beans), you get a release of the amino acids and the dish is more nutritious than to eat each alone. So it is with a number of food combinations.

The various recommended vegetables come from six groups: Amaranthus (calaloo); Cucurbitaceae (pumpkin, squash, cucumber, and melon); Hibiscus (okra and sorrell); Kales (kale, pak choi, cabbage, turnips, broccoli, cauliflower, mustard); Legume (red pea, cow pea, peanut, mungo beans, gungo pea, broad beans, soybeans, string beans); and Solanaceae (tomato, pepper, garden egg, and Irish potato).

As the first step in setting up the program, the planners looked carefully at the women's normal work load. Would they be able to take on what for many might be an added burden? About half go regularly "to the bush" to work on the cash crops.

They ascertained that most could. For those who did work on cash crops, the help of older sons and menfolk would be needed. In any case, the men must be involved because unless they agree to use a piece of land for a household garden, there is no garden, Chaney explains.

The next step was to recruit and train young women, almost all from the project area. With a combination of U.S. and Jamaican experts, a month's training course gave the women the rudiments of gardening and nutrition. The initial course is followed up with refreshers and additional training. More than half of the original class is now at work and their numbers are growing as new classes start.

The first extension workers have been in the field since April, and their teaching appears to be taking hold. More than 540 gardens have been planted in the first six months, according to Chaney. Now there are more clients than the program can handle, she adds. "The women are saying, 'When are the young ladies coming to help me start my garden?'" All the vegetables selected and



In classrooms like this, students are taught that home vegetable gardening is integral to the health and economic well-being of the Jamaican family.

Farmers are encouraged to plant cash crops, but these alone do not provide a balanced meal.

recommended for planting except kale are familiar to the woman farmers, a factor contributing to their acceptance.

Lewis explains:

"We knew, for example, that calaloo is common in Jamaica and it's very nutritious. We also knew that kale is very much like calaloo, with the added benefit of being more productive and very high in vitamin A and iron, both of which are needed in the tropics."

What happens when a garden has a variety of vegetables growing in it all the time, Lewis explains, is that the woman feels obligated to "add a little to the pot" each day, and that is very good for the diet.

If one plant is beginning to mature and reach the end of its productive cycle, you have another type ready

and waiting to put in the ground. The system depends on planning. Therefore, Lewis continues, care of the soil is essential. "You can actually create soil by composting," she adds. "I dream this will be a new wedge to introduce new care and appreciation of soil."

If gardening is to be the wedge, the young woman extension agents are the force to drive it home. They are helping to prepare gardens, to build up the soil and to select the vegetables, and they are teaching good nutrition—meal planning, sanitation, what foods are best for pregnant women, infants and toddlers.

Both Chaney and Lewis believe the program can work in other places as well, even in climates vastly different from Jamaica's. Home vegetable gardening is proving to be integral to the health and economic well-being of the family in Jamaica, Chaney says. She adds: "It also may well be a key to recognition of the economic contribution that women are making to development everywhere." □

Lee Mullane is editor of "Agenda."

KIDS+ SCHOOLYARDS+

School
tree-growing
projects can
teach
reforestation.

by Michael D. Bengé

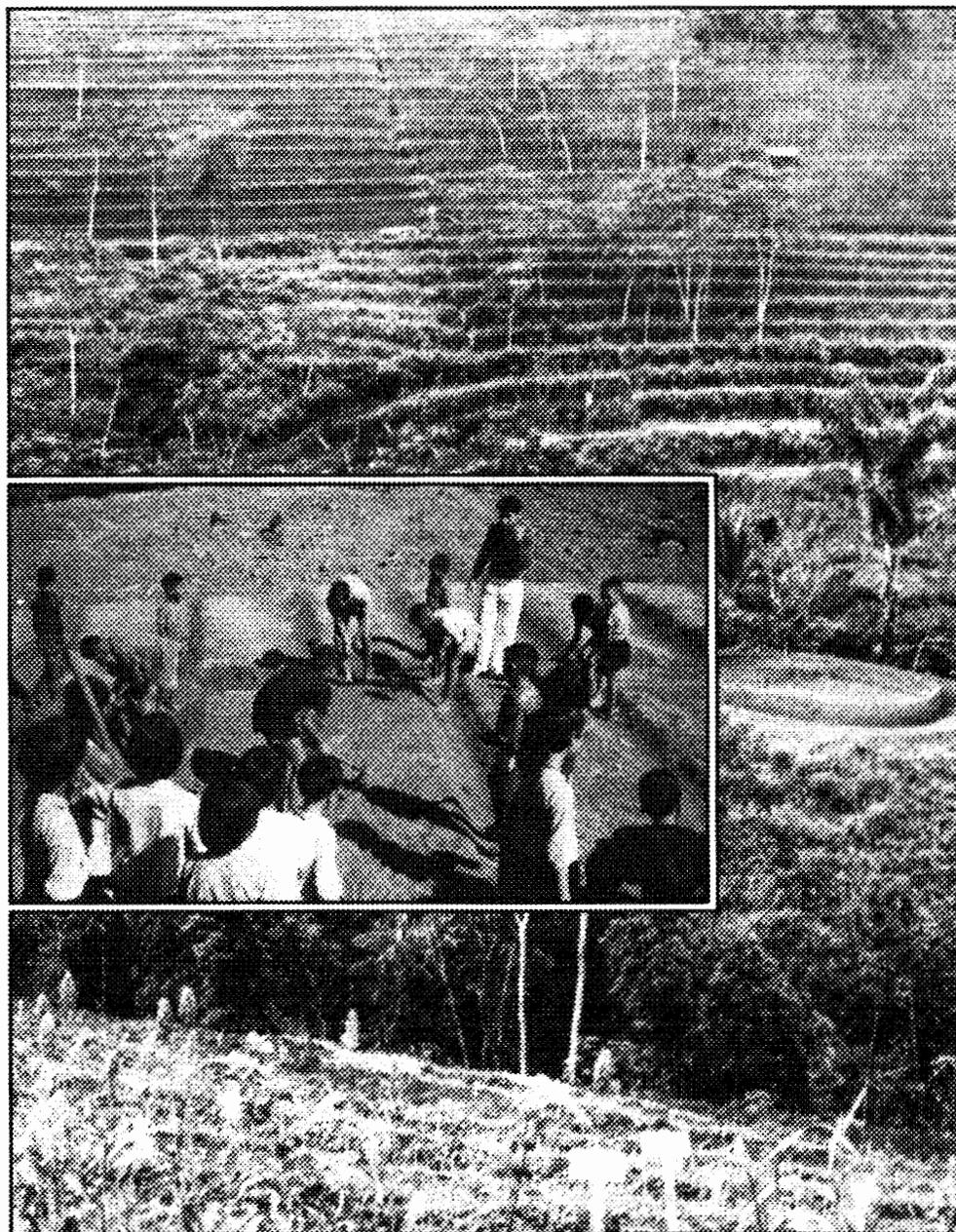
Many people in developing countries know how to grow at least some food. Few know how to grow trees. Yet trees maintain the soil that grows food and provide the wood for cooking.

Trees are disappearing. Mother Nature can no longer carry the burden of replacing what is lost. If man is going to cut, man will have to replant.

But there is a scarcity of tree seedlings for planting, and this is a problem that overshadows even the lack of forestry know-how. Moreover, the high cost of setting up and maintaining tree nurseries and the lack of the means to transport seedlings are added deterrents to reforestation. The result is that nursery seedlings have become too expensive and trees are not being planted.

There is an alternative.

If developing countries do without the central nurseries that have be-



ZEAL = TREES



If man continues to cut down trees, trees will disappear and with them soil for growing food. The solution may lie in tree nurseries run by schools.



come their primary source of seedlings and if they create school and backyard nurseries, they can lower overhead costs, involve villagers directly, use resources better, and train students and villagers to care for the trees with familiar tools and technology. Wells can be dug at school or in the village.

