

# The World Food Programme and Employment:

## Ten Years of Multilateral Food Aid for Development

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IT IS NOW TEN YEARS since the World Food Programme (WFP) first supported a development project. This was in the Sudan, where some 50,000 people whose homes in the Wadi Halfa area had been flooded by the waters building up behind the new Aswan High Dam were being resettled in the Khasm-el-Girba district: foodstuffs made available under the WFP were distributed to them during their 800-mile move and for the first year afterwards when they were bringing their new land into cultivation.

Since then the WFP's food aid has constantly expanded, and at the end of July 1972, 516 projects, to a total value of nearly \$1,100 million, had already been terminated, were operational or were approved and awaiting execution in 88 countries. More than 11 million people were benefiting under the operational projects. In addition, 150 emergency operations had been carried out at a cost of \$113 million.

### Aims and methods of the World Food Programme

The WFP hardly needs introducing.<sup>2</sup> It was launched in 1963 under the joint auspices of the United Nations and the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) and draws on the services of other specialised agencies of the United Nations in the technical scrutiny, execution and evaluation of the projects it assists. It distributes foodstuffs from the surplus stocks constituted by some countries "as an aid to economic and

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<sup>2</sup> An article by A. Dawson: "Food for development: the World Food Programme" was published in the *International Labour Review* in August 1964, pp. 99-129. See also J. Shaw: "The mechanism and distribution of food aid", in *Journal of World Trade Law* (London), Mar.-Apr. 1970, pp. 207-237.

social development, particularly when related to . . . labour-intensive projects and rural welfare". It aims also at "meeting emergency food needs and emergencies inherent in chronic malnutrition" and improving "pre-school and school feeding".<sup>1</sup>

Emergency operations to help the victims of disasters or other critical situations have not accounted for more than 10 per cent of the WFP's disbursements since its inception. As a general rule, except in the case of "vulnerable" sections of the population (expectant mothers, pre-school and school-age children, the sick), the WFP expects that in return for food aid the beneficiaries should work for the development of their country. Once the objectives of a project are attained, the aid is discontinued. Nor is aid extended to countries whose domestic production or imports are sufficient to meet nutritional needs. It is given, on the other hand, to persons—particularly workers, students and trainees—who for lack of money or employment are unable to get enough to eat. Food provided by the WFP must therefore be additional to domestic production and imports, not a substitute for them. This means that levels of consumption, investment, employment and incomes are higher as a result of WFP aid than they would be without it.

In application of these basic principles the WFP has undertaken a whole range of different activities which are generally classified under one of the three main categories listed, together with an indication of their geographical distribution, in Appendix I.<sup>2</sup> The "human resources development" projects, which are primarily nutritional in purpose, account for 36 per cent of total WFP commitments to date, and it is planned to increase this proportion slightly in the future; within this category, however, aid to educational and training institutions makes up 28 per cent (of which only 4 per cent is for vocational training and apprenticeship). To this extent, then, projects of this sort also serve to raise the general level of skills.

Projects in the other categories have a more immediate impact on economic development and employment. Those described as "infra-structural" currently account for only 13 per cent of total commitments and their proportion has been declining; it is to be hoped that this figure can now be maintained or even increased because the projects in question are labour-intensive ones directed towards such secondary activities as feeder road construction or minor irrigation works, which make use of unemployed or underemployed workers and are unsuited to financing by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. The "directly productive" projects (47 per cent of total commitments) are almost

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<sup>1</sup> World Food Programme: *General regulations*, Part B, para. 5.

<sup>2</sup> A fourth category comprises only a few projects accounting for 4 per cent of commitments. These projects are for the building up of reserves of food (particularly cereals) in order to stabilise the prices of staple foodstuffs and do not have any marked effect on the level of employment.

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all located in rural areas, though there are also a few for miners and industrial workers. These result in permanently higher levels of economic activity and while many of them are appropriate to bank financing, WFP aid remains thoroughly justified when for one reason or another a government is reluctant to seek such financing.

