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ASPECTS OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA

Report by the Secretary-General

FOREWORD

This report is for the most part concerned with an analysis of the manner in which the indigenous agricultural economies of tropical Africa are being brought within the scope of an exchange economy and so within reach of world markets. This process is perhaps the most characteristic feature of the structural changes which currently are affecting in a far-reaching manner both present economic conditions and the possibilities for economic development of the indigenous population of Africa. The report thus throws light on the "economic condition of the indigenous inhabitants and the non-white population" of tropical Africa, one of the several subjects to which the Economic and Social Council, in resolution 367 B (XIII), requested the Secretary-General to pay special attention in reporting upon economic developments in Africa. The report has been limited to the territories of tropical Africa south of the Sahara, territories which contain approximately 140 million inhabitants or about 70 per cent of the population of the entire African continent. Apart from the British protectorates of Swaziland and Basutoland, the only country south of the Sahara lying almost entirely outside the tropics is the Union of South Africa, the industrial development of which distinguishes it from the countries to the north. Because of its distinctive characteristics, Africa north of the Sahara also requires separate study.

Analysis of the economic problems of Africa has in the past been for the most part concerned with problems arising within the framework of the exchange economy, and very little with those of subsistence economies about which there is an almost complete lack of statistical data. However, since the central problem raised in this report relates to a situation in which subsistence production is being transformed into, or is associated with, cash earning activities, it has been necessary to adapt economic analysis to the demands of this problem. Because of this, and also because of the relative lack of statistics, the report is tentative. It attempts to reach the nearest approximations possible on the basis of the available data. As information accumulates it will be possible to fill in many gaps and to report

with greater accuracy upon the changing conditions of the economic life of the inhabitants of Africa and so more fully satisfy the Economic and Social Council's request, referred to above. Progress in this direction, however, will of necessity be slow since relatively little new data became available, except from occasional field investigations. This report deals very largely with populations which are only partly involved in exchange and, as will be seen in the following pages, official statistics, confined very largely to activities within the exchange economy, give only scanty support to an inquiry of this kind.

In addition to this special analysis in part I, the report also contains, in part II, a brief summary of major developments in respect of trade, production in Africa as a whole and official development plans in the Belgian, British and French territories.

The present report, issued in conjunction with the World Economic Report 1951-52, carried forward the periodic surveys of the economic situation in Africa presented in previous years as a supplement to the World Economic Report, in accordance with resolutions 266 (X) and 367 B (XIII) of the Economic and Social Council; the most recent of the surveys was the Summary of Recent Economic Developments in Africa, issued in April 1952 as a supplement to World Economic Report, 1950-51.

EXPLANATION OF SYMBOLS

The following symbols have been used throughout the report:

Three dots (...) indicate that data are not available or are not separately reported

A dash (--) indicates that the amount is nil or negligible

A blank in a table indicates that the item is not applicable

A minus sign (-) indicates a deficit or decrease

A full stop (.) is used to indicate decimals

A comma (,) is used to distinguish thousands and millions

A slash (/) indicates a crop year or fiscal year, e.g., 1950/51

Use of a hyphen (-) between dates representing years, e.g., 1934-38, normally signifies an annual average for the calendar years involved, including the beginning and end years. "To" between the years indicates the full period, e.g., 1947 to 1951 means 1947 to 1951 inclusive.

References to "tons" indicate metric tons, and to "dollars" United States dollars, unless otherwise stated.

Details and percentages in tables do not necessarily add to totals, because of rounding.

Information regarding rates of exchange may be found in issues of the United Nations Monthly Bulletin of Statistics.

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PART I

ENLARGEMENT OF THE EXCHANGE ECONOMY IN TROPICAL AFRICA

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

From the point of view of economic development, the most characteristic feature of virtually the whole of tropical Africa is the fact that the indigenous inhabitants are in process of transition from almost complete dependence on subsistence activities to participation in various forms of cash earning. The effects of this transition on the indigenous agricultural economies and on the economic conditions and material standards of the indigenous inhabitants may be profound. Yet these effects are not easy to appraise, partly because of lack of such statistics as wages, prices, employment and volume of trade, but even more because these data, even when available, are scarcely applicable to a population still largely engaged in production for subsistence.

At the beginning of the present century, the indigenous economies of tropical Africa were organized almost entirely on a subsistence basis in which exchange and money played a small part. Today, however, there are few indigenous communities whose members do not earn some cash income, either by the sale of produce or by labour for wages. During and since the Second World War the influence of the exchange economy in tropical Africa has been greatly extended.^{1/} A large number of inhabitants receive some income in cash, and cash earning activities tend to play a larger part in the economic life of the individual.

^{1/} In describing the transition from subsistence to exchange activities based on a monetary system, the term "exchange economy" has been preferred to "money economy" since the latter would seem to imply a completely developed money system in which habits of saving and investment are regular and well developed -- a condition which is as yet not reached in tropical Africa.

The chief impetus to this growth of an exchange economy has come from the development of exports of primary products, both agricultural and mineral, and from the establishment of central administrations which have provided expanding government services based on regular tax systems. Both these developments have taken place for the most part during the past forty years. Before 1900 the participation of tropical Africa in world trade was very slight indeed, and was confined very largely to West Africa.