School and backyard nurseries can teach people that trees are fundamental to maintaining the water supply, reducing soil erosion, improving soil fertility, and providing a habitat for wildlife and forage for farm animals.

Schools can serve as focal points through which to introduce new technology, conduct demonstrations and carry out extension work. The villagers respect the school teachers. Often students will take home tree seedlings to plant around the house or in the kitchen garden. Frequently, they can influence their parents to plant trees. In this way, each student is a potential extension agent.

Plots of land could be set aside for school and community wood lots, energy plantations, fruit orchards, parks, or forage production areas. Planting and maintaining these areas could become part of the school curriculum and school and community projects. Where community efforts are not feasible, there is an alternative. Backyard nurseries may become private enterprises.

It has worked in at least two

developing countries—the Philippines and Haiti.

A school program to produce tree seeds was undertaken by a district school supervisor in Cebu in the Philippines. The supervisor required that every teacher in his district plant and care for five *Leucaena* trees in the school yards before they could collect their salary. The trees were inspected each month to see if they were still growing. If a tree died, a new one had to be planted—“No trees, no pay!” This seed program served as the basis for an expanded school tree planting project.

The district supervisor persuaded the Philippine government to set aside a parcel of land at each school for mini-energy plantations and parks. The school official met with the local villagers and got them to agree that these areas would be protected—livestock grazing and poaching would be prohibited.

The villagers helped the children build a fence around the areas whenever seedlings were available. An agriculturalist came to the school to teach pupils to care for *Leucaena* trees. Each student was required to plant and care for 10 trees and was graded on his or her efforts. Classes and schools competed. Part of the competition was to determine which student, class and school could plant the most trees—as well as influence the most parents, family and community members to plant trees.

In Haiti's Grande Rivier du Nord region, backyard nurseries are doing well. Farmers have learned that soil can be made more fertile, erosion reduced and crop yields increased—all desperate needs—by planting the right kind of trees on land not already planted with crops. In fact, in Haiti, growing trees on



idle land is like putting money in the bank.

Through the efforts of the Menonite Central Committee, a private voluntary group, farmers have been given seeds and taught how to set up tree seedling nurseries. They have been encouraged to plant fast-growing species.

Initially the committee's staff of agricultural technicians and extension agents singled out recognized leaders among the farmers and encouraged them to plant trees. The farmers in turn became extension agents. It is estimated that over 2 million trees have been planted.

School nurseries, mini-parks, fuel plantations and fruit orchards are practical laboratories and excellent mediums through which many subjects, such as science, biology and ecology, can be taught. With the right selection of fast-growing trees (preferably leguminous), one site may serve all these functions.

Schools also are an excellent medium through which to multiply seeds for sale and use in expanded forestation projects. Seeds of rapidly growing trees can be given to the students for propagation, and the seedlings planted and nurtured as a requirement in their regular school curriculum. Rapidly growing tree species, such as *Leucaena leucocephala*, can produce as many as 10,000 viable seeds per tree only after one year. Schools could thus produce vast quantities of seeds.

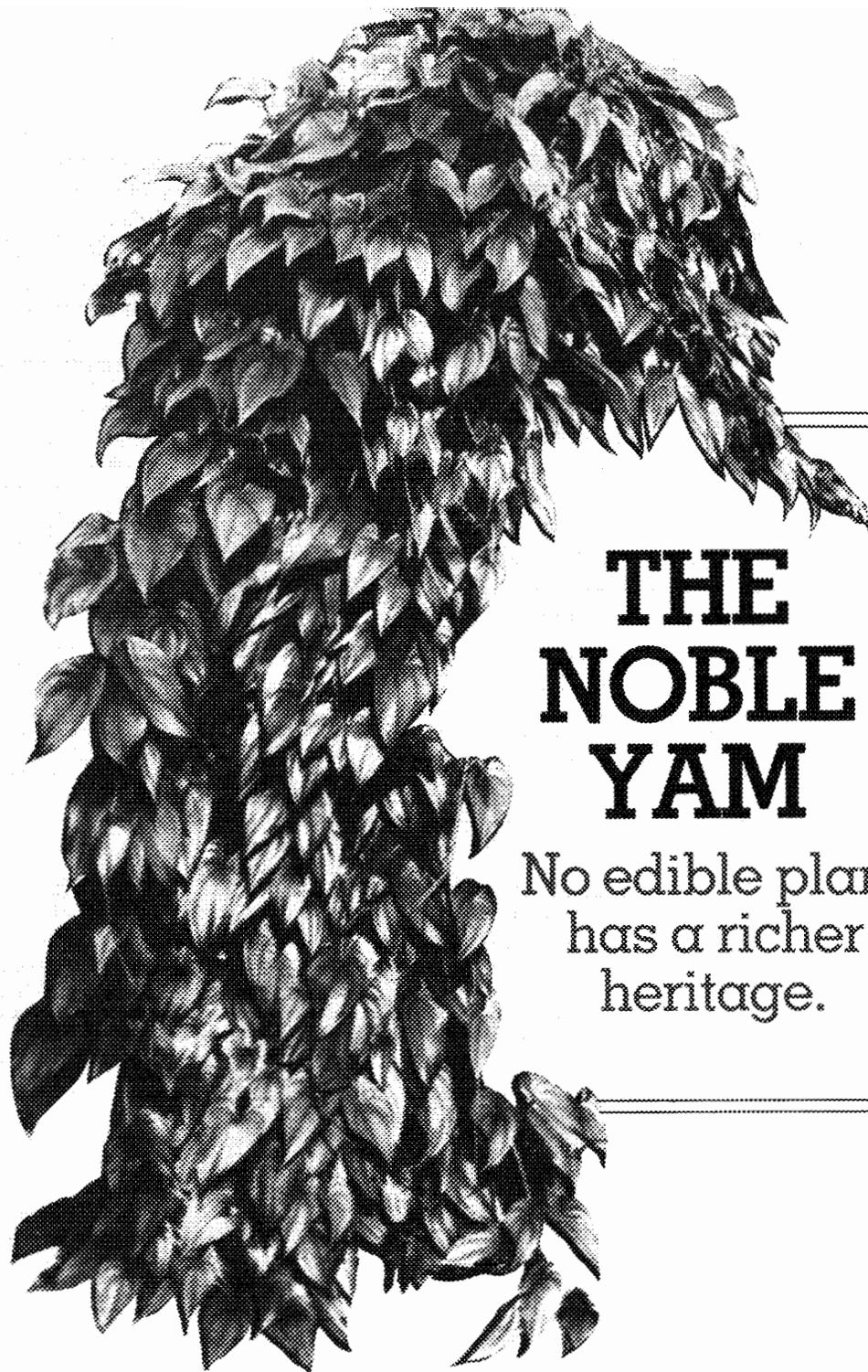
Students and villagers could even contract to gather seed from forest trees, with careful education and supervision built in.

Why not organize a youth conservation corps, much like the U.S. Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts? In many developing countries, Boy and Girl Scout organizations already exist. They could expand into a conservation corps and teach tree-growing.

Often, hillside and subsistence farmers cultivate only a portion of their land; the rest lies idle. Unless this land has adequate vegetation, erosion accelerates, soil structure deteriorates due to solar radiation, and essential nutrients are lost through the leaching effect of tropical rainfall. It is necessary to educate the farmers to these facts and to convince them that the potential production of their land is declining.

But education is not enough. The farmer must have a ready source of appropriate tree species available to plant on his unused land. These plant materials can be provided through a backyard nursery program. □

Michael D. Bengé is an agroforester with AID's Office of Agriculture.



THE NOBLE YAM

No edible plant
has a richer
heritage.