For the resources needed to carry out its mission, the WFP is mainly dependent on the contributions promised by donor countries. Since the availability of commodities suitable for food aid necessarily fluctuates a good deal, the WFP's resources are based on contributions "pledged" by donor countries at conferences held from time to time for this purpose, and not on a fixed scale of contributions.<sup>1</sup>

In principle one-third of the contributions should be in the form of cash and services (transport), and only two-thirds in foodstuffs. At the time of writing the only foodstuffs available in large quantities are wheat, maize, corn soya milk, wheat-soya blend, vegetable oil, tea, coffee beans, cocoa and fish meal feed for livestock. Essential commodities like dried milk, rice, dried eggs and pulses are available in only limited quantities, while supplies of canned meat and fish, cheese and sugar are insufficient to meet the WFP's needs. In view of the protein deficiencies suffered by the population of a large number of developing countries, it is obvious that a real effort should be made by donors to include a larger share of these products in their contributions.

### **The World Food Programme and employment creation**

The distribution of WFP food to workers employed on infrastructural or directly productive projects facilitates the financing of such projects. This enables them to be extended and thus to provide a greater number of temporary or permanent jobs; alternatively it enables funds to be transferred to other programmes. In both cases it increases capital formation and has the direct effect both of giving work to people who would otherwise have remained idle and of partially relieving society of responsibility for their maintenance. Besides, since the WFP has no intention of feeding the beneficiaries of its food aid indefinitely, it is in its interest that they should secure steady, remunerative employment or that they should complete their technical training in order to obtain a better job. These remarks should suffice to set the WFP's contribution in the context of the over-all strategy drawn up by the United Nations and the

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<sup>1</sup> Whereas contributions only reached \$84 million during the initial triennial period 1963-65, they now range between \$200 and \$300 million for each biennial period, and a target of \$340 million has been set for 1973-74. It should be observed that even this amount is dwarfed by the volume of bilateral food aid, particularly that provided by the United States, which averages more than \$1,000 million a year. The United States is also the chief donor country under the WFP, but altogether contributions—some large, some small—are received from about 75 countries.

specialised agencies for the Second Development Decade, an essential feature of which is of course the expansion of employment. Nevertheless, the manner in which the WFP manages to increase the volume of employment and the practical effects of what it has already done in this field call for more detailed examination.

Generally, commodities received as food aid can be sold on the domestic market by the recipient government and the proceeds used to finance national development, or else they can be distributed directly. Some economists fear that by increasing the supply and reducing the prices of foodstuffs there is a danger of such aid acting as a brake on the growth of agricultural activity; it could also lead, they feel, to investment in agriculture being neglected by national planning authorities in favour of other sectors. The fact is, however, that food aid programmes often give priority to agricultural development projects. Moreover, the direct distribution of foodstuffs to people who would otherwise be undernourished—the method most used by the WFP—is a good means of avoiding the possible deflationary effect of increasing the supply of foodstuffs and a logical way of meeting the increased needs of workers employed on development programmes when the latter cannot themselves immediately raise production sufficiently.

The expansion of employment the WFP thus makes possible may be measured in the first instance during the actual execution of a project or the settlement of farmers on their land; this form of temporary job creation is of course the simplest to evaluate. The 238 projects in which WFP food was being distributed at the end of 1971 provided employment for about 1.7 million people with an average of four dependants each. A good many of these people were engaged for only part of the year on work for which they received WFP assistance, but most were working on projects lasting several years and would have been unemployed but for the WFP. Altogether the infrastructural and directly productive projects that were already in operation or had been approved as of mid-1972 should provide an annual average of nearly 270 million work days, corresponding to the theoretical creation of 900,000 full-time jobs. Appendix II shows the distribution of man-days worked by category of project and by region, as well as estimates of the amount of aid given per man-day worked and the average percentage of WFP aid in the total cost of the projects. It is true that WFP aid accounts for only a part—sometimes a very limited part—of the total, but because it reduces wage costs it can play a decisive role in the selection of labour-intensive production methods.