Since the last quarter of the nineteenth century, governments have played an important part in encouraging the indigenous inhabitants to earn cash incomes by growing cash crops or by paid employment. The necessity for meeting taxes imposed by central administrations was originally of major importance in furthering such activities, and it still is important, though other incentives, including, for example, the desire to acquire commodities made familiar through trade and population pressure on land resources, are now probably of greater significance. Moreover, cash crops are encouraged by governments as part of their agricultural policy to improve farming techniques and maintain adequate food production. Expenditures associated with the Second World War and post-war development expenditures, as well as the expansion of export receipts, have all contributed in recent years to increase the rate at which the indigenous agricultural economies have become involved in cash earning activities.^{2/}

Although cash income has become for most indigenous inhabitants of tropical Africa a necessary support to established standards of living, it is not as yet the essential means of livelihood for more than a small part of

^{2/} Throughout this study the term "indigenous agricultural economy" refers to economic activities which take place within the framework of indigenous social organization within each territory. The indigenous agricultural economy is thus distinguished from economic activities organized and directed by non-indigenous enterprise. The activities of the indigenous agricultural economy and the non-indigenous economy together constitute the territorial economy. This is a convenient analytical device, and, as indicated in the following pages, the relationships between the indigenous agricultural economies and the non-indigenous economies thus defined vary from territory to territory and are everywhere changing. Since the main purpose is to study the processes by which the land and labour resources of the indigenous agricultural economies are being brought within the orbit of an exchange economy, indigenous migrant workers employed in non-indigenous sectors of the territorial economies are treated as being within the framework of the indigenous agricultural economies. Wage earners in the non-indigenous economy who have ceased to be migrants should be considered part of the non-indigenous economy.

the population. For most of the inhabitants, the basic means of livelihood is supplied, not by cash earnings but by subsistence agricultural production.

In order to understand this situation in tropical Africa as it affects the economic condition of the inhabitants, three questions have been considered, namely (a) the extent to which the resources of land and labour of the indigenous agricultural economies have become commercialized;^{3/} (b) the ways in which cash earning activities have been combined with subsistence activities; and (c) certain consequences of these developments, and the chief conditions for further commercialization. The first two of these questions are discussed in chapters 2 and 3, and the third in chapters 4 and 5.

In considering these questions in this report, the growth of an exchange economy in tropical Africa has been looked at almost exclusively from the point of view of its effects on the indigenous agricultural economies. Consequently, non-indigenous enterprise and government have been considered only in so far as they have been instrumental in bringing about the application of the resources of land and labour of these economies to production for exchange.

The impact of non-indigenous enterprise has been extensive. It has usually provided large capital outlays for transport, power installations and other equipment needed to exploit mineral and other resources, thus giving rise to a demand for labour, and for food and other products of indigenous agriculture. The availability of transport facilities has enabled the indigenous agricultural economies to produce both for export and for internal markets. Not the least important of the influences of non-indigenous enterprise is the introduction of new consumption goods.

^{3/} The term "commercialization" is used to connote the process by which production for exchange supplants production for subsistence.

While the influence of non-indigenous enterprise has everywhere been towards increasing commercialization of the indigenous economies, there are important differences in different regions. In east and central Africa the establishment of non-indigenous settlers has resulted in considerable land alienation. This development, by limiting the land resources available to indigenous inhabitants, has in certain cases, for example in Kenya and Southern Rhodesia, tended to increase the pressure on indigenous inhabitants to seek employment outside their subsistence environment.

As regards government, reference has been made above to the importance, historically, of the influence of centralized administrative and tax systems on the incentive to earn cash income. More positively, governments have initiated and fostered economic development by encouraging cash crops and improved farming methods, by investment in public utilities and industries and by providing various economic and welfare services. In all territories governments employ a large proportion of the total labour force.

The manner in which the indigenous agricultural economies are brought within the scope of an exchange economy depends largely on the marketing opportunities which are offered. Broadly speaking, two developments may be observed: on the one hand, the indigenous agricultural economies may themselves produce commodities for sale, and, on the other hand, individuals from these economies may engage in wage earning employment outside them. Both types of activity are to be found to some extent in all territories. Wage earning predominates in territories in which the products of mining and non-indigenous agriculture are the most important exports -- the Belgian Congo, Kenya, Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia and Tanganyika. In the territories which also have a number of non-indigenous settlers, capital investment has been heavily oriented towards the development of the non-indigenous economy, with the result that the chief demand upon the economic resources of the indigenous agricultural economies has been for their labour.

The increased demand for labour in all these territories has, furthermore, attracted migrant workers from other territories, for example, Nyasaland and Ruanda-Urundi which, partly because of pressure of population on land resources, have been unable to develop alternative forms of cash earnings to a significant degree.

Where cash cropping or wage employment prevails in an indigenous agricultural economy, complete specialization is the exception rather than the rule. The number of workers originating in the indigenous agricultural economies who are wholly dependent for a living on cash earnings outside them is a very small fraction of the total number of wage earners, composed for the most part of migrants who have not severed their connexions with their agricultural communities. Specialization in cash crops exists on a large scale in the cocoa producing areas of west Africa, and on a smaller scale in the coffee producing regions of east Africa. Elsewhere in tropical Africa cash earning activities within the indigenous agricultural economies have been, for the most part, accommodated within the framework of a system organized mainly for subsistence production.

It is clear that further economic development of the indigenous agricultural economies can be brought about only by an expansion of their production for market since it is only through an extension of the division of labour beyond what is implied in subsistence production that productivity can be significantly increased. In this respect a critical stage has been reached in many parts of tropical Africa. The analysis presented below tends to show that under the prevailing system of farming the indigenous agricultural economies within reach of markets could not greatly increase their output available for sale. Increased production for market, therefore, depends upon an extension of transport and related marketing facilities and upon changes in prevailing farm practice. There are vast areas of tropical Africa embracing considerable populations which are unable to produce for market on any significant scale, because of the absence, inadequacy or high costs of transportation. As is shown below, the importance of transport development is recognized by all governments in tropical Africa. Expenditure on transport is the largest single item in the official development plans of most of the territories. Much of this expenditure is, however, intended to increase the capacity of existing transport facilities without greatly extending them to new areas. It would require much more detailed study to determine to what extent such projected developments might extend the areas of profitable marketing, either for export or for internal trade. There can be little

doubt, however, that the extension of transport facilities, especially by road construction, is an essential condition for any substantial development of internal trade.