From the Ivory Coast to Cameroon, in the countries bordering the Gulf of Guinea, no edible plant has a richer social and religious heritage than the yam. In many areas, this delicious tuber remains the only crop requiring special ceremonies for its planting and harvest. It is so closely interwoven into the life of the people of West African forest zone that a French botanist christened this region "yam civilization."

Births, weddings, deaths, and the

by Jean-Marc Fleury

inauguration of leaders are all occasions that call for yam dishes, usually prepared from special varieties and according to elaborate recipes. The demand for yams—one of the oldest foodstuffs in existence—remains constant.

Yet, venerable as it may be, the yam has been criticized by a number of African governments. Its produc-

tion is extremely costly, the returns meager. In Cameroon, for example, it costs over \$1,150 to plant a hectare (2½ acres) of yams, and the grower often has to keep a third of his crop for seed! It is easy to understand the agricultural ministries' reluctance to support such a costly crop, particularly as it requires five or six times as much work as cassava or sweet potatoes. It appeared that the yam was doomed to disappear, giving way to other more practical tubers.

But the officials and the planners underestimated the attachment of millions of people for whom yams are the most prestigious of foods. Yam production remained constant. Authorities were forced to acknowledge the error of their ways and include the tuber in their national agricultural programs.

Although it produces only about a million tons each year, compared to neighboring Nigeria's 12 million tons, Cameroon included the yam in its root crop improvement plan. Simon Ngale Lyonga, an agronomist at the Agronomic Research Institute's Ekona station, at the foot of Mount Cameroun, took charge of the Cameroonian yam program.

"From 1959 to 1976, I was up to my ears in yam," he says. "In fact, the government had little choice: one area of Cameroon bordering on eastern Nigeria alone imported 4,250 tons of yams in 1965; imports for the country as a whole totaled at least four times that amount."

Under the national root and tuber crop improvement program, Cameroonian authorities plan to increase yam production from the 400,000 tons harvested in 1975-76 to 1.3 million tons in 1980-1981—an annual increase of nearly 20%. Lyonga, coordinator of the program, says that it is still too early to tell whether this objective is being met.

However, the obstacles to profitable cultivation are such that Cameroonians now speak of the need to "redesign" the yam. The top part of the plant is a vine that must be supported by a stake to obtain an acceptable yield. But the demand for firewood has drastically reduced the wood available and yams require some 2,500 stakes per hectare (1,000 stakes an acre)! Moreover, as the tubers of some varieties grow about three feet below ground, harvesting involves major excavations and precludes mechanization short of bulldozers. Finally, enormous quantities of seed are required: growers must plant about 10,000 tuber pieces or up to five tons of seed per hectare!



All that for a yield of 15 to 50 tons. It is going to take time to "redesign" the yam.

With the yam growers in mind, Lyonga and his team wanted to tackle the most pressing needs first and come up with strategies that could be applied immediately. First they had to find the highest-yielding varieties. With assistance from Canada's International Development Research Center (IDRC), 95 indigenous varieties were collected

throughout Cameroon and tested along with 19 other varieties received from the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) in Ibadan, Nigeria. Analyses confirmed the relatively high protein content of the yam tuber, particularly of the species *Dioscorea dumetorum*, which contains up to 11% protein. In addition, *D. dumetorum* yields acceptable crops even without staking, and the tubers do not burrow quite as deeply into the ground. It would



Left: In Cameroon, a farmer must keep a third of his crop for seed. Below: The obstacles to cultivation are causing some to speak of "re-designing" the yam.

be almost the ideal yam if it did not have a tendency to harden quickly and become woody after harvesting: it has to be eaten the same day, preventing commercial use. A chemist is trying to determine precisely why *D. dumetorum*'s carbohydrates turn into indigestible cellulose so rapidly.

While awaiting the development of ideal varieties, Lyonga, after succeeding in making the yam the subject of modern agricultural research

in Cameroon, is now working to set up an improved seed distribution network and to produce data sheets on cultivation practices.

Thousands of cross-breeding attempts will have to be made before varieties emerge that lend themselves to mass production. Having switched from sexual to vegetative reproduction centuries ago, the yam does not bloom. Fortunately, they are now able to induce flowering systematically at such places as

IITA, where many promising hybrids have been produced.

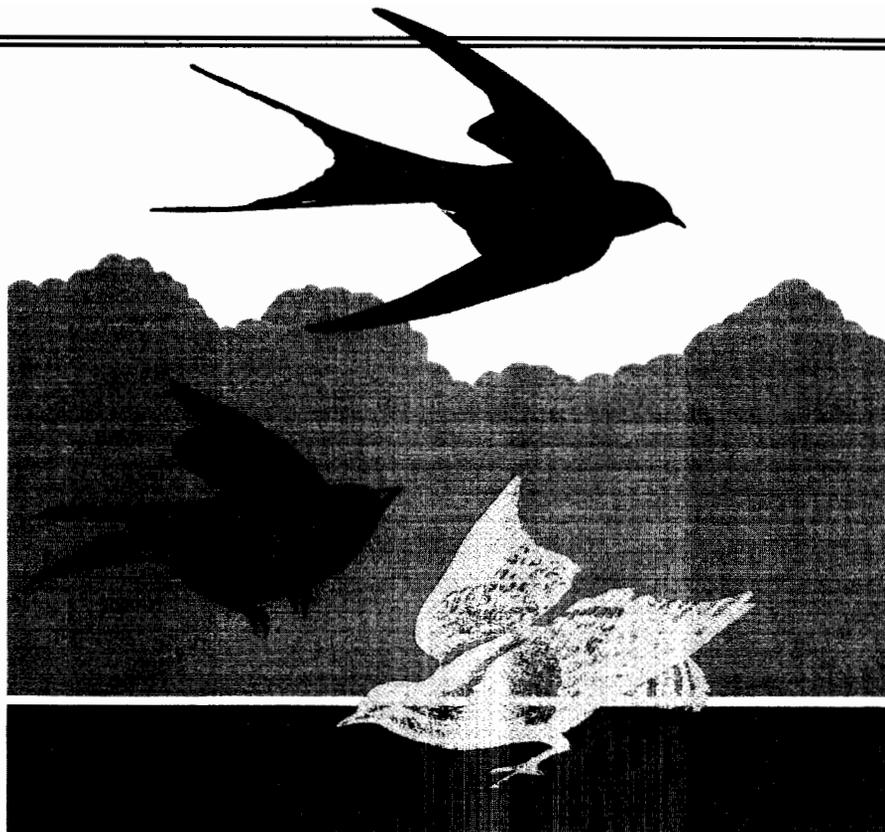
Yet, even if an acceptable yam is developed for mass production, small farmers will continue to plant the traditional varieties required by customs. Those customs have ensured this demanding crop a prominent place through the ages. □

Jean-Marc Fleury is on the staff of the International Development Research Centre of Canada.

Roughly two-thirds of the breeding birds in many North American forests migrate to the tropics for six to nine months of the year. Only recently have biologists progressed in outlining the tropical needs of these millions of insect-eating birds. The disappearance of tropical forests may have as its first important and direct effect the destruction of much of the North's breeding birds.

In a symposium just published by the Smithsonian Institution Press (*Migrant Birds in the Neotropics: Ecology, Behavior, Distribution, and Conservation*; Allen Keast and E. S. Morton, eds.), more than 40 scientists report on their ecological studies of these birds in the tropics. Their information shows that birds breeding in North America are not interlopers, "fitting in" as best they can around the fringes of tropical forests already filled with resident birds: they are an equally important part of these forest ecosystems.

Rather than "invading" the tropics like foreigners and then returning "home" to the North to breed, the migrants should be viewed as leaving their tropical "homes" for a brief breeding sojourn to the temperate North, where they take advantage of spring's flush of insects to raise larger broods than they could if they remained in the tropics. While doing so, they are voracious predators that reduce the number of insect pests and hold down the number of insect generations per year. Without these birds, for example, there would be little to stop "spring webworms" from having many generations per season instead of one in early spring, before most migrant birds arrive.