Labour-intensive *infrastructural development projects* give employment either to wage earners, paid partly in cash and partly in food, or to small farmers who have a direct interest in works carried out under community development programmes and who for this reason are only given food. They may employ the urban unemployed but they are

particularly suitable in rural areas with a pronounced dry season, where full-time labour is available each year for a considerable length of time. Employment creation in projects of this sort depends on the availability of suitable supervisors, the degree of experience of the workers themselves and their willingness to accept payment in kind, as well, of course, as on the size of the project and the financial and material resources available in addition to the WFP contribution.

In some of these projects the supplies of WFP foodstuffs are sold and the proceeds used to buy tools and locally produced materials (picks, shovels, bricks, etc.), but as a general rule they are distributed directly to the workers—free or at low cost—or to a local community undertaking to carry out a specified task in exchange for rations (this is the case, for example, in a large rural works programme in Mexico, where WFP aid amounts to more than \$21 million). It has been demonstrated on numerous occasions that food aid of one kind or another is a key incentive in development or infrastructural works. Under the *shramadana* system in Sri Lanka, a form of mutual self-help in which the workers give their labour free for the common good, the number of days worked rose sixfold between 1964 and 1966 thanks to the introduction of WFP aid in 1965; the Government having since requested the continuation of this aid on three occasions, support for the programme is being maintained until the end of 1973. The range of activities involved covered land development, irrigation, construction and maintenance of roads and public buildings, and relief work in connection with floods and epidemics.<sup>1</sup> In 1970 the number of workers employed on building the Rajasthan canal in India reached 185 per cent of the target and the number of man-days worked reached 169 per cent as a result of the influx of people from famine-stricken areas. Many more examples of this sort could be mentioned. It need only be said here that the availability of labourers prepared to work of their own free will<sup>2</sup> varies with the type of project involved: improvements benefiting a restricted group of participants (small irrigation canals, re-afforestation of private land, planting of orchards, etc.), communal works (feeder roads, drinking-water supply, dispensaries, schools), or projects affecting a larger area (main roads, electrification, dams and large canals).

However that may be, the infrastructural projects in operation or approved as of July 1972 had a potential employment-creating capacity of some 70 million man-days a year. Almost half of this was accounted for by so-called community development projects, in which WFP aid averaged nearly half the total cost: these projects are generally less extensive

<sup>1</sup> A project of this sort really belongs to both the infrastructural and the directly productive categories.

<sup>2</sup> The terms of the Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29), and the Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105), are applicable to all operations supported by the WFP.

than the other infrastructural projects. However, this figure of 70 million man-days, which is based on the plans of operations and their amendments, is certainly a good deal higher than the real one; indeed experience shows that it should be reduced by a quarter or a third to approximate to the direct employment actually created.<sup>1</sup>

The value of infrastructural projects is enhanced if they result in a permanent rather than a temporary expansion of employment. Of course, from this point of view, land development and irrigation works produce the best results. Road building and other communications works only increase permanent employment if they make it possible to develop the areas opened up, while the effect on permanent employment of housing schemes, the erection of public buildings and municipal works, despite their social importance, is only the indirect and uncertain one of slowing down the rural exodus and the growth of unemployment in the towns. Unfortunately no estimates have yet been made either of the permanent employment created by WFP-supported projects or of the indirect employment created in related trades (supply of materials, tool making, etc.). The volume of permanent employment created by these projects should not be underestimated: thus it is expected that a project which will employ 5,000 workers for five years in the Indian state of Mysore, repairing or building 1,100 miles of road and developing 600,000 acres of farming land, will quadruple agricultural output on this land and result in a great deal of steady work for 150,000 persons now unemployed or underemployed. Of course, field studies would be required to check the accuracy of such forecasts and, more generally, to evaluate the projects' lasting effects on employment levels.

