EUROPEAN UNION POLICY
FOR THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT
OF AFRICA

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INTRODUCTION

The European Union (EU) in its actions focuses not only on developing the Old World, but also undertakes to provide prosperity for other regions, for instance the African continent. While African states will never formally become Member States of this supranational organisation\(^1\), they may successfully interact and efficiently cooperate on political, economic and socio-cultural issues based on bilateral association agreements. It is important to emphasise, clearly and precisely, that the EU benefits from this collaboration as well (as a defined goal in aid policy and striving for coherence with other areas, for instance trade or agriculture). On the one hand, this is as a result of Africa’s still untapped potential, the variety of its oil and natural mineral resources and modernised civil society (it has been estimated that contemporary only 3% of the world’s investments are allocated to Africa) [Czernichowski and Polus 2009]. On the other hand, also at issue here is the maintenance of stability, peace and security in the region, acquire new allies, address the

\(^1\) Article 49 of the Treaty on The European Union (TEU) concluded on February 7, 1992 “Any European State (…) may apply to become a member of the Union (…)”. Dz.U.2004.90.864/30, as amended. If African states were to become EU Member States, the treaties would have to be revised. While it seems unbelievable, negotiations about Turkey joining the EU have been ongoing for years, though approximately 3% of the country is located in European territory. According to aforementioned, affiliation this supranational organization by a non-European state may say a lot about liberalisation in the system approach, but in the future it will be a good way to discuss the problem of extending the region of Europe. However, this matter is still very controversial, see more on http://www.forbes.pl/turcja-w-unii-europejskiej-mieszkaniec-ue-sa-przeciwny,artykuly,157780,1,1. html [accessed: 10.03.2016].
issue of mass migration from North Africa to the EU, and the high costs of neutralising the consequences of global terrorism. Provided that, by the end of the XX century, the geopolitical strategy of influential entities on the international political arena was based majorly on bilateral and multilateral alliances, but nowadays regional pacts are more common. In consequence, the Parties (The EU Member States and African states) intensify their structural, cohesion and sectoral policy and press for sustained development.

In this context, the geographical location of African states has a more than trivial impact on EU interests and safety. That is why the EU is not only mainly interested in cooperation with its “south neighbour” but it provides financial support estimated to be in the billions of euro (EUR) as well. This is called an aid policy by using unconventional measures (to realize its projects and programmes the EU spends monthly about 1 billion EUR distributed on five continents) [Stachurska-Szczesiak 2007]. It should be clearly emphasized that EU actions taken to develop Africa are aimed not only at helping poor states, but also at helping itself. Africa is one of the best marketplaces for EU products, including metal wares and chemicals. As an example, in 2011, engines exported to Poland from the Republic of South Africa (RSA) accounted for 30% of the total sales in the sector, while motor vehicles accounted for 15.7% and chemicals for about 14% [The Ministry of Economy 2012]. Another issue is that European energy security also to some extent depends on African resources.

The European Commission (EC) summarises in its Communication to the European Parliament (EP) and the Council the seven-year cooperation between the EU and Africa: “Africa is now at the heart of international politics, but what is genuinely new is that Africa – and the African Union particular – is emerging, not as a development issue, but as a political actor in its own right. It is becoming increasingly clear that Africa matters – as a political voice, as an economic force and as a huge source of human, cultural, natural and scientific potential (…). Meanwhile, the EU too has changed – its membership has expended to 27 States\(^2\), its role in the world has developed and its adopted ambitious common policies on security, energy, climate change and innovation. Europeans have recognized that African economic prosperity is essential for European prosperity and acknowledge the need for more comprehensive partnership and more coherent policies towards Africa. Future partnership has to be based on jointly identified mutual and complementary interests and benefits. The UE must continue working and supporting African Government (…). Finally, the world has also changed with the forces of global capital and financial markets, climate change, global media and information and communications technology, trans-national terrorism and organized crime, and global pandemics all making the world smaller by the day. The need for common global responses is therefore more vital than ever before. The EU and Africa are old partners, but in a world transformed” [The European Commission 2007: 3].