Silent Spring Revisited

by Eugene S. Morton

Tropical deforestation is killing U.S. migratory birds.

Many migrants not only find their food in the leafy canopy of tropical forests, they return each year to the same trees. John Rappole of the University of Georgia recently recaptured a Kentucky warbler banded seven years earlier on the same spot in a Vera Cruz, Mexico, forest. Rappole found that most of the forest he surveyed for migrants in 1973 and 1974 was gone in 1980; he found one-twelfth the number of migrants on the same plot after forests had been partially cleared. There is therefore no longer any doubt that many mi-

grant species disappear as tropical forests are cleared. And for the many species that return each year to winter territories, there is no place to go, since all remaining forests have traditional owner-birds ready to defend their turf against these refugees.

The decline of migrant birds has been slow until now. This is because birds from one area of the breeding range scatter widely throughout the tropical range. For many species, this winter diffusion means a slow but perceptible decrease as tropical



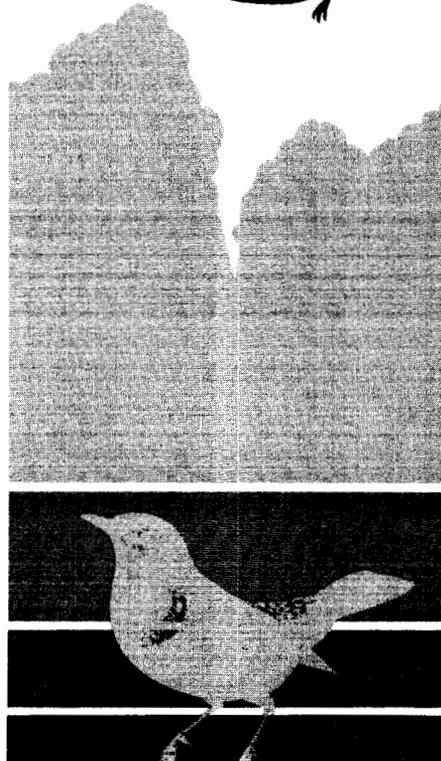
forests disappear. For others, a sudden decline may occur when feeding sites along the migration pathway become insufficient or when the diversity of plant species is no longer sufficient to provide the critical fruit or nectar food for even a few days.

With 20,000 to 40,000 square miles of forest destroyed each year, the decline of migrant birds will accelerate. The problem is exacerbated by the smaller wintering area than breeding area for migrants.

Birds from approximately 6.5 million square miles in North America funnel into a wintering area of about 1.6 million square miles, concentrating in winter about fourfold.

This is only a rough generalization that does not reflect the true complex adaptations that migrants have evolved over thousands of years. While some species may go directly from breeding territories to winter territories, others traverse nearly the whole breadth of Western Hemisphere according to a specific calendar.

For the Eastern kingbird, the hemispheric pattern of wet and dry seasons is important. In early September, kingbirds leave North America in a rapid passage direct to the southern end of their migration in Amazonian Peru, Colombia, and Bolivia, arriving in late October. At the same time, they change from their northern insect diet to one almost exclusively of fruit plucked from forest trees. Migration north begins as the dry season presses north from the equator. By March they enter Panama, feeding almost exclusively on fruit from one species of tree that may time its fruit ripening specifically to the passage of the kingbird. The kingbird has evolved



to track the tropical dry season because then it will find more abundant fruit. But it is clear that an immense tropical area is used for winter survival by this still common North American breeder. The destruction of forests in a segment of the nearly continuous migratory pathway will permit survival of only those birds with sufficient fat reserves to find the next patch of dwindling forest. Fewer birds will have that luck as patches become further separated.

The loss of migrant birds will be severely felt in North America, where they constitute such a large percentage of the breeding birds. But incentives from the United States to other Western Hemisphere countries to preserve tropical forests cannot be viewed as self-centered by the rest of the world. The loss of migrant birds reflects land use pat-

terns that will not be to the best interests of tropical countries in the long run. Migrant bird populations are a biological indicator; their decline reflects incipient desertification of once-lush lands. Hilly regions of high rainfall are best to forest, for once forests are removed and converted to grassland, they do not regenerate, the nutrients inevitably wash away, and bare earth which cannot support man's existence leaves no legacy for future generations.

The loss of migrant birds, a truly hemispheric resource, is not an inevitable result of change reflecting the progress of developing nations, but the decrease in their soil's fertility, the misapplication of agricultural techniques suited for temperate zone climates, quick riches at the expense of sustainable yields, and population growth that thwarts the meaning of "developing."

There is no justification for losing migrant birds to the extent probable at this time, for they represent only one, albeit an important, reason for tropical forest protection. Loss of the genetic material represented by the incredible number of plant and animal species that make up a tropical forest will remove potentially invaluable genes from our developing genetic manipulation technology, not to mention important chemicals and drugs. Forest destruction, permanent removal of whole ecosystems, amounts to massive experiments that will remove a legacy. The decline of migrant birds will indicate how widespread the effects will be.

Eugene S. Morton is a research zoologist at the National Zoological Park, Washington, DC.

IN PRINT

A Review by A. Gordon MacArthur

CRISIS IN THE SAHEL:

A Case Study in Development Cooperation

CRISIS IN THE SAHEL: A Case Study in Development Cooperation, by Noel V. Lateef. Westview Press, Boulder, CO, Frederick A. Praeger, publisher, August 1980. 288 pages. \$25.

World attention was focused on the Sahel in the early 1970s: International news photos depicted suffering people and starving cattle in a parched land. The drought that struck the Sahel, the group of eight West African states stretching across the southern fringe of the Sahara Desert, lasted from 1968 to 1974. It was not the first time that drought devastated this area, nor is it likely to be the last. But this time it captured universal awareness as never before. The Sahel region, containing 30 million people in an area about two-thirds the size of the United States, is situated in a precarious ecological zone of fragile soils and erratic rainfall.

Noel Lateef's book, *Crisis in the Sahel*, presents a realistic assessment of the Sahel's problems and potential. The book is painstakingly researched and combines a wealth of information on economic and social indicators—to the extent that these can be collected in an area almost devoid of basic statistics. The author makes it clear that although the Sahel is a harsh place to live, its problems are largely social—lack of basic education, health conditions among the worst in the world, lack of even the most basic transportation, lack of basic technology, lack of an effective civil service.

While food production has not been able to keep pace with consumption, a situation clearly aggravated by the drought, Lateef rightly points out that the Sahel has the potential to feed itself, if basic structural problems can be overcome: Farmers must be given incentives to grow more millet and sorghum. It is not enough to address

only the technical aspects of growing crops. If the farmer cannot get his produce to market for lack of roads and if the government sets support prices for grain at levels that offer no inducement to farmers to grow more, total food production suffers.

Lateef rightly argues that the low level of technology and education, the inadequate infrastructure and the weakness of the institutional base are the major factors inhibiting economic growth, not the lack of physical resources. Grain production in many parts of the Sahel could increase dramatically through better use of technology. For example, in Niger, AID-supported cereal production project has demonstrated that a threefold increase in yields, over what was possible using traditional methods, can be obtained under rainfed agriculture. The irrigation potential of the Sahel, with its three large river basins, the Senegal, Niger and Gambia, has scarcely been tapped.

Beyond dependency on agriculture and livestock for its basic subsistence, the Sahel has the potential of realizing enormous benefits from mineral exploitation. Niger of-

fers the example of a poor country endowed with large reserves of uranium, an asset that is currently being exploited and for which revenues realized by the government are placed in a development fund.

While Lateef engages in a good deal of theorizing about development in general and provides insights into various models of development, his description of the Club du Sahel, the informal gathering of donor and recipient states that provides the framework for the long-term economic development planning in the Sahel, is most germane.