This is also true of the *directly productive projects*, although in their case evaluation is simpler. Within this category, agricultural development projects had a potential capacity for temporary employment creation of over 170 million man-days a year in 1972, and this was the type of project for which WFP aid per man-day worked was lowest. These 170 million man-days corresponded to a theoretical employment level of about 500,000 full-time jobs. The permanent employment resulting from these projects is certainly higher than this and could easily be twice the volume created during actual project execution: a mission that visited Dahomey and Mali in 1972 confirmed this estimate. Thanks to the 25 projects in operation or approved as of July 1972 in respect of land settlement, agrarian reform and assistance to refugees—projects in which the number of permanent jobs created is fairly simple to estimate—it will be possible to resettle 470,000 hitherto unemployed or distinctly underemployed families who, from their experience during these projects, will have

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<sup>1</sup> On the one hand it is difficult to know in advance the number of workers who will be available at a given moment, and on the other, apart from the factors affecting employment creation already mentioned, the initial planning of the project itself is sometimes faulty.

acquired the habit of working together. If all this is to be achieved, however, the various operations to be undertaken and crops to be grown, as well as their lasting effects on employment and output, must be properly analysed beforehand. It is because a prior analysis of this sort was not carried out—and also because a large element of re-afforestation is involved—that serious difficulties have been encountered in providing permanent employment for workers receiving aid under a rural and forest development project in the eastern part of Algeria.

Under the rural development projects, farmers, settlers and refugees are given food aid while they clear the land and bring it into cultivation. This tides them over until they are able to support themselves, and if the aid is continued throughout the trial period it may also encourage them to experiment with new production methods. Most of these projects affect a large number of people and are therefore expensive: the largest, in Egypt, involves WFP aid amounting to nearly \$45 million; over a period of five years (1970-75) this is scheduled to provide an average of 58 million man-days of employment a year to 176,000 workers and enable 169,000 families to be settled on land irrigated by the waters of the Aswan High Dam. If they are to be successful, rural development projects have to satisfy the same sort of conditions as were mentioned in connection with the infrastructural projects, though in addition they are naturally at greater risk from the vagaries of the weather. It is important, too, that the beneficiaries should be convinced they are working on their own behalf: in the Sahela-Sra district the number of days worked under the economic development programme for the Western Rif of Morocco was considerably less than had been anticipated because the recipients of food aid were working land that did not belong to them. In the case of land settlement programmes, prior planning and the establishment of the infrastructure the settlers need are often of crucial importance. Precisely for this reason, however, food aid can make a considerable contribution: thus the number of drop-outs has greatly diminished since the WFP started supporting a scheme for settling seven zones in the Eje Norte region of Paraguay.

In forestry projects, which often involve the building of forest roads, food aid is used either as an incentive to the farmers directly concerned or as part-payment of wages in kind. It has frequently achieved striking results, for example in northern Iraq where it made possible an 80 per cent increase in the forest labour force; in this project, however, it seems that the aid will have to be continued if long-term employment is to result.

Finally, in the industrial and mining projects, food aid is allocated either to the workers employed on building industrial premises or to workers' canteens in existing undertakings; the aim here is to improve the diet and hence the productivity of the workforce, and to use the savings made on the canteens to extend the health and social services provided by undertakings and vocational training centres. Even in this case food aid

can lead to an expansion of employment, as in the Zonguldak coalmining basin (Turkey) where it is helping to finance an additional mine shaft.

No account of the WFP's role in respect of employment creation would be complete without mentioning its assistance to industrial and rural vocational *training centres*, apprenticeship and pre-apprenticeship centres and "training-cum-production" schemes<sup>1</sup> for unemployed youngsters. Food aid may be given to the trainees in such centres as an inducement to work hard; to their families as compensation for the earnings forgone during training; and to the instructors and staff when their conditions of work are inferior to those in the private sector. In these ways it makes possible an expansion of the centres' activities and alleviates the shortage of skilled personnel, provided that sufficient attention is paid to the planning of training and to the choice of trades taught when projects are first drawn up. However, the small number of trainees per centre<sup>2</sup>, and sometimes the fact that the centres are widely dispersed—which increases the cost of food distribution—have restricted the number of projects of this sort or have led to their incorporation in school feeding projects or similar programmes.