The EC not only stressed the strategic importance of the African continent, but it also mentioned that its development is essential for the prosperity of the entire European Community. At the same time, the EC confirmed its willingness to take actions towards

\(^2\) The EU members are known as Member States, not Member Countries. State means political entity, but Country means state but in a geographic meaning. These terms are very often use interchangeably, but should not be.
escalating joint streams of a universal character. In turn, J. Mangala\textsuperscript{3} [2012] stressed that establishing common strategy – Joint Africa – UE Strategy (JAES) and the Action Plan in 2007 started a new era in bilateral collaboration. After almost seven years, he spoke on how he sees the relationship today (in 2014)\textsuperscript{4}, and discussed a few of the challenges facing the EU and Africa. First of all, both Parties should get further involved in building cooperation by implementing an added value based on mutual and political motivation. Secondly, both sides should rebuild the confidence in collaboration and return to assumptions underpinning their relations by way of open dialogue. He also pointed out the need to continue implementing the aims and discussing problems afflicting the balance of the partnership. What is more, the priority is to realize long-term goals and not look back, implement mechanisms in order to make life easier for the EU and Africa, their governments and citizens alike.

By contrast, J. Zając, in one of her books about the EU-Africa cooperation, articulates a more negative opinion on the common policies. She traces the main problem to the inaccuracy of the Barcelona Declaration [Zając 2001], which she believes treats some issues without due urgency. There is no single, general and coherent aid policy. What is more, many aid programmes are counterproductive, providing immediate aid while failing to heed intergenerational policy. I agree with J. Zając. These days, helping poorer regions or states is fashionable. Following summits, meetings or international message boards enriches the panoply of interactions, but it is in reality only a diplomatic game played for mutual amicability. To understand this phenomenon, we need look no further than the basic problems that continue to plague Africa including a lack of potable water and the failure of educational systems for young children.

**GOALS AND METHODOLOGY**

The main goal of the research is to show the dynamics of EU political activity for African social and economic development and to assess them. Africa is becoming increasingly stronger in the international arena. The author cites only the policies of the European Union, which in the history of cooperation with the countries of Africa play the most important role. In order to achieve these goals, I describe the legal basis, discuss the cooperation, conduct a detailed analysis of the assistance activities intended to develop Africa and its societies that are laid out in the Barcelona Process and MEDA Programme, especially the Maghreb and Mashrek sub-regions (the most important development concepts).

Because international collaboration is still being evaluated, there are countless agreements, acts, reports, analyses and programmes in place. Many of the documents renders

\textsuperscript{3} Jack Mangala is a Professor at Grand Valley State University in Michigan (The Department of Political Science and African Studies). He is the author of many books, including: *Africa and the New World Era: From Humanitarianism to a Strategic View*, *New Security Threats and Crises in Africa: Regional and International Perspectives* etc., read more on http://carleton.ca/africanstudies/people/jack-mangala [accessed: 02.03.2016].

\textsuperscript{4} Interview conducted during Fridays of the Commission in Addis Ababa in March 2014, available at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YsD11iSZtNw [accessed: 04.03.2016].

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the cooperation devoid of any general and leading principle, and there are no long-term goals. I therefore examine the lack of effectiveness and complementarity of the EU’s policy. The final part of the paper looks at the mutual benefits of the EU-Africa collaboration. Legal acts and recent literature are used as the primary sources of information. The analysis was based on comparing particular acts and programmes. I have included many indicators, percentage lists and statistics in graphic form to better clarify the situation.

THE LEGAL BASIS OF EU-AFRICA COOPERATION

The relationship between the EU and Africa is based mainly on three fundamental legal regulations: The Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU, article 217) [Dz.U.2004.90.864/2], The Cotonou Agreement [Dz.U.UE.L.2000.317.3, as amended] and The Trade, Development and Cooperation Agreement (TDCA) [Europa – summaries...]. Apart from that, there are many bilateral association agreements or co-operation agreements, declarations, programmes or unnamed sui generis acts.