If the immediate problem of the economic development of indigenous agricultural economies is to bring them more fully within the scope of an exchange economy, there is also the longer run problem of maintaining and increasing productivity in agriculture, which implies the necessity for immediate application of measures to overcome tendencies towards declining productivity arising from a combination of causes. In some respects the process of commercialization has hastened soil deterioration, and if this is not arrested, its pace is likely to accelerate. The introduction of cash crops has in some cases reduced the resting period of the land and led to overcropping with a subsequent decline in yields. Where migrant labour has been drawn from the indigenous agricultural economies in high proportions, this has often had a deleterious effect on output and on farming practices, giving rise to a vicious circle in which the outflow of labour reduces productivity and falling productivity increases still further the pressure on workers to seek wage employment.

Extensive improvements in agricultural techniques are possible only within the framework of production for market. Both the incentive and the means to improved farming methods depend largely upon the earning of cash income. This consideration is basic to all the projects for agricultural improvement undertaken by government in tropical Africa, whether in regard to large-scale developments such as the Gezira scheme in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan and the Niger scheme in French West Africa, or smaller projects, such as group farming in Kenya and the Belgian Congo, and the Zande scheme in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. The essential characteristic common to all these schemes is that they combine the encouragement of cash crops with measures to improve standards of farming and to raise crop yields.

Capital investment within the indigenous agricultural economies has been on a small scale. The growth within these economies of production for market has been largely dependent on the transport services established with outside capital, usually for other purposes than the development of indigenous

agriculture. Although their further growth may require large capital investments the indigenous agricultural economies are not likely to attract large amounts of private capital from outside. It is clear, too, that despite increases in the volume of saving in recent years, local capital is not likely to be available in sufficient amounts for anything more than a very slow rate of development. A reasonably rapid rate of development depends both on government initiative and on some outside capital.

While such projects as the expansion of transport facilities and large-scale agricultural development schemes by their nature involve heavy capital expenditure, there are many other forms of development which require only modest investment. Improvement in farming practices involving such techniques as contour plowing, suitable crop rotation, improvement in seeds and modification in land tenures, do not call for heavy capital investments but they imply changes in social habits which are a matter of education and experience. Such changes take time, and they are not likely to be adopted in the absence of adequate incentives. There is little point in teaching the cultivator to produce a surplus which he cannot dispose of profitably. Therefore, the rate at which improved farming methods can be developed depends very largely on the rate at which market opportunities expand. Such an expansion may come about as the result of the mutual interaction of improvements in transport, market organization and agricultural techniques.

Future development may, of course, be greatly influenced by the discovery of new resources or by technical advances which may bring resources at present unutilized within reach of economic exploitation. Geological surveying has been intensified in recent years, and all the government development plans recognize the need for such surveys. Some new mineral projects are under way or are shortly to be undertaken, as for example in connexion with iron ore in Liberia, lead in Tanganyika, copper in Uganda and bauxite in the Gold Coast. The discovery of successful means of combating tsetse fly and controlling trypanosomiasis would bring into the reach of cultivation and grazing large unutilized tracts of land in many parts of tropical Africa. There are also many areas in which water conservation schemes and irrigation projects might increase the areas of cultivable land and make possible more intensive methods of cultivation.

Such developments might lead to substantial new capital investment from outside the region, and the resulting increase in the demand for labour from the indigenous agricultural economies would intensify the forces which are already creating problems of soil deterioration and declining productivity. In these circumstances consideration of the impact of these developments on the indigenous agricultural economies and of measures necessary to improve their techniques of agriculture would become even more urgent.

Chapter 2

DIVISION OF LAND AND LABOUR RESOURCES BETWEEN PRODUCTION FOR SUBSISTENCE AND FOR MARKET

There can be no doubt that within the indigenous agricultural economies of tropical Africa a large proportion of the resources of land and labour productively employed are absorbed in subsistence production. In order to evaluate more concretely the present stage and possibilities of economic development in tropical Africa, it is important to know the relative distribution of resources of land and labour between cash earning and subsistence activities. Although statistical data relevant to such a study are meagre, they provide a basis for certain tentative conclusions.^{1/}

Crops for export and for local consumption

The more important crops grown by indigenous cultivators in selected territories of tropical Africa are listed below. They have been classified, on the basis of recent figures of production and export, into three groups: those which are grown entirely or almost entirely for export, those which are grown both for export and for local consumption, and those which are grown entirely or almost entirely for local consumption.^{2/}

It may be seen that some crops in the listing appear under more than one head. Thus cotton is grown in French Equatorial Africa and Uganda entirely as an export crop, while in Nigeria and the Belgian Congo, significant proportions of the crop are consumed locally. Similarly, ground-nuts are both exported and locally consumed in Nigeria, but are grown mainly as a subsistence crop in Uganda.

^{1/} The basic statistics used for this purpose are official estimates of land area under cultivation in different crops, production, export returns and, in some cases crops locally marketed. Some use is also made of population statistics, though these are generally too incomplete for general conclusions. The statistical study is confined largely to the Belgian Congo, French West Africa, French Equatorial Africa, the Gold Coast, Kenya, Nigeria, Southern Rhodesia and Uganda. These territories cover a large part of tropical Africa and are sufficiently representative to validate a qualitative extension of the conclusions to the entire area.

^{2/} Supporting data for this list are given in table 5.