This explains why vocational training and pre-vocational projects account for only 4 per cent of total WFP project costs. And although this proportion suggests that the WFP gives less aid to training activities than is actually the case (because, as we have seen, certain centres are assisted under other projects), it does seem desirable to increase it.<sup>3</sup>

### **Some practical problems**

The problems faced by donor countries in providing food aid will not be examined here. As for the recipient countries, the major problem is certainly the need to safeguard normal commercial trade and agriculture, to which reference was made above in connection with the expansion of agricultural activity resulting from WFP-supported development projects. To put it in more general terms, these projects would obviously defeat their object if they discouraged the production and trading of foodstuffs; the greater the volume of aid, the greater this danger becomes. This aspect of the problem is therefore studied before any project is adopted and the WFP scrupulously respects the Principles of Surplus Disposal formulated

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<sup>1</sup> Schemes combining training with actual production work.

<sup>2</sup> Except in the case of pilot projects presenting special interest, the WFP in principle only supports projects in which the cost of food provided exceeds \$200,000, so as to keep down the proportion of administrative overheads.

<sup>3</sup> The average annual number of trainees, adolescent and adult, covered by the 24 projects in operation or approved as of July 1972 was over 300,000, but the courses were of extremely varied duration, some lasting a year or more while others were for only three months or even a few weeks. The amount of food aid provided averaged just under \$40 per trainee per annum.



by the FAO. It is particularly important during the Second Development Decade, when agricultural output is expected to grow at an average rate of 4 per cent a year, that food aid should not act as a brake on trade between less developed countries. It must be remembered that some of them have prospects of becoming food exporters themselves provided they can secure a footing in growing markets.

As regards actual project execution, it has already been pointed out that adequate administrative, technical and financial support, supplemented where necessary by international co-operation, is the prime requisite for success: WFP assistance is not a substitute for it in any way; it is intended only as an aid to reaching the targets set. Among its criteria for the acceptability of a project the WFP stresses the compatibility of these targets with the country's national development plan. It also gives preference to projects that are of a sufficient size to have an appreciable effect, that do not involve duplication with other forms of food aid, and that hold out reasonable hopes of having their achievements consolidated by local resources once WFP aid is ended. This last requirement, together with the need to guarantee proper administrative, technical and financial support, may well raise some delicate problems in view of the preference shown in recent times for allocating food aid to the least developed countries.

Similar problems may also arise with regard to the facilities required of recipient countries for taking delivery of foodstuffs and for transporting, storing and distributing them. Governments are expected to provide these services within their respective countries, and the record shows that this is where one of the real difficulties of food aid resides. It is true that the experience acquired by a good many States should enable them to improve their capacity for handling and administering food supplies, and that there are special arrangements to cater for the most difficult cases. But the cost to the government of providing these services, the fact that foodstuffs deteriorate rapidly in a tropical climate, and the need to synchronise deliveries from different donors with the progress of work in hand and the depletion of stocks (which is difficult to forecast, particularly when the work sites are scattered) are all factors that tend to complicate project execution. When the various commodities composing the workers' rations fail to arrive regularly and simultaneously at the point of distribution, not only is the nutritional object defeated but the late arrival and distribution of foodstuffs sometimes induces workers to sell off their surplus stocks. Efforts have therefore had to be made to discover and eliminate as soon as possible any problems and bottlenecks arising in the early stages of project execution.

Another difficulty relates to the readiness of workers to accept payment in kind. As already mentioned, food aid may be given as an incentive or, when a project employs wage labour, in part-payment of wages. The rule followed here is that the cash payment must always be at

least 50 per cent of the rate normally paid for similar work in the area concerned<sup>1</sup>: this recognises that workers spend at least half their income on non-food items. The total remuneration should not be so high that it causes other workers to give up less well-paid employment but it must be high enough to attract a sufficient volume of unemployed or under-employed labour. A few problems have arisen in this connection but have never seriously obstructed the WFP's activities. Food aid may be used as a supplement to full cash wages when large construction projects are located a long way from the towns and food supplies are inadequate, or in some cases may be sold to the workers and the proceeds used to pay cash wages. Rural projects are aimed at people who see nothing strange in work being paid for in agricultural goods, and who are often so under-employed—at least for part of the year—that they usually have no hesitation in accepting payment in kind. Moreover, the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions, the International Co-operative Alliance and the International Federation of Agricultural Producers have all expressed their support for the WFP on a number of occasions.