More a process than a formal organization, the Club du Sahel came into being during the final years of the last drought. It brought together the Sahelian states and the bilateral donors interested in long term development of the region. The Sahelian states had themselves formed the Interstate Committee for Drought Control in the Sahel (CILSS) in 1973, and the Club became the rallying point for donors who saw the Sahel's ecological and economic problems as regional and were determined to avoid a piecemeal, ad hoc approach to them.

The Club du Sahel and the CILSS have established a model for development. That model demands a long-term commitment and patience. Lateef ably describes the problems and potential of the area and gives a detailed, thoughtful insight into the efforts now going on to lessen the impact of any future droughts on the people of the Sahel. □

A. Gordon MacArthur is assistant director for program in AID's Office of Sahel and West Africa Affairs.



BLACK COLLEGES: Expertise Rediscovered

by Emmett George

At the turn of the century, black educator Booker T. Washington, founder of Alabama's Tuskegee Institute, sent a team of agricultural specialists to Togo, then a German colony in West Africa, at the request of the German government; they were to teach cotton cultivation. This was probably the first time a predominantly black U.S. college had assisted a foreign country. Other black institutions followed Tuskegee. They have made a significant, yet largely unrecognized, contribution to development.

In the 1940s, a professor at North Carolina A&T University in Greensboro helped lay the foundation of President Truman's Point Four program, forerunner of today's U.S. foreign assistance program. William Edward Reed, director of interna-

**A heritage
of hardship
has fostered
an important
understanding
of development
problems.**

tional programs and dean of agriculture at A&T, traveled for the State Department to Liberia, Sierra Leone, Indonesia and other countries to help plan development programs.

And in the '50s, Prairie View A&M University, near Houston, and Southern University, in Baton Rouge, LA,

joined the ranks of colleges and universities assisting poor nations.

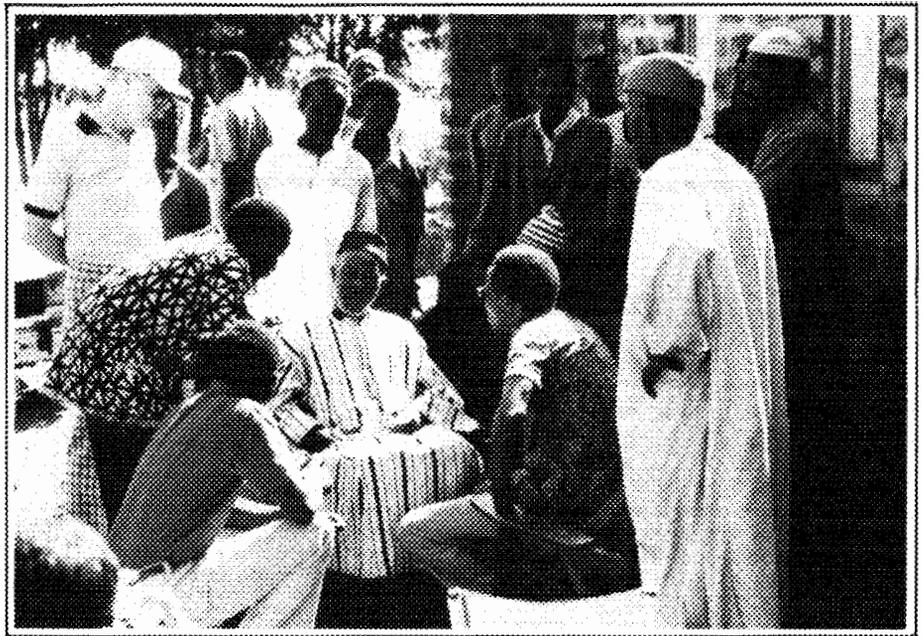
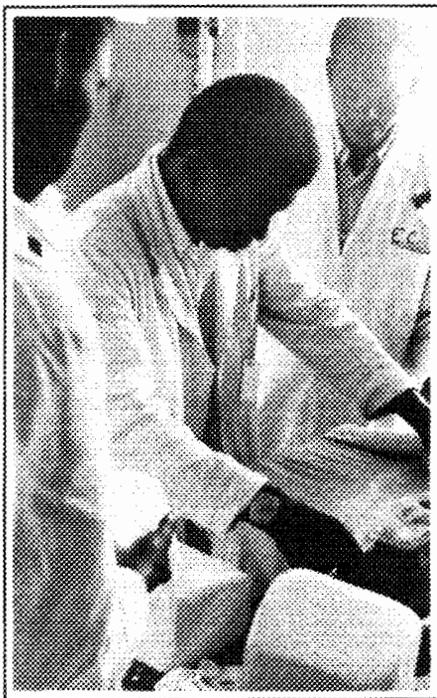
For years these and other predominantly black schools have worked to shed the label of "teacher-preacher factories," which resulted from the large number of graduates trained in the two fields. Traditional segregationist policies restricted professional involvement of black Americans primarily to those two areas.

Nevertheless, since they were founded in the late 1800s, Tuskegee and other schools have been teaching agriculture and rural development despite the fact that few professional jobs were available in those areas. In recent decades, these black colleges have also trained hundreds of foreign agricultural specialists.

Finley T. McQueen, director of Tuskegee's Washington office, recalls that in 1954 Tuskegee sent professors to Indonesia to set up machine shops and build vocational training centers. In 1960, McQueen led another team to Liberia under a U.S. government-funded contract to train teachers as part of a rural school development program. McQueen spent seven years with the project, which was subsequently expanded to build teacher training facilities at Zorzor in 1961 and Kakata in 1964. By 1964, enrollment at these institutions had climbed to 375. Most of these projects were funded by the International Cooperation Administration, a predecessor of the Agency for International Development.

Today, Tuskegee experts are advising farmers in North Yemen on growing high-yield varieties of fruit and nut trees to supplement diets that now consist largely of lamb and sorghum. The project is designed to reduce North Yemen's dependence on imported fruits and nuts. Currently the country produces food valued at about \$9.7 million a year,

Egerton students produce a cheese well-known throughout most of East Africa.



SECID professors representing several predominantly black schools meet with village leaders as part of an AID-supported agricultural research program in Upper Volta.

about 11% of the value of its food import bill. Its import bill for produce exceeds \$30 million a year.

Southern University, anticipating increasing involvement in overseas projects, recently opened its Center for International Development. "The Center will become one of the most viable mechanisms for providing developmental assistance to Third World countries," predicts Granville Sawyer, assistant to Southern's president. Sawyer said that Southern and other black schools will one day be regarded as highly as larger universities such as Michigan State University or the University of California at Los Angeles in terms of overseas project work.

The participation of American colleges in overseas development goes back to the 19th century, but it was not until the Point Four program that many schools became involved. Under Point Four, the United States concentrated its assistance in India, Taiwan, South Korea and Latin America. American schools from the Midwest, South and Far West, with climates similar to many developing nations, were encouraged to help design and carry out overseas projects. Colorado State, Kansas State,

the University of California at Davis, California Polytechnical Institute, the University of Missouri and Michigan State have been leaders in this area.

AID'S Board for International Food and Agriculture Development (BIFAD) is working to remove a number of obstacles to greater participation by other American colleges, particularly black colleges. These obstacles include promotion and tenure policies that do not reward overseas research and development work; gloomy budget forecasts; and a shortage of language skills.

Southern is working with Louisiana State University in Sierra Leone on a crop research and marketing project. In conjunction with Njala University, the project is intended to help small scale farmers throughout Sierra Leone produce more rice.

Many developing countries like Sierra Leone use "slash and burn" method of clearing land, which has been blamed for the loss of soil fertility and serious erosion. Southern and LSU experts are studying ways to restore fertility through crop rotation and fertilizers.