CLASSIFICATION OF CROPS

I. Crops grown mainly for export

Cocoa: Belgian Congo, French West Africa, Gold Coast, Nigeria

Coffee: Belgian Congo, French West Africa, Uganda

Cotton: French Equatorial Africa, Uganda

Rubber: Belgian Congo, Nigeria

II. Crops grown for export and local consumption

Cotton: Belgian Congo, Kenya, Nigeria

Groundnuts: Belgian Congo, French West Africa, Nigeria

Palm oil: Belgian Congo, French Equatorial Africa, Nigeria

Sesame: Nigeria

III. Crops grown mainly for local consumption

Beans and peas: Belgian Congo, French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, Southern Rhodesia, Uganda

Cassava: Belgian Congo, French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, Gold Coast, Kenya, Nigeria, Uganda

Coco yam: Gold Coast, Nigeria

Cotton: French West Africa, Southern Rhodesia

Groundnuts: Gold Coast, French Equatorial Africa, Southern Rhodesia, Uganda

Maize: Belgian Congo, French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, Gold Coast, Kenya, Southern Rhodesia, Nigeria, Uganda

Millet and sorghum: Belgian Congo, French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, Gold Coast, Kenya, Nigeria, Southern Rhodesia, Uganda

Other cereals: Belgian Congo, French West Africa

Plantain: Belgian Congo, French West Africa, Gold Coast, Uganda

Rice: Belgian Congo, French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, Nigeria

Sesame: French Equatorial Africa, Gold Coast, Uganda

Sweet potatoes: Belgian Congo, French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, Gold Coast, Uganda

Yams: French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, Gold Coast, Nigeria

Of the export crops, cocoa and coffee provide examples of areas specialized in cash cropping, with limited production of subsistence crops and large food imports. In respect of some producing territories, cotton is partly exported and partly consumed at home. In the region as a whole, however, by far the greater part of the cotton crop is exported.

Among the crops in the second group cotton is being increasingly absorbed by local textile factories, several of modern design, particularly in the Belgian Congo, French West Africa and Nigeria. In Nigeria and other parts of West Africa, cotton is also used by the traditional indigenous handicraft industry. Ground-nuts and palm oil are important food crops in many areas; a large proportion of the oil used locally probably does not enter into trade at all. In so far as these crops are locally consumed both marketing and direct subsistence play a part.

The third group, consisting of crops consumed locally, includes all the major food crops with the exception of palm oil and ground-nuts. Crops in this group are not generally grown for sale; they are the basic subsistence crops, whose output involves by far the greater proportion of land and labour productively employed in agriculture in tropical Africa.

In so far as these crops are commercialized, a part may be exchanged locally within the framework of a subsistence economy. More importantly, however, they supply the small but increasing demand arising from the non-agricultural populations in mining, industrial and other employment, and in some instances from agricultural producers concentrating on export crops.

Land area under cultivation

The relative importance of land resources employed in the production of the crops in each of the three groups listed is indicated by the official estimates of areas under major crops in the different territories, summarized in table 1.^{3/}

^{3/} See table 5 for further details.

Table 1. Classification of Area under Cultivation by Indigenous Cultivators, 1947-50
(Thousands of hectares)

Territory and period	Crops mainly for export		Crops for export and local consumption		Crops mainly for local consumption		Total area
	Area	Per cent of total	Area	Per cent of total	Area	Per cent of total	
Belgian Congo, 1947-50.....	49	2	587	27	1,577	71	2,213
French Equatorial Africa ^{a/} 1948-50.....	297	21	25	2	1,065	77	1,387
French West Africa, ^{a/} 1947-49.	305	3	1,487	16	7,796	81	9,588
Gold Coast, 1950.....	728	45	884	55	1,612
Kenya, ^{b/} 1947-50.....	-	-	18	5	352	95	370
Nigeria, 1950/51.....	242	3	1,891	22	6,494	75	8,627
Southern Rhodesia, 1950.....	-	-	-	-	912	100	912
Uganda, 1948-50.....	700	28	-	-	1,835	72	2,535
Total	2,321	8	4,008	15	20,915	77	27,244

Source: United Nations, Reply of Belgian Government to questionnaire on full employment and related matters, covering the period 1951 and 1952; Chamber of Deputies, Rapport sur l'administration de la Colonie du Congo Belge (Brussels), 1950; Belgian Ministry of Economic Affairs, Annuaire Statistique de la Belgique et du Congo Belge, 1951, vol. 72 (Brussels), 1952; Ministry of French Overseas Territories, Annuaire Statistique de l'Union Francaise, Outre-Mer, vol. 1 (Paris), 1951; United Nations, Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, Summary of information transmitted by the Government of the United Kingdom, 1951; Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Food and Agricultural Statistics; National Institute of Economic Affairs, Annuaire Statistique de l'Union Francaise, December 1939-1949; Central African Statistical Office, Report on the Sample Census of African Agriculture of Southern Rhodesia (Salisbury), July 1951; Nigeria, Department of Statistics, Report on the Sample Census of Agriculture, 1950-51.

a/ Including a small area under cultivation by non-indigenous population.

b/ Cotton, maize, millet and sorghum and cassava.

Examination of table 1 shows that for the region as a whole the proportion of cultivated land devoted to crops grown entirely for export is relatively small. Of the individual territories, the proportion of total cultivated land under export crops exceeds the average for the whole region in the case of French Equatorial Africa, the Gold Coast and Uganda. The proportion is very small in the Belgian Congo, French West Africa and Nigeria, and virtually nil in Kenya and Southern Rhodesia. Crops which are both locally consumed and exported in significant proportions are of considerable importance in the Belgian Congo and Nigeria, and of less importance in French West Africa. Even so, except in the Gold Coast, crops grown mainly for local consumption account for at least 70 per cent of the land under cultivation.