Article 217 TFEU states that “The Union may conclude with one or more third countries or international organisations agreements establishing an association involving reciprocal rights and obligations, common action and special procedure” [Dz.U.UE.L.311, as amended]. Based on this, the association agreements are founded on three premises, that are [Niedźwiedź 2012]: (a) mutuality of rights and duties – this rule is not always retained, for instance in the Cotonou Agreement the least developed states are regarded as exceptional with regard to access to food; (b) mutual activities – meaning the activity directed towards achieving collective and intended aims in the field of institutional matters; (c) special procedures – on dispute settlement methods. The procedure for concluding the association agreements is stated in article 218 of TFEU.

At the beginning, the association agreements were concluded by the EU and other European states that have not become a part of the European Community because they have not fulfilled the convergence criteria. The agreements stated mutual import and export rules for states that belong to the customs union. The first agreement of this type was concluded by Greece in 1961 and it became a role model for following association agreements, for instance with Turkey (1964), Malta (1970) or Cyprus (1972). The second type of association agreement is co-operation agreements, which are generally based on the same principles, but are less comprehensive. Their main role is to intensify international economic cooperation. These acts were entered into from the early 1970s, while the dynamic of development was set down after 1989 as Middle and Eastern European states strove to become the EU community Member States [The European Union Encyclopedia and Directory 1996].

The second and extremely important act is The Cotonou Agreement, known also as The Partnership Agreement, which was concluded by 77 African states for a specified time – to 2020, but including a facility for it to undergo revision every five years based on accepted protocols. The Cotonou Agreement lays down the terms of cooperation in five areas: (1) extensive political dialogue; (2) social community activity in matters that regard their states, based on collaboration; (3) reducing poverty; (4) laying out new frameworks for cooperation in economy and trade; (5) reform the financial sector. Apart from that, the Parties decided to establish the free-trade area over two decades [Love and O’Brien...].

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2003]. This agreement replaced the Lome IV Convention concluded in the early 1990s and based on it, the amount of 16.4 billion EUR that was donated from 2002 to 2007 for the development of African states, including 13.5 billion EUR for European Development Funds (EDF) for long-term assistance, regional help and investment facilitations. Additionally, the previous period balance was approximately 1.2 billion EUR. As a part of the third help basket, the European Investment Bank provided 1.7 billion EUR. These quotas do not contain the financial support allocated from the general budget of the EU [Urząd Komitetu Integracji Europejskiej 2006].

A third document is *The Trade, Development and Cooperation Agreement* concluded on October 11, 1999 and which entered into force after five years. The main priorities included the Republic of South Africa (RSA) gaining access to the EU sales market (and visa versa), organising the cooperation rules in development, for instance by creating new workplaces, increasing economic development, including the creation of small and medium-sized enterprises and health-related measures, including for the struggle against HIV/AIDS and malaria [Europa – summaries...].

**THE ORIGIN OF EU-AFRICA COOPERATION**

The cooperation between the EU and African states fits into four basic periods. The first of them was the concluding of association agreements/arrangements known as preferential trade arrangements or first generation agreements. In the event of Tunisia or Morocco the agreements came as annexes to the *Treaty of Rome* [1957] concluded under article 131 “(The Member States hereby agree to bring into association with the Community the non-European countries and territories which have special relations with Belgium, France, Italy and Netherlands. These countries and territories (…) are listed in Annex IV to this Treaty. The purpose of this association shall be to promote the economic and social development of the countries and territories and to establish close economic relations between them and the Community as a whole. (…) this association shall in the first place permit the furthering the interests and prosperity of the inhabitants of these countries and territories in such a manner as to lead them to the economic, social and cultural development which they expect)” because of the economic and political relation with France, which was one of the signatory states of the European Community. Based on these agreements, on the one hand the Member States were obliged to use the same principles in trade with respect to dependent territories the same rules that apply within the Community. On the other, the territories had to use the same rules among themselves.
and with the Member States as with the metropolis that they were connected with [Ambroziak 2000]. Afterwards, very similar agreements were concluded with Algeria and the other states across the Mediterranean area [Stachurska-Szczesiak 2007]. With the adoption of the Treaty of Rome, the Parties also signed The Convention on the Association for Overseas Countries and Territories.