In Kenya, Charles White, an agriculture extension specialist from Virginia State University, is heading a team of U.S. professors as part of a \$50 million project to improve Egerton College, one of Africa's best known agricultural training institutions. The project is contracted through the Southeast Consortium for International Development (SECID). SECID professors are taking over the teaching duties at the college while Egerton faculty members work toward advanced degrees in the United States.

Prairie View A&M University has enjoyed the reputation of training most of the black engineers in the United States. Currently several of its professors are helping design and build training facilities at Liberia's Booker T. Washington Agricultural and Vocational Institute. Liberia desperately needs technicians to carry out its long-term development.

In recent years, AID has helped strengthen black colleges and universities so they can assume a larger role in international development. According to current regulations, some 17 black schools can



Suchet Louis, a professor at Tuskegee Institute, and Sauver Mahotiere, a horticulturist from Ft. Valley State College inspect traditional tools.

qualify for participation in U.S. government-funded development projects. The schools are the 1890 state land grant institutions and a number of colleges classified as "historically black." AID also awards a number of Title XII "strengthening grants," which

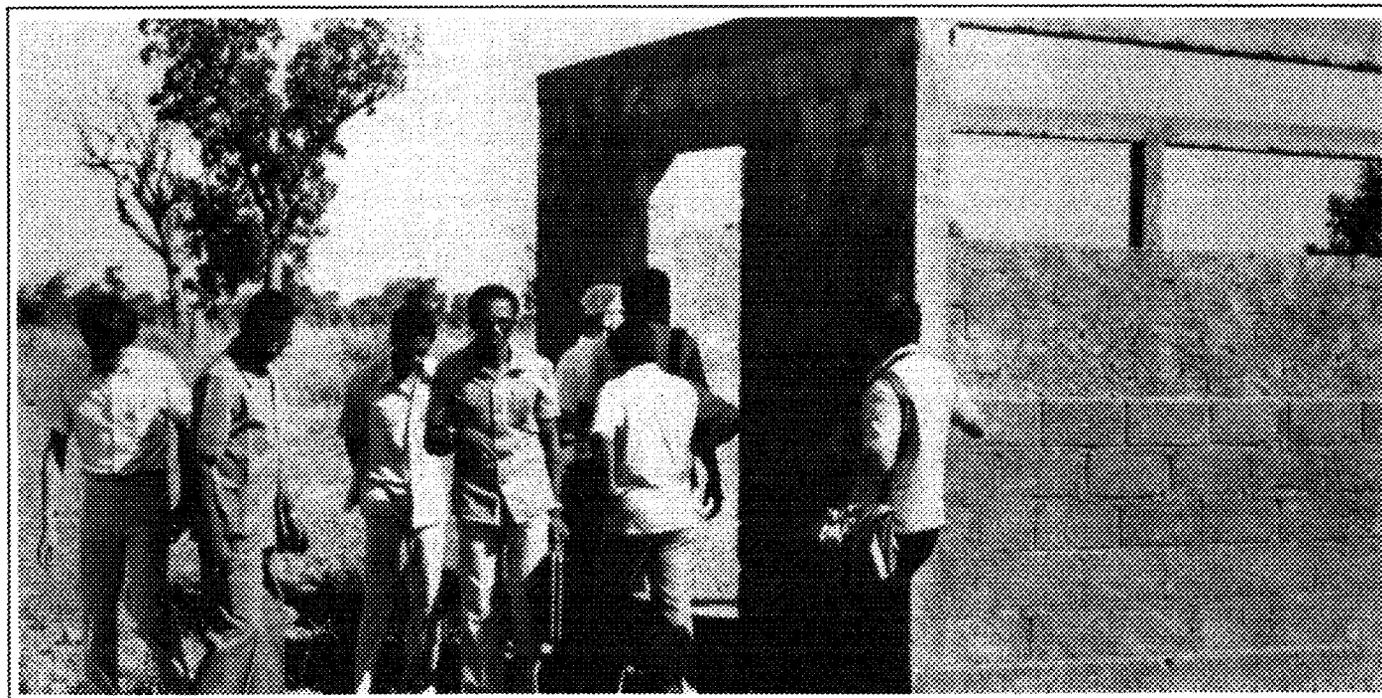
assist many of these colleges to upgrade their research capabilities to handle overseas development projects.

According to Fred Richards, BIFAD agriculture development officer, most of the nation's black colleges improved their agricultural and rural development faculties during the 1960s. This was accomplished with funding from the U.S. Department of Agriculture. Before that, hardly any federal funds for this purpose went into these schools.

Richards, who is still a Prairie View staff member, is on loan to AID under an Intergovernment Personnel Agreement. His role is to encourage the participation of 1890 institutions in AID-assisted projects.

Robert Huesmann of BIFAD says AID is trying to include these colleges through the strengthening grants and through increased participation in its country programs. Despite these efforts, Huesmann feels that most of the schools are handicapped by a lack of research and relatively small numbers of faculty for long-term development projects overseas. "None of the

SECID advisors from U.S. schools examine the construction of a poultry center in Upper Volta.





Students at Egerton College maintain animal pens as part of their daily routine.

'1890s' have doctoral programs. That means they haven't fully developed the research capacity they need. If you have doctoral programs, you can attract a greater number of Third World students and this strengthens your international standing."

The predominantly black colleges suffer from many of the problems

that now deter larger, predominantly white institutions from doing more overseas research and development projects. The uncertainty of AID funding levels, an emphasis on short-term development projects; and the insecurity of Third World political climates are serious drawbacks to involvement by American colleges in general.

"The '1890s' have certain skills because of their historic involvement with the poor, their vocational and agriculture and extension programs," Huesmann notes. "In many areas of the world they would have a certain advantage of larger white institutions."

Arthur Henderson, of Southern University's overseas development staff, says:

"It's hard to relate to the problems of rural people unless you have experienced some of those problems. The larger schools have more money than we do and more people who are trying to write books. But I think we identify more closely with the problems of the Third World, especially Africa. For example, I can remember that not too long ago, there was no running water, outdoor toilets or other conveniences in many parts of the South."

AID's source list of predominantly black schools indicates that many of them compare favorably with larger institutions in terms of expertise in agriculture, health, nutrition and education. Alabama A&M University in Normal, for instance, is one of the nation's top schools in triticale (hybrid of wheat and rye) research; the University of Maryland Eastern Shore has an excellent reputation for training extension agents; Prairie View has an outstanding international center for dairy goat research; Houston's Texas South University, with 2,300, ranks as one of the nation's top schools for training foreign students and through its Teacher Corps-Peace Corps Program has placed a number of former students in administrative positions in AID and other agencies.

Predominantly black colleges are clearly an untapped resource for overseas development despite limited funding and comparatively few tenured professors who can be detailed overseas. □

Emmett George is a public information officer in AID's Office of Public Affairs.

In the last 12 months, a number of detailed analyses have warned that continued indifference to the needs and wants of poor people and poor countries could have disastrous consequences. These studies also advised, however, that a U.S. response would improve the prospects not only of the poor countries but of the United States as well. At the start of a new decade and a new Administration, it is important to examine what the U.S. interest and the U.S. role in Third World development are.

In early 1980, the report of the Presidential Commission on World Hunger, a commission composed largely of private U.S. citizens, concluded: "There are compelling moral, economic and national security reasons for the United States government to make the elimination of hunger the central focus of its relations with the developing world. . . . Purposeful use of U.S. power would . . . focus and shape the idealism and generosity that is so indigenous to the American spirit."