In table 2, the data in table 1 is rearranged to distinguish total areas devoted to production for export and to production for local consumption. In order to determine the proportions of land area in the second category of table 1 devoted to production for export and for local consumption, respectively, it is assumed that the area devoted to export crops bear the same ratio to total areas as quantities exported bear to total production.^{4/}

In the area as a whole, the proportion of cultivated land devoted to export crops is relatively small, about 16 per cent of the total under cultivation. There are marked differences, in the individual territories, though only in the Gold Coast did the area devoted to production for export exceed 30 per cent of the total. The proportion of land devoted to export crops is notably higher than the average for the area as a whole in French equatorial Africa, the Gold Coast and Uganda.

^{4/} This involves the assumption that average yields per unit of area are the same for export and non-export crops.

Table 2. Area Under Crops for Export and for Local Consumption, 1947-50
(Thousands of hectares)

Territory and period	Area under export crops		Area under crops for local consumption	
	Area	Per cent of total	Area	Per cent of total
Belgian Congo, 1947-50.....	372	17	1,841	83
French Equatorial Africa, ^{a/} 1948-50	305	22	1,082	78
French West Africa, ^{a/} 1947-49.....	844	9	8,744	91
Gold Coast, 1950.....	728	45	884	55
Kenya, ^{b/} 1947-50.....	9	2	361	98
Nigeria, 1950/51.....	1,416	16	7,211	84
Southern Rhodesia, 1950.....	-	-	912	100
Uganda, 1948-50.....	700	28	1,835	72
Total	4,374	16	22,870	84

Source: See table 1. Total land areas under crops for export and for local consumption, as shown in the third column of table 1 are assumed to be divided between production for export and for local consumption in the same ratio as the exports of these crops bear to their production.

^{a/} Including a small area under cultivation by non-indigenous population.

^{b/} Cotton, maize, millet and sorghum and cassava.

Production for market and for subsistence

The produce of cultivated areas indicated in table 1 as devoted to locally consumed crops is partly marketed and in part consumed directly. It is difficult to estimate how these areas are divided between marketed and subsistence production because in most cases the amount sold in domestic markets can only be inferred. For the Belgian Congo and Uganda, however, official estimates of total production and of quantities marketed are available for most of the important crops. By adopting a procedure similar to that used in deriving table 2 from table 1, estimates have been prepared of the approximate areas devoted to production for market and production for subsistence.

The proportion of total land area under crops for domestic markets is relatively high in the Belgian Congo, namely, between 25 and 30 per cent, and low in Uganda, namely, under 5 per cent. The figure for the Belgian Congo is probably near the upper limit for all the territories in the area; Uganda represents a lower limit. On this basis the territories may be divided into three broad classes, according to the percentage of cultivated land devoted to crops for domestic markets, as follows:

- 20 to 30 per cent: Belgian Congo, Gold Coast, Nigeria
- 10 to 20 per cent: French West Africa, Kenya, Southern Rhodesia
- Under 10 per cent: French Equatorial Africa, Uganda

In table 3 the territories have been arranged, according to available qualitative information, between the indicated limits. The percentages in this grouping have been employed to calculate, for each territory, the area of cultivated land devoted to production for domestic markets. On this basis the proportion of total cultivated land devoted to production for domestic markets has been calculated for the region as a whole.

According to the estimates in table 3, for the area as a whole the proportion of land devoted to the production of crops for domestic markets lies between a lower limit of 13 per cent and an upper limit of 23 per cent of the total land under cultivation.

The estimates thus far presented are briefly summarized in table 4.

Table 3. Estimated Area under Crops for Domestic Markets, 1947-50
(Thousands of hectares)

Territory and period	Total area under cultivation	Area mainly under crops for domestic markets		
		Minimum	Per cent of total	Maximum Per cent of total
Belgian Congo, 1947-50.....	2,213	443	20	664 30
French Equatorial Africa, 1948-50...	1,387	-	-	139 10
French West Africa, 1947-49.....	9,588	959	10	1,918 20
Gold Coast, 1950.....	1,612	322	20	484 30
Kenya, 1947-50.....	370	37	10	74 20
Nigeria, 1950.....	8,627	1,725	20	2,588 30
Southern Rhodesia, 1950.....	912	91	10	182 20
Uganda, 1948-50.....	2,535	-	-	253 10
Total	27,244	3,577	13	6,302 23

Source: See table 1. See text for derivation of estimates.

Table 4. Land Area under Crops for Market and for Subsistence, 1947-50
(Percentage of total area)

Territory and period	Area mainly under crops for market			Area mainly under subsistence crops
	Domestic markets a/	Export	All markets	
Belgian Congo, 1947-50.....	25	17	42	58
French Equatorial Africa, 1948-50	5	22	27	73
French West Africa, 1947-49.....	15	9	24	76
Gold Coast, 1950.....	25	45	70	30
Kenya, 1947-50.....	15	2	17	83
Nigeria, 1950.....	25	16	41	59
Southern Rhodesia, 1950.....	15	-	15	85
Uganda, 1948-50.....	5	28	33	67
Total	18	16	34	66

Source: See table 1.

a/ Arithmetic averages of the upper and lower limits shown in table 3.

In the classification of cultivated land shown in table 4, the area under export crops is greater than that under crops for domestic markets in three territories, French Equatorial Africa, the Gold Coast, and Uganda. In the case of the remaining territories, production for export is less important than production for the domestic market. In the Gold Coast and Nigeria, production both for export and for internal markets account for substantial proportions of the total cultivated area.

In all territories except the Gold Coast, subsistence farming accounts for 60 per cent or more of the total land area under cultivation. In the region as a whole, about 34 per cent of the total cultivated land area is devoted to commercialized production (both for export and for domestic markets); or between 30 and 40 per cent, if calculated on the basis of the upper and lower limits used in table 4. In other words, between 60 per cent and 70 per cent of the total cultivated land area of tropical Africa is devoted to subsistence production.

The basic data from which tables 1 to 4 are derived are contained in table 5.