The best means of winning popular support for payment in kind and discouraging workers from selling off the food supplied is to give them rations providing a balanced diet adapted to local tastes, since the acceptability of payment in kind depends on the acceptability of the food supplied. Some of the foodstuffs provided for the WFP have been used only with great difficulty in areas where they were unknown or unpopular. In North Africa, for example, workers have sometimes sold their WFP dried milk or cheese in order to buy cooking oil. On the whole, however, provided the use of particular products does not offend against religious practices or local customs, the dislike for unusual foods is not an insuperable obstacle if their nutritional value and protein content are high. Dietary education is often essential to help people get used to new types of food, and the specialised agencies concerned (the FAO and the WHO) are ready to assist governments in this way. Of course, education of this sort can only have an appreciable and lasting effect in projects that cover a large number of beneficiaries and extend over several years.

### **A few conclusions**

Food aid is by its nature a temporary phenomenon, the need for which will disappear—except in emergency situations—when developing countries have sufficient food to meet the effective demand. In some of these countries and as regards cereals, the Green Revolution seems likely to make this possible in the very near future, provided its benefits are equitably distributed. For the present, however, many regions still suffer

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<sup>1</sup> The Protection of Wages Convention, 1949 (No. 95), is, like the Conventions on forced labour, applicable to all the WFP's operations.

from chronic undernourishment and malnutrition and the forecasts suggest that this is unlikely to change before 1980 or 1985. In any case some donor countries are not in a position to replace their food aid by equivalent financial assistance.

In these circumstances the important thing is to avoid assistance in kind being distributed haphazardly. The contribution it can make to the war on underdevelopment and underemployment must be carefully integrated with national planning; this is especially true of the human resources development projects, which have to be continued by the government concerned when WFP aid is terminated but cannot hope to be self-supporting: the selection of such projects on essentially social grounds must be consistent with the growth targets set for other sectors. It may be that the WFP, in the interests of co-ordination with national planning, could make greater use of the "multi-project" approach whereby, instead of assistance being given to individual projects, a global allocation is made to a number of projects included in a country's development plan. This makes it easier to assist very small projects and enables resources to be switched—during programme execution—to particularly useful sub-projects. It might also facilitate collaboration with the ILO's World Employment Programme during the latter's operational phase in the country concerned.

As we have seen, the contribution made by WFP aid to economic development and employment growth is by no means negligible. The problems that have arisen in the course of executing WFP-supported projects have, with a few rare exceptions, never seemed insuperable provided the essential logistical support has been forthcoming. Food aid is particularly appropriate to the rural environment and thus assists a sector that is still too often neglected by the planners. The multilateral character of the WFP also enables it to draw more easily on the technical expertise of the organisations composing the United Nations system. This is a very important point because the food aid provided to infrastructural and directly productive projects and to training programmes can never be more than a complementary input, an addition to the resources of staff, tools and materials: besides, it cannot, even if that were its purpose, replace financial assistance. It is also thanks to the WFP's multilateral character that representatives of donor and recipient countries have an opportunity, within the United Nations/FAO Intergovernmental Committee which supervises the management of the Programme's resources, for joint examination of measures to safeguard their respective interests—and particularly of measures to ensure that food aid does not have harmful effects on agricultural production and normal commercial trade in either group of countries.