The next step sought to establish a Comprehensive Mediterranean Policy (CMP) with its beginning in the 1960s. Because the assumptions were not stated precisely, a complicated network of links and pacts was launched between Africa and the EU. In 1976–1977, the CMP was signed by Tunisia, Morocco, Algeria, Egypt and Lebanon. In the case of the CMP, the cooperation was due to be based on financial assistance in favour of Africa (financial protocols totalling 3.1 billion EUR, while at the end of the period the European assistance was estimated at 5.5 billion EUR). It was intended to solve social problems, develop the SME sector, protect the natural environment and bolster food production. Unfortunately, this project was not efficacious, because a common political framework was not reached [Stachurska-Szczesiak 2007]. The third step was called the New Mediterranean Policy (NMP), and started in about 1990. The fundamental arrangements were for: (a) supporting Mediterranean states in institutional-economic (system) transition; (b) promoting investments; (c) concluding agreements in order to allow African states access to European marketplaces; (d) developing a mutual market; (e) discussing political and economic reinforcement; (f) reducing population increases; (g) developing MED programmes and activating citizens to participate in changing the world. To realise these goals, the EU assigned provided 4.5 billion EUR (Fig. 1).

During last step, from the Europe-Maghreb Partnership to Euro-Mediterranean Partnership (EMP) the Parties laid down three main aims: to support the intermediate stage in revitalizing the African economy, promote economic and social balance and integration in the region [Stachurska-Szczesiak 2007]. Ultimately, this period of time should have triggered comprehensive European-African cooperation on the basis of what has been achieved.

FIG. 1. The percentage of the overall amount assigned by the EU to realize goals in the NMP in the years 1990–1995
Source: the author on the basis of Stachurska-Szczesiak [2007].
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TOP EVENTS

After signing *The Convention on the Association for the Overseas Countries and Territories* during *The Treaty of Rome*, the next landmarks in European-African common policy were the first (1963) and the second (1969) *Jaunde Convention*, both of which were based on preferential treatment, including practically unlimited access by Community states to markets in dependent states, reducing import quotas, technical support, financial assistance as for preferential loans for African states, existence of safeguard clauses in the trade market. But with respect to the revision of the international area situation – Great Britain’s joining the European Community in 1973 prompted new arrangements in order to put dependent countries in a privileged position. Because of that, during the years 1975–1989, the Parties concluded four other *Lome Conventions*, which became common for cooperation between the two continents. This political chapter drew to a close when *The Agreement on the revised Lome IV Convention* was signed on October 20, 1995, where it had been pushed for its axiological issues (Table).

**TABLE.** Comparison of four Conventions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specification</th>
<th>Lome I Convention</th>
<th>Lome II Convention</th>
<th>Lome III Convention</th>
<th>Lome IV Convention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Member States</td>
<td>The Member States of the Jaunde II Convention, 21 states of the Commonwealth and 6 African states</td>
<td>The next 37 ACP join (The African, Caribbean, Pacific states)</td>
<td>The next 7 ACP states join</td>
<td>The next ACP states join</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main arrangements</td>
<td>access of manufacturing products to the European Community markets with no customs duties (70%)</td>
<td>increase the 25% of availability of duty-free products</td>
<td>sustaining previous arrangements</td>
<td>supporting in cooperation development with out of the European Community markets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>no quantitative restrictions</td>
<td>abiding by non-discrimination principles</td>
<td>security development</td>
<td>mutual interests respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mutual information duties in range of changes in marketplace access</td>
<td>allowing for Most-Favoured-Nation Clauses</td>
<td>independence and sovereignty of states</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: the author on the basis of Ambroziak [2000].