Table 5. Classification of Crops and Areas under Cultivation
by Indigenous Cultivators
(Thousands of hectares)

Category and crop	Area	Category and crop	Area
<u>Belgian Congo, 1948-50</u>		<u>French Equatorial Africa (cont'd)</u>	
<u>Mainly for export:</u>		<u>Mainly for local consumption:</u>	
Coffee	5	Cassava	82
Rubber	25	Ground-nuts	155 ^{e/}
Urenalobata	19	Maize	16
Total	49	Millet and sorghum	767
		Peas and beans	9
<u>For export and local</u>		Rice	16
<u>consumption:</u>		Sesame	3
Cotton a/	314	Sweet potatoes, yams	
Ground-nuts b/	217	and taros	17
Oil palm products c/	56	Total	1,065
Total	587		
		Grand total 1,387	
<u>Mainly for local consumption:</u>		<u>French West Africa, 1947-49</u>	
Cassava	598	<u>Mainly for export:</u>	
Maize	311	Cocoa f/	119
Other cereals	94	Coffee f/	186
Plantains	264	Total	305
Rice	142		
Sweet potatoes	52	<u>For export and local consumption:</u>	
Peas and beans	116	Cotton g/	276
Total	1,577	Ground-nuts h/	1,211
		Total	1,487
Grand total 2,213		<u>Mainly for local consumption:</u>	
<u>French Equatorial Africa,</u>		Beans and peas	652
<u>1948-50</u>		Cassava	222
<u>Mainly for export:</u>		Maize	726
Cocoa	2	Millet and sorghum	4,952
Coffee	15	Other cereals (fonio)	246
Cotton	280	Plantains	82
Total	297	Rice	697
<u>For export and local</u>		Sweet potatoes	54
<u>consumption:</u>		Yams	165
Oil palm products d/	25 ^{e/}	Total	7,796
Total	25	Grand total 9,588	

Category and crop	Area	Category and crop	Area
<u>Gold Coast, 1950</u>		<u>Nigeria, 1950-51</u>	
<u>Mainly for export:</u>		<u>Mainly for export:</u>	
Cocoa	728	Cocoa	242
Total	728	Total	242
<u>For export and local consumption</u>	-	<u>For export and local consumption:</u>	
<u>Mainly for local consumption:</u>		Bennisseed <u>1/</u>	49
Cassava	80	Cotton <u>1/</u>	377
Cocoyams	77	Ground-nuts <u>k/</u>	412
Coconut	6	Oil palm products <u>1/</u>	1,053
Bananas and plantains	124	Total	1,891
Edible dry beans . . .	16		
Ground-nuts	53	<u>Mainly for local consumption:</u>	
Maize	140	Cassava	999
Millet and sorghum . .	309	Cocoyams	315
Rice	20	Maize	809
Sweet potatoes and yams	59	Millet and sorghum . .	2,966
Total	884	Rice	171
		Yams	1,234
Grand total	1,612	Total	6,494
		Grand total	8,627
<u>Kenya, 1947-50</u>		<u>Southern Rhodesia, 1948-49</u>	
<u>Mainly for export:</u>	-	<u>Mainly for export</u>	-
<u>For export and local consumption:</u>		<u>For export and local consumption</u>	-
Cotton <u>1/</u>	18	<u>Mainly for local consumption:</u>	
<u>Mainly for local consumption:</u>		Ground-nuts	46
Cassava	13	Kaffir corn	139
Maize	329	Maize	274
Millet and sorghum . .	10	Millet and sorghum . .	439
Total	352	Munga	164
Grand total	370	Mixed crops	114
		Other crops	22
		Peas and beans	19
		Rupoko	133
		Small grains	306
		Total <u>m/</u>	912
		Grand total	912

Category and crop	Area
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Uganda, 1948-50

Mainly for export:

Coffee	69
Cotton	631
Total	700

For export and local
consumption

Mainly for local consumption:

Beans, mixed	177
Cassava	200
Ground-nuts	136
Maize	125
Millet	571
Plantains	320
Sesame	99
Sweet potatoes	207
Total	1,835

Grand total 2,535

Source: See table 1.

- a/ 80 per cent of total production is exported.
- b/ 10 per cent of total production is exported.
- c/ Indigenous plantations only. It is assumed that 90 per cent of this production is exported. No estimates of areas of wild palm are available.
- d/ 30 per cent of total production is exported; including palm oil and oil equivalent of palm kernels.
- e/ 1950.
- f/ Including a small area under non-indigenous cultivation.
- g/ 20 per cent of total production is exported.
- h/ 40 per cent of total production is exported.
- i/ 50 per cent of total production is exported.
- j/ 90 per cent of total production is exported.
- k/ 75 per cent of total production is exported.
- l/ 60 per cent of total production is exported, including palm oil and the oil equivalent of palm kernels.
- m/ The total refers to the cultivated area and not to the area under crop, which is greater owing to successive cropping.

Labour Resources

The relative significance of subsistence and commercialized production within the indigenous agricultural economies of tropical Africa is important from the point of view of labour resources as well as land area involved. In order to determine the proportion of total labour resources employed in commercialized production, it is necessary to take account both of indigenous labour employed outside the agricultural economies and of labour devoted to commercialized production within them.

Labour in the indigenous agricultural economies is neither homogeneous nor highly specialized, and is therefore difficult to classify. A great deal of the work is performed by women and some by children, though in this respect, practices vary radically from region to region. Moreover, the further commercialization of agricultural communities may bring about profound changes in the division of labour between men and women. Relatively few individuals within the indigenous agricultural economies are engaged solely in non-agricultural occupations, and in most cases agriculture is the main occupation. In Nigeria and in other parts of west Africa, for example, many individuals, particularly women, engage in trade and various forms of handicraft, while also taking an important part in agricultural production. The total of these non-agricultural activities may be substantial in terms of labour input.