APPENDIX I. WFP DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS <sup>1</sup>: NUMBER AND COST BY CATEGORY AND REGION

Category of project	Number of projects					Total	% of total cost
	Africa <sup>2</sup>	Asia	Europe <sup>3</sup>	Latin America	Near East and North Africa		
<i>Development of human resources</i>							
Mothers and pre-school children	8	7	—	9	—	24	7
Elementary schools	16	3	1	6	9	35	18
Secondary schools	13	2	—	4	1	20	3
Vocational training and apprenticeship	10	2	5	8	8	33	4
Universities and technical institutes	7	10	1	4	5	27	3
Literacy and adult education	3	—	—	—	—	3	—
Hospital patients and convalescents	4	2	—	5	2	13	1
<i>Economic and social infrastructure</i>							
Public health	—	1	2	—	—	3	—
Housing and public amenities	4	—	4	1	13	22	4
Transportation, communications, power works	1	10	—	—	15	26	3
Community development	15	8	1	18	3	45	6
<i>Directly productive projects</i>							
Land development	10	34	1	2	13	60	13
Land settlement and agrarian reform	20	14	1	8	10	53	9
Assistance to refugees	15	1	—	—	1	17	1
Crop production and diversification	3	1	—	—	8	12	2
Animal production and dairy development	10	19	6	7	7	49	13
Forestry projects	4	12	4	9	14	43	8
Fishery development	—	2	2	—	—	4	—
Industrial and mining projects	2	4	11	—	1	18	1
<i>Food reserves for price stabilisation</i>	8	—	1	—	—	9	4
Total projects	153	132	40	81	110	516	—
Cost (US\$ '000)	165 238	275 182	100 490	162 524	381 732	1 085 166	—
% of total cost	15	26	9	15	35	—	100

<sup>1</sup> Projects approved from the inception of the WFP up to the end of July 1972. <sup>2</sup> Excluding North Africa (Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco, the Sudan and Tunisia). <sup>3</sup> Including Turkey.

# APPENDIX II. AVERAGE ANNUAL EMPLOYMENT IN 147 WFP PROJECTS IN OPERATION OR APPROVED AS OF JULY 1972

Category of project	Number of man-days ('000) <sup>1</sup>					Total	Cost of aid per man-day <sup>2</sup> (US\$)	Average % of WFP aid in total cost of projects <sup>3</sup>
	Africa	Asia	Europe	Latin America	Near East and North Africa			
<i>Economic and social infrastructure</i>								
Public health, housing and public amenities	—	125.8	5 753.8	—	11 090.4	16 970.0	0.49	23.4
Transportation, communications, power works	120.0	11 251.1	—	—	7 336.3	18 707.4	0.40	25.6
Community development <sup>4</sup>	7 319.8	6 870.2	—	18 590.3	1 982.5	34 762.8	0.37	45.2
<i>Directly productive projects</i>								
Agricultural development <sup>5</sup>	15 671.4	54 396.6	1 037.2	1 438.5	98 514.3	171 058.0	0.30	35.4
Forestry projects	3 604.2	8 459.2	104.7	1 303.5	5 734.3	19 205.9	0.61	40.7
Industrial and mining projects	1 434.4	1 596.0	5 580.0	—	—	8 610.4	0.38	30.1
Total	28 149.8	82 698.9	12 475.7	21 332.3	124 657.8	269 314.5	0.35	36.2

<sup>1</sup> Computed on the basis of 300 days a year, even when food aid is provided over a continuous period without differentiating between working days and weekly rest and holidays. <sup>2</sup> Includes external transport costs payable by the WFP. The cost per man-day depends on the volume and nature of the rations supplied, which are obviously more substantial when heavy work is required. The fact that it is calculated per day worked rather than per day during which aid is provided tends to reduce the cost in industrial, mining and infrastructural projects, where rations are generally not distributed on rest days, as compared with certain forestry projects. <sup>3</sup> The arithmetic average of percentages by project, disregarding the relative costs of the projects. <sup>4</sup> Community development projects actually include types of work covered by the two previous categories. <sup>5</sup> Does not include animal production and dairy projects, which often involve only provision of feed for livestock and in which it is sometimes impossible to calculate the number of man-days worked.