Over the following years, four summits took place. They were, on the one hand, a forum for discussing the most important issues and accomplishments EU-African policy had achieved. They also served as the occasion to forge new goals as a response to today’s challenges. The first of the summits was held in Cairo on April 3–4, 2000. The parties signed a document – *The Cairo Declaration* – which obliged them to address problems as follows: (1) regional economic cooperation and integration, including recommendations to implement declarations, plans, programmes that could promote the development of

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African states, such as the *Lagos Plan of Action, Final Act of Lagos* (1980) or *Sirte Declaration* (1999); (b) integrate the African continent with the global economy in terms of trade, private sector development, investments, infrastructural troubleshooting and industrial base, research, technology and debt. The EU stressed that African liabilities have been growing increasingly despite the EU’s financial assistance (debt increased annually by about 12%, from 110 billion USD in 1980 to 350 billion USD in 2000). In response, the EU conveyed 1 billion EUR for the *Human Indebted Poor Country (HIPC)* programme (an EDF programme) but it pointed out that the beneficiaries of this donation should have been mainly the African states so that they could achieve their defined objectives in reducing poverty; (c) international collaboration with African activity, i.e. during summits organised by the UN. It was an extremely urgent statement in terms of the requirement to hear the voice of the “weaker” states; (d) focus on human rights violations, and implement democratic and legal rights. The EU recommended organising a UN Conference for discussing problems of racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and intolerance. The conference was slated to take place on African territory within a year of the summit and The Regional Conference in Senegal. They also looked at refugee issues (6 million refugees left Africa) and African citizens that were mass deported on their own continent (20 million), according to the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) [Cairo Declaration 2000]. One of the rules that the Commission for Refugees worked on was crisis support and providing active help, for instance in transportation, education, access to clean water and medical assistance.

The next summit took place in Lisbon on December 8–9, 2007, and played the main role in valuable matters including the 50th anniversary of EU integration (The Treaty of Rome 1957) and it was a symbolic 50th anniversary of some African states’ independence (the decolonization process began in the 1960s). The summit was a great success, because the Parties concluded the *Joint Strategy and Action Plan*, which called for long-term goals to be realized in security and peace support, democratic government and civil rights, regional economic integration, trade and infrastructure, *Millennium Development Goals*, climate change, environmental protection, energy, migration, mobility, employment, education and the Information Society: “We are determined to give this new strategic partnership the necessary means and instruments that will enable it to fulfil the Joint Strategy and the Action Plan that we have adopted today, and to do so we have created a comprehensive and effective follow-up mechanism that can deliver on these goals and show us the results on the occasion of the Third Summit that shall be held in 2010.” [Lisbon Declaration 2007].

The following summit took place in Tripoli on November 29–30, 2010, with its focus on “Investment, Economic Growth and job creation”. The *Tripolis Declaration* was adopted and the Parties were obliged to continue pursuing goals adopted previously (which gets no approval) with no substantive or detailed financial agenda. Moreover, some EU representatives missed the summit, which gave the impression that in spite of the wide aid policy, the collaboration is established for their own goals and benefits. Anyway, the Parties discussed issues concerning, for instance, illegally using African minerals. They also recommended The Charter of the Organization of African Unity be implemented, to support The International Criminal Tribunal and guarantee a donation
equal to 0.7 of GDP for aid policy (to 2015) and development of student mobility policy [Przybylska-Maszner 2011].

The fourth and final EU-Africa summit took place on April 2–3, 2014, in Brussels, where representatives strongly stressed how important the previous summits had been. The title of this conference was “Investing in People, Prosperity and Peace”. The following objectives were adopted for the next 4 years: to promote global peace and security, democracy, great governing and human rights, social development, and continental and global integration (http://www.consilium.europa.eu/pl/meetings/international-summit/2014/04/02-03/, accessed: 30.03.2016). The Parties then planned a fifth summit in 2017. There is a strong possibility they will discuss terrorism and its influence on the economy. EU tourists do travel frequently to the northern parts of Africa. Increasingly common terrorist attacks have rendered these territories less attractive as tourist destinations, which are, consequently, missing out on billions of euro.

Despite the many arrangements made during the summits, EU policy in relation to Africa is disorganised. Representatives failing to attend summits and the need to repeat the same programmes is an indication of just how egregious the disorganization can be. In spite of that, Africa should be helped, starting from basic problems such as strengthening the financial help for education or student exchanges and developing the continent’s IT infrastructure. There is no point striving to accomplish higher goals while the basics remain unsolved.