Around the same time, the Brandt Commission (formally called the Independent Commission on International Development Issues)—a prestigious group of business representatives, former government officials, and intellectuals from five continents—released its report after two years of arguing, negotiating, and learning from one another. The commission wrote: ". . . The achievement of economic growth in one country depends increasingly on the performance of others. The South cannot grow adequately without the North. The North cannot prosper or improve its situation unless there is greater progress in the South." The report spelled out more than 90 specific actions the international community could take that would alleviate the financial, environmental, and human crises that appear to be coming. Of the report, Peter Peterson, chairman of Lehman

WHICH COSTS MORE: AID OR NO AID

Without
attention to
global
problems, even
problems
at home may
be unsolvable.

by John W. Sewell

Brothers Kuhn Loeb and one of the members of the commission, has said that the alternatives to working on negotiations to bring about change are "huge and continued economic shock; a billion people literally starving; an international financial system that could be in a state of economic crisis. . . . We have to try, if only because the stakes are too high not to try."

In the summer of 1980, yet another major statement was made about the long-term prospects facing this ever-smaller planet. "The Global 2000 Report to the President," an interagency U.S. government study, warned: "If present

trends continue, the world in 2000 will be more crowded, more polluted, less stable ecologically and more vulnerable to disruption than the world we live in now. . . . Life for most people on earth will be more precarious in 2000 than it is now—unless the nations of the world act decisively to alter current trends."

These are not partisan statements. Nor are they condemnations of the actions of any group, party, or set of officials. Rather they highlight problems that cannot be solved in the span of a single congressional term or even a two-term administration. Unless the world begins to address them, the lives of not only the world's poor but also its rich are not likely to get better and will probably get worse.

The U.S. role in solving the global problems described in detail by the Global 2000 study, the Brandt Commission, and the Presidential Commission on Hunger has been the particular focus of the Overseas Development Council (ODC). In the process, it has become clearer and clearer that not only does this country have a moral obligation and a security interest in addressing these global concerns, but even the "domestic" troubles with which we currently are preoccupied—energy, inflation, unemployment, slow growth, immigration—cannot be resolved without attention to the developing countries. These countries as a group (and some of them individually) are now significant actors in the world's economic system. Their control over oil, their ability to provide low-cost consumer goods, their growing markets for industrial-country exports, their position as major suppliers of key raw materials, and their growing involvement in the world financial system all affect the U.S. economy directly. It is therefore imperative that the United States recognize these relationships and begin to take both immediate and longer-term steps to bring its

policy into accord with changing realities.

In ODC's "Agenda 1980," two major long-term development tasks for the decade were set forth: (1) to resume economic growth, provide employment, and reduce inflation, and (2) to take major steps to eliminate hunger and other aspects of absolute poverty by the end of the century. These are not tasks for the United States to undertake alone. They will require the commitment and cooperation of all countries. Yet the United States, in particular, must recognize that its official actions and those of its private sectors—profit and non-profit—affect the lives of billions of people and that its contribution to a program of global cooperation therefore is vital.

In order to make that contribution, however, the United States must first redefine and expand the concept of its own "national security," decide what it needs and wants from changes in the international economic order, and develop a leadership style to deal with the domestic limitations on a development cooperation policy. Let us look briefly at each of these three tasks.

Expanding the Concept of National Security. U.S. policy to date has viewed developing countries primarily from the standpoint of how they figure in the strategic relationship between the United States and the Soviet Union. Defining U.S. security solely in military terms, however, obscures our equally important economic and political foreign policy objectives in the Third World.

Military force has little impact on population growth, deforestation, or migration.

Identifying U.S. Needs. So far, the United States has put more emphasis on attacking developing-country demands for a "new international economic order" than on putting forth imaginative proposals of its own. The United States urgently needs to set its long-term goals and to weave its various policies into a coordinated and comprehensive strategy.

Exercising a New Kind of Leadership. The changing nature and relationship of domestic and international problems requires a new kind of leadership. An imaginative, forward-looking approach is needed (1) to cope with global problems even in the face of competing national interests, (2) to organize the U.S. government to deal more creatively and efficiently with developing countries, (3) to deal with domestic economic dislocation resulting from changing international conditions and (4) to share international decision making with other countries.

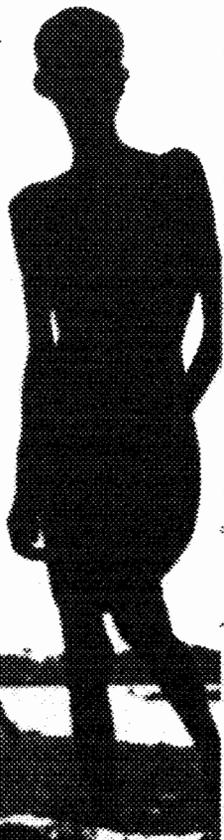
These long-term tasks at best can only be started during the first part of 1981. There is, however, a whole set of actions that the United States could take soon to advance development goals and to set the stage for longer-term changes. U.S. action on the program outlined below would have a minimum impact on the federal budget. Even in a period of budgetary constriction, U.S. leader-

ship on such a program would greatly help to prevent further deterioration in the global economy and could go a long way toward meeting this country's long-term interests. In other words, the real costs of acting on these proposals will be far less than the costs of not acting.

The short-term program of action proposed in the Overseas Development Council's "Agenda 1980" includes:

Improving the World's Monetary System. The United States should support measures to augment the revenue of the International Monetary Fund (IMF), increase the Special Drawing Rights (SDRs) available to developing countries, make conditions attached to IMF loans less stringent, increase private lending and double the amount of money the World Bank may lend (which can prudently be done even without expanding its capital base).

Sustaining World Trade. The United States and other countries should actively resist pressures toward further protectionism, implement the codes agreed upon in the recent multilateral trade negotiations, increase the amount of trade credit avail-



able to developing countries, and resume negotiations to stabilize the prices of many primary commodities exported by developing countries.

Improving World Food Security. The United States should press to reopen negotiations on an international wheat reserve, increase support for expanding agricultural production in food-deficit developing countries, and increase the amount of emergency food aid available to countries or regions hard hit by short-term food shortages (e.g., the countries of sub-Saharan Africa, troubled by a second year of drought and large numbers of refugees).

Increasing Energy Security. The United States should work with others to explore the possibility of an international agreement on oil and to increase international cooperation in finding and producing more oil and gas and in developing new energy sources, particularly in the developing countries.

Meeting Existing Commitments. The United States should at a minimum resist pressures to further cut development assistance, continue its critical role in emergency relief pro-

grams and meet its pledges to multilateral institutions.

Pledging Increased Future Support. The United States should commit itself to increasing its development assistance. It should create (along with other countries) a special program to help low-income countries, make repayments on past development loans available for current needs, and explore various forms of "automatic" transfers.

Neither the short-term nor the long-term actions outlined here will solve the world's human or economic problems—but they could go a long way toward bringing about improvement for rich countries as well as poor countries. The United States is

still a major economic power, and its official actions as well as the decisions and actions of its private banks and private voluntary organizations affect people in other countries as well.

For all its current difficulties, the United States could do much to resolve the deadlock that has dominated so many international discussions. □

John Sewell is president of the Overseas Development Council. This article is based on the Council's report, *The United States and World Development: Agenda 1980*, published in September 1980.



ENERGY:

Top U.S. Foreign Policy Concern?

Yes, says a survey of business, academic and government leaders.

Energy should be this country's top foreign policy priority in the 80s, say more than 80% of American business, government and academic leaders surveyed recently. In con-

Contributing to the Development Process of the Third World

Many possibilities for contributing to the development process of the less developed countries (LDCs) in the Third World have been proposed. For each of the policy options listed below, please check the column that most nearly reflects the extent to which you personally agree or disagree with the option.