The lack of homogeneity and specialization, as well as the lack of statistics, make it impossible to measure the relationship between the labour resources applied to subsistence and to earning cash income. There is reason to believe, however, that average labour input (measured in man-days) per unit area of cultivated land is not likely to differ greatly within the framework of indigenous agriculture between production for subsistence and production for market. In the absence of more precise knowledge it may be supposed, therefore, that within the indigenous agricultural economies, labour resources are divided between subsistence and market production in approximately the same proportion as are land areas.

This statement regarding labour in agricultural production may also be extended to pastoral activities. In most regions of tropical Africa, where cattle play an important part in the economic life of the indigenous population, they are not raised for market on a significant scale. For many pastoral tribes, the marketing of hides and skins is the principal, if not the only, source of cash income from cattle, and is incidental to the subsistence economy although in certain cases, as, for example, in northern Nigeria and Southern Rhodesia, cattle are raised and sold for slaughter. While in the case of tropical African agriculture, however, cash cropping is greatly influenced by production for export, the commercial production of pastoral products other than hides and skins is mainly for the domestic market. In view of the relatively undeveloped state of this market, and in view also of the considerable social significance which many pastoral tribes attach to cattle, it seems probable that in terms of labour input, the proportion of labour devoted to subsistence production is as high in regard to pastoral activities as in the case of agriculture if not higher.

The approximate number of wage earners who are employed outside the indigenous agricultural economies, but who originate in large part within them, is known from official statistics. Since the present discussion is concerned with the distribution of labour resources between commercial and non-commercial production, the labour turnover which the migrant system of labour implies may be ignored for the moment, and only the average number in employment at any given time considered. For each of eight territories of tropical Africa, the average number employed in wage earning activities outside the indigenous agricultural economies is shown in table 6.

Table 6. Average Number of Africans Employed Outside
the Indigenous Agricultural Economies, 1950

(Thousands of persons)

Territory	Total male population over 15 years of age ^{a/}	Number	In employment
			Percentage of total male population over 15 years of age
Belgian Congo.....	3,241	962	30
French Equatorial Africa	1,253	190	15
French West Africa.....	4,898	244	5
Gold Coast.....	1,219	184	15
Kenya	1,500	368	25
Nigeria.....	6,943	258	4
Southern Rhodesia ^{b/}	493	196	40
Uganda.....	1,405	171	12
Total	20,952	2,573	12

Source: United Nations, Information from Non-Self-Governing Territories, Summary of information transmitted by the Governments of Belgium, France and the United Kingdom, 1951; Reply of Belgium to questionnaire concerning full employment and related matters, covering the period 1951 and 1952; United Kingdom, Colonial Office, An Economic Survey of the Colonial Territories 1951, vol. III, (London, 1952); Eugene Guernier, Encyclopédie Coloniale et Maritime: Afrique Occidentale Française, vol. 1 (Paris, 1949); Central African Statistical Office, National Income and Social Accounts of Southern Rhodesia, 1946-1951 (Salisbury, 1952); Gold Coast, Ministry of Finance, A Survey of Some Economic Matters (Accra, 1952); Southern Rhodesia, Comparative Survey of Native Policy in Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland (London, 1952).

^{a/} Calculated from official estimates of total population on the assumption that one in 3.5 of the population is a male over 15 years of age.

^{b/} Southern Rhodesia Africans.

The percentages in table 6 show the proportion of average number of wage earners to total male population over fifteen years of age in each territory. If no distinction is made in the official statistics between male and female wage earners, it is assumed that the wage earners are all males. This assumption is not likely to distort the results in any significant way, since in the territories for which no distinction is made, the number of females in wage earning employment outside the indigenous agricultural economies is known to be small.

The table indicates wide variations among the territories in the importance of wage earning outside the indigenous agricultural economies in relation to their total labour resources. It appears relatively unimportant in Nigeria and French West Africa, where approximately 4 per cent and 5 per cent, respectively, of the male population over fifteen years of age is employed in wage earning activities at any given time. Wage earning is much more important in Southern Rhodesia, where approximately 40 per cent of the male population over fifteen years of age is involved, and also in the Belgian Congo and Kenya.

The total labour force productively employed within the indigenous agricultural economies consists both of males over fifteen and of females and children; the number of available males over fifteen within these economies is fewer than the total indigenous male population over fifteen of each territory by approximately the number employed outside, since these are nearly all males. If this last figure for each territory is subtracted from the total, the approximate number of males over fifteen engaged within the indigenous agricultural economies may be gauged. It has been suggested above that total labour resources within the indigenous agricultural economies are likely to be distributed between commercial and subsistence production in roughly the same proportion as the land areas under cultivation. It may also be assumed that the percentages apply in this respect to the males remaining within the indigenous agricultural economy.

Proceeding on these assumptions, a calculation may be made of the distribution of males over fifteen years of age between commercialized and subsistence production, using as a basis the percentages applied to the distribution of land areas in table 4 above. Table 7 shows the result of this calculation for eight territories.

Table 7. Male Population in Commercialized
and Subsistence Production, 1950
(Per cent of total male population over fifteen years of age)

Territory	Within indigenous economies	Commercialized production		Subsistence production
		In outside wage earning	total commercialized production	
Belgian Congo.....	29	30	59	41
French Equatorial Africa....	23	15	38	62
French West Africa.....	23	5	28	72
Gold Coast.....	60	15	75	25
Kenya.....	13	25	38	62
Nigeria.....	39	4	43	57
Southern Rhodesia.....	9	40	49	51
Uganda.....	29	12	41	59
Total	30	12	42	58

Note: In constructing this table the calculations were based on the average between the upper and lower limits as shown in table 4, above. See text for further explanation of derivation of figures.