ARRANGEMENTS OF THE EU POLICY

The EU policy is mainly oriented towards the Mashrek region (Mashreq, Mashriq), which includes Egypt, Jordan, Syria, Lebanon, and the Maghreb region, which means literally “west” in Arabic [Szczepankiewicz 2010]. This region of North Africa consists of the Little Maghreb (Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco) and the Great Maghreb (Mauretania and Libya) [Szczepankiewicz 2010]. The EU started its closer cooperation with these areas in order to provide peace on the unstable southern border. In 1994 the EC took a stand on the tense situation in the regions. They indicated that in the then current political, economic and social order, many of the states there are a source of mass migrations, religious fundamentalism terrorism, drug problems and organised crime. These have a tragic influence both on the region itself and the EU. The EU determined to take action to ensure the the Mediterranean border remained safe and stable. Arrangements were made during a meeting in Spain on November 25–26, 1995, where the Parties concluded the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership 7 [Fontagne and Peridy 1997] also known as The Barcelona Process [Borkowski 2005]. Representatives implemented two documents: The Barcelona Declaration and The Work Programme, which were divided into three parts (the Triptych) [Stachurska-Szczesniak 2007]:

- political and security – the main goal is to make a mutual area of peace and stability by using regional programmes such as EuroMeSco (the Mediterranean network of research institutes and academic centres, which deals with foreign policy. The aim of the

7 The basic rule is an ever-closer union.
48 institutes is to conduct research analyses regarding mutual matters for the Maghreb region, Europe and The Middle East; Disaster management – access to information on catastrophes, technical support and civil protection, and a forum for discussing and exchanging views; Maltan’s Seminars – a variety of seminars dedicated to educating young diplomats, a forum for exchanging information, for instance about social-cultural matters; The Stability Process on The Middle East – regards relations between Israelis and Arabs. The funds donated in order to achieve the goal for the first Triptych amounted to roughly 76 million EUR;

- economy and finance – the main goal is to make a zone of divided welfare, for instance by providing the Euro-Mediterranean Economic Area, which helps establish the biggest free-trade area in the entire world, based on signed association agreements with every single state in the Maghreb region. For instance, in 1995 this kind of act was concluded with Tunisia and Morocco; Euro-Mediterranean cooperation of small and medium-sized enterprises with three measures – Europartenariat, Med-Partenariat and Med-Interpise operations. These programmes are based on appointments signed between enterprises in order to exchange information, ideas, and experiences in horizontal and also vertical terms. For that activity, the EU donated about 30 million EUR; FEMISE – the programme that was spearheaded in 1997 with its direct aid to monitor and establish research on economic matters. An indirect goal is to make a free-trade area; Euro-Mediterranean industrial cooperation – to establish a zone of divided prosperity with its main document, a joint declaration; the European Investment Bank activity – providing loans for environmental protection and strengthening the financial sector; SESMIDE/EMWIS; Euro-Mediterranean transport cooperation or EUMEDIS – a programme for developing the Information Society based on knowledge;

- social, cultural and humanitarian issues – the main goal is to develop human resources and exchange between societies, for instance cooperation on education and infrastructure. For this the EU had donated a total of 6 billion USD by 2000. Ideas to be implemented included Euromed Heritage, Euromed Audiovisual Programme and Euromed Jeunesse.

One of the most important matters planned to be realised in the years 1995–2006 was to establish special instruments to accompany financial and technical support under the MEDA Programme I and II. These were intended to help states appertain to the Barcelona Process, and have now been substituted by the European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument (ENPI). The name comes from French and it is an acronym for MESures D’Accomagnement. The legal basis of MEDA I is Council Regulation 1488/96 of 1996 (financial support was ca. 3.4 billion EUR for the years 1996-1999), while the legal basis for MEDA II was Council Regulation 2698/2000 of 2000 (financial support totalled about 5.3 billion EUR for the years 2000–2006) [Szczepankiewicz 2010]. When dividing financial resources, the EU pays attention mainly to issues that are top priorities in individual states and how the beneficiaries have implemented reform arrangements up to the point in question [Szczepankiewicz 2010]. From the two MEDA programmes, the financial support went to Tunisia (19%), Algeria (4%), Egypt (20%) and Morocco (22%) [Szczepankiewicz 2010].