	1. Fully Agree	2. Partially Agree	3. Neutral	4. Partially Disagree	5. Fully Disagree
1. U.S. should significantly expand bilateral official foreign aid programs to LDCs	28%	34%	13%	16%	9%
2. U.S. should expand public-private cooperation on funding development projects	41	40	12	5	3
3. U.S. should encourage LDCs to rely primarily on private development capital	14	33	12	31	11
4. U.S. aid should go primarily to the poorest LDCs, with less emphasis on the more developed LDCs	9	26	12	33	20
5. U.S. aid should go primarily to the newly industrialized countries (NICs) as "multiplying forces" to reach the more impoverished nations	5	30	23	31	11
6. U.S. should open its market and encourage other developed nations to open their markets to LDCs	39	47	7	6	1
7. U.S. should take a firmer stand in negotiations with LDCs, making sure that technology or management transfer is countered with increased business growth and profitability for the U.S.	20	31	17	23	10
8. U.S. should maintain a "hands off" policy so that each nation pursues its development on its own	3	14	14	34	35
9. The current LDC debt load should be rescheduled	12	41	25	15	8

trast, the U.S. contribution to development of the world's poorest nations ranked seventh among nine top priorities named.

The survey of 750 people was conducted by the International Management and Development Institute (IMDI) and the Council on Foreign Relations (CFC), private, non-profit organizations based in Washington, DC, and New York City, respectively. All of these polled were IMDI and CFC members. IMDI is an educational institute working to promote cooperation and understanding among corporate and government executives. Its funding comes primarily from corporations. CFC is made up primarily of academicians

and government officials.

The survey covered a wide range of foreign policy issues. Of those who responded, 34% were from business, 16% from government, 18% from the academic world and a smaller proportion from the media and other private non-profit groups.

On the subject of business growth in the '80s, most respondents felt that NATO countries—which include most of the industrialized countries—offer the best potential for international business market. They ranked Asia a close second. Latin America, troubled recently by social and political unrest, ranked third, Africa last.

Although most believed foreign

aid should not be a high priority in coming years, they rejected a "hands-off" policy. Instead they favored active U.S. involvement in the Third World through private commercial and market mechanisms, as opposed to direct aid programs, with protection for U.S. business interests.

Two development approaches were strongly favored: opening U.S. and other industrial markets to developing countries; and expanding public and private cooperation on development projects.

The survey results are generally in tune with recent surveys of the general public.

Some slight differences among

The Foreign Policy Posture of the United States in the 1980s

There is a great difference in perception of where America is headed in the field of foreign policy in the decade ahead. For each of the foreign policy postures listed below, please indicate by checking the appropriate column whether you think each is "very likely," "somewhat likely," or "not at all likely" to happen in the 1980s.

	1. Very Likely	2. Somewhat Likely	3. Not at all Likely	Rank
1. An "inward-looking" posture . . . adapting to limited energy and other resources, slowed growth and income—severely limited commitments abroad	10%	37%	53%	3
2. A "limited power" posture . . . restoring a sound domestic economy and maintaining involvement, but not leadership in world affairs	22	61	17	2
3. A "leadership without dominance" posture . . . restoring economic strength at home and military/economic leadership abroad, making stronger military commitments where necessary, emphasizing coordination with allies	47	47	6	1
4. A "strongly assertive" posture . . . restoring military/political/economic strength and influence (at the expense, if necessary, of domestic social programs), with primary emphasis on meeting Soviet expansion by force, "going it alone" if necessary	6	38	56	4

Regardless of what you think actually will happen in the 1980s, please check the one policy option that you personally would most prefer to see happen.

	%	Rank	
1. The "inward-looking" posture	1.	0	4
2. The "limited power" posture	2.	7	3
3. The "leadership without dominance" posture	3.	80	1
4. The "strongly assertive" posture	4.	12	2

respondents were noticed. Government people were less disposed than those from business to a stronger U.S. government stand in negotiations with the Third World. Government respondents also were more committed to basing foreign policy on case-by-case human rights assessments.

In summary, responses indicated a trend toward a realistic acceptance of international responsibility, and a desire to cooperate with U.S. allies and the developing world.

Copies of the survey may be obtained from IMDI, 2600 Virginia Ave. NW, Suite 905, Washington, DC 20037.

Areas of Opportunity for Business Growth

Opportunities for Growth: Where do you think the best opportunities for international business will be in the 1980s? Please rank in order the areas listed below with "1" being the area of greatest opportunity, and "5" being the area of least opportunity.

a. NATO (Europe, Canada)	1 (63%)
b. Middle East/Persian Gulf	4 (30%)
c. Latin America	3 (41%)
d. Asia	2 (60%)
e. Africa	5 (8%)

Foreign Policy Objectives

As you view the decade of the 1980s, how would you rate the importance of each of the following foreign policy objectives? Please indicate in the columns to the right whether you think each objective should be of "highest priority," of "priority," or of "lower priority."

	1. Highest Priority	2. Priority	3. Lower Priority	Rank
A. Countering the Soviet challenge	52%	41%	8%	4
B. Expanding international trade and investments	39	50	10	6
C. Contributing to the development process of the Third World	22	53	25	7
D. Strengthening rapprochement with the People's Republic of China (PRC)	12	64	24	8
E. Building strong defense and economic relations with major allies (Europe and Japan)	61	36	3	2
F. Stabilizing and strengthening the Middle East	54	41	5	3
G. Formulating a viable energy policy	82	16	1	1
H. Developing a foreign policy based on U.S. concepts of "human rights" and democratic principles	7	28	65	9
I. Strengthening U.S. military/defense capabilities	48	44	9	5

WHAT THE MEDIA SAY...

The incoming administration has major opportunities both for new approaches and for catastrophic missteps. Global economic negotiations have stalled, but the underlying causes of economic distress remain. Will the U.S. face squarely the issue of global poverty, even if we object to the proffered solutions? If we promote capitalist, export-oriented development models such as Taiwan and South Korea, will we accept the need to open the U.S. market to their products? If we abolish or drastically cut aid, where do we expect the poorest Third World countries to get the capital and technical know-how to stave off disaster? U.S. leadership must consist of more than saber rattling.

—Frank C. Ballance
Christian Science Monitor

Whether the Republicans can accept the fundamental decline in America's economic and military power abroad is the basic question for their policies toward the Third World. Acceptance will put us on the road to making necessary adjustments to the new international system signaled by the Arab oil boycott of 1973-74. It will also guide us in creating political patterns and methods of communication urgently needed in our evolving relations with peoples whose economic viability intermeshes with our own. The Soviet Third World's grip on vital resources and its demonstrations of will can be ignored only at our peril.

—Henry F. Jackson
New York Times

Meaningful and genuinely needed foreign assistance can be an important and effective foreign policy tool—not in forcing recipient governments to become U.S. puppets, but in increasing American influence and leverage with those governments. We are missing quite a few bets in enhancing our standing with many nations by the shortsighted and selfish attitude we have assumed toward foreign aid. Our meager ratio of assistance looks even more anemic when one considers that nearly 40% of total American foreign assistance this year is going to two countries—Israel and Egypt.

—Journal
Beaumont, TX

The real competition to Central America and the Caribbean is between economic and political models that can bring both development and stability. Latin American observers believe Reagan advisers must address these issues to formulate an effective long-term policy toward the region.

—Alan Riding
New York Times

The real energy crisis is not oil but wood, and no one will escape the effects of a balding Earth.

—Newsweek

More than half the grain that moves in international commerce grows in America's rich farmlands. In an age when resources are power, this is power that would command the respect of an oil sheik. During the past year of disappointing harvests, the world's grain reserves shrank from a 55-day supply to only 35 days. Consumption outstripped production by 3%. Obviously, as population explodes, hunger equates with political upheaval. America's \$40 billion in agricultural exports cannot be divorced from foreign policy.

—Baltimore Sun

When a Third World government is in jeopardy, outside assistance may be able to save it. But only a case-by-case analysis can determine whether our interests are truly vital and endangered, whether a helping hand could keep the sinking government afloat, and how expensive the bailout exercise would be. In general, the cost would be prohibitive whenever a regime's base has withered but its opposition enjoys broad and passionate support. When pump-priming would be costly and of dubious value, we should instead reassess our commitment to the disintegrating regime and consider untying ourselves from a loser.

—Richard E. Feinberg
New York Times

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