Apart from that, the EU also provided support to African states in the form of humanitarian missions, a necessity in view of the continent’s geographic location and very hot
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sub-saharan climate. Because of natural atmospheric conditions in many African regions, there is no water to drink or it is highly limited, no vegetation, which leads to a scarcity of food, and a high mortality rate. That is why, under the EU’s auspices and its support, there are many humanitarian missions, for instance Agir-Sahel, Share, Dipecho, to name three. In 2012 alone the EU donated: 207 million EUR to Sudan and Chad, 92 million EUR to the countries of Middle Africa, 32 million EUR to South Africa and the Indian Ocean, 188 million EUR to West Africa. All told, this accounted for 50% of the entire 2012 EU budget for humanitarian aid [EC 2014].

BENEFITS OF EU-AF RICA COOPERATION

Figure 2 shows the growth rate of African states versus the global growth rate in GDP per capita in USD for the years 2005–2013 divided for Sub-Saharan Africa (the areas to the south of the Sahara, North Africa and Middle East Africa). The graph shows that North Africa is developing more quickly relative to previous years. However, the indexes should be interpreted as follows: the highly developed states show GDP per capita in excess of 10 thousand USD, mid-developed states from 2 to 10 thousand USD, and the still-developing state comes in below 2 thousand USD.

Prioritising African matters in terms of policy with the EU Member States causes disparities between the rich North and poor South to fall, and therefore less exclusion and the ability to capitalize on globalisation. Donations and financial support play a major role, as do organised humanitarian missions contributing to a better quality of life for citizens. Certainly, the EU support is not enough and does not solve all of Africa’s problems, but it is helping. Providing support is important from the EU perspective also. First of all,
it strengthens safety and peace in the region (armed conflicts on a massive scale) and provides a counterbalance to the Russian Federation’s growing strength and its potential geopolitical aspirations.

Energy safety also plays a main role, as do export independence from the East territories (Fig. 3)\(^8\), the promotion of democracy and humanitarianism, and showing power on international arena. The possibility of continued cooperation between states and their ex-colonies is also crucial, to stress the predominant role in international relations and prestige, as well as the development of interregionalism.

**SUMMARY**

On the one hand, EU policy towards Africa’s development is complex, because it addresses a variety of issues, including environment protection, health, regional development and the promotion of economic integration. However, because of a lack of a one-track policy, it is hard to find precise and expressive long-term goals, so it remains considerably unstructured. From the beginning of EU-Africa collaboration, the parties have signed a host of documents describing mutual relations and financial support. Today, helping Africa is only done because it is fashionable to do so – much, perhaps, like environmental protection, with its focus on eco rules. Studying the history of cooperation

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\(^8\) Though Africa is not the biggest manufacturer of fuels, it still compares favourably with other continents because of the least consumption. Indexes in % are as follows: +4.5 for Africa, −3.5 for Europe, +1.5 for Asia, +1.4 for South America, −5.4 for North and Latin America, +1.5 for Australia and Oceania. This makes the Africa an attractive marketplace for Europe, which is experiencing shortfalls.

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and the legal basics, I have come to the conclusion that the declarations and agreements that have been forged and signed are “empty”: There is a lot of text and compromise, but the road seems to be a blind alley. Quantity does not necessarily make for quality. Certainly, given the large number of as yet unsolved problems, Africa needs special support. Addressing the basic problems – for instance, building high quality education and establishing new schools for Africa’s youth would mean starting from the beginning. The EU could then turn its attention to other matters, such as the economy – well-educated students are “an investment” in the future. Unfortunately, theory does not make practice.

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Summary. The main goal of the research was to show the European Union’s policy towards the regional development of the African continent. Recently, Africa has played a very important role on the international political arena and it has been empowered thanks to a plentiful supply of raw materials. The Communities’ help is based mainly on financial support and promotion of the Mediterranean area. Under the long-term cooperation between the two continents, many agreements, acts, and documents have been signed that would directly benefit the African states and indirectly help the entire European Union. While these documents and agreements cover a variety of matters, including environmental protection and human rights, they are diffuse and lack clear goals. The article relies on the relevant and current literature and a variety of statistics.

Key words: Africa, socio-economic development, the European Union, growth, prosperity

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