Table 7 indicates that, for the region as a whole, the average number of workers engaged in wage earning activities at any given time is approximately 42 per cent of the male population over fifteen years of age; approximately 58 per cent are engaged in subsistence production. Of the 42 per cent employed for wages, approximately 12 per cent are employed outside the indigenous agricultural economies.

Of the individual territories, the Gold Coast and the Belgian Congo show percentages of labour engaged in commercial production appreciably above the average for the area as a whole. Only in French West Africa does the figure appear to be considerably below the average.

The patterns of cash earning vary widely from territory to territory. The extremes are represented by Nigeria, in which wage earning outside the indigenous agricultural economy is relatively unimportant but commercialized production within it is highly significant, and Southern Rhodesia, in which wage earning **outside** engages approximately 40 per cent of the total male population over fifteen years of age while commercial production within is relatively small. The Belgian Congo indicates a pattern in which both commercialized production within the indigenous agricultural economy and wage earning employment outside it are relatively important.

Chapter 3

PROCESSES OF COMMERCIALIZATION^{1/}

The money earning activities through which indigenous agricultural economies of tropical Africa are being brought within the scope of an exchange economy consist, in general, either in the sale of the produce of these economies or in wage employment in enterprises outside them. The commercialized production of the indigenous agricultural economies may be for export or for sale within the territories. Statistics of exports and of employment are available, but information regarding internal marketing of the produce of indigenous agriculture is very fragmentary. The discussion of production for export and wage earning therefore precedes the section on local marketing.

Production for Export within the Indigenous Agricultural Economies

Although in tropical Africa as a whole exports of the produce of the indigenous agricultural economies are very important, there are marked differences among the territories in this respect. Some export only small quantities of the produce of indigenous agriculture; such is clearly the case in Kenya, Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia. On the other hand, in the Belgian Congo, French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, the Gold Coast, Nigeria and Uganda, the indigenous agricultural economies, or large parts of them, are deeply involved in production for export.

Total and per capita values of the principal exports of the indigenous agricultural economies for which such exports are significant are given in table 8. The second column of the table shows for each territory the percentage which these exports bear to the total exports of the territory.

^{1/} As explained earlier, the term "commercialization" is used to connote the process by which production for exchange supplants production for subsistence.

Table 8. Total and Per Capita Value of Principal Exports of Indigenous Agricultural Economies, 1950

Territory and principal exports	Export value (millions of United States dollars)	Per cent of total exports of territory	Per capita export value (United States dollars)
<u>Gold Coast:</u>			
Cocoa.....	153	81	36
<u>Uganda:</u>			
Coffee ^{a/}	23
Cotton.....	47
Total	70	89	14
<u>French West Africa:</u>			
Cocoa ^{a/}	27
Coffee ^{a/}	41
Ground-nuts.....	33
Ground-nut oils.....	30
Palm kernels.....	13
Palm oil.....	3
Total	147	83	9
<u>Nigeria:</u>			
Cocoa.....	53
Cotton.....	8
Grounds-nuts.....	43
Hides and skins.....	18
Palm kernels.....	47
Palm oil.....	34
Total	203	80	8
<u>Belgian Congo:</u>			
Total ^{b/}	71	27	6
<u>French Equatorial Africa:</u>			
Coffee ^{a/}	3
Cotton.....	16
Palm oil and palm kernels...	2
Total	21	51	5

Source: See appendix table VI.

^{a/} Including a small amount of non-indigenous produce.

^{b/} Total agricultural and pastoral exports, less estimated value of non-indigenous agricultural and pastoral exports.

Exports of indigenous produce of minor significance have been omitted except in the totals on which the percentages in the second column are based. They are not very important, however, and their inclusion would make no appreciable difference in the figures.

There is a very wide spread in the per capita value of the principal exports, from \$36 in the Gold Coast to \$5 in French Equatorial Africa, and the figure for the Gold Coast is two and a half times as high as that of Uganda, which is next in order. In the Gold Coast, Uganda, French West Africa and Nigeria, the exports of the produce of indigenous agricultural economies account for more than 80 per cent of total exports. In the Belgian Congo, on the other hand, these exports are only 27 per cent of the total.

Although the exports are few in number, they represent widely different conditions of production. In the case of cocoa, coffee and palm oil, specialization in the production of the cash crop is frequently far advanced, and large numbers of cultivators over wide areas have become dependent on cash purchases of food and other necessities.

In this connexion, physical and technical requirements for crop production may be a determining factor. Under the system of cultivation prevailing among the indigenous agricultural communities throughout tropical Africa, specialization is possible in the cultivation of perennial crops, though not in the case of annual crops grown in rotation. Intercropping of subsistence food crops with perennial crops is frequently practised during certain stages of the life of the perennial plant. Such intercropping may, however, as in the case of cocoa, become impracticable after the trees reach a certain age. Moreover, in the case of cocoa particularly, prices have favoured concentration upon production for the export market.

Of the other important perennial crops grown for export only oil palms and coffee are produced by African cultivators on a significant scale. The oil palm is mainly exploited in its wild state by Africans, and a considerable part of the product is locally consumed.

The chief cocoa producing regions are the southern districts of the Gold Coast, the western province of Nigeria, French West Africa (Ivory Coast) and the Cameroons under French administration. The greatest concentrations of highly specialized cocoa producers are to be found in the Gold Coast and certain districts of Nigeria. The dependence of both regions on food imported from other areas is further enhanced by the presence of a large body of migrant workers employed by the cocoa farmers.

Coffee production by indigenous farmers does not provide any instance of such large specialized areas and populations as does cocoa. Nevertheless, as in the case of cocoa, both technical and economic factors have been favourable to monoculture. Indigenous coffee producers are to be found mainly in the Buganda province of Uganda, in Tanganyika and in French West Africa. The areas of concentrated coffee production are to a considerable extent dependent on food supplied through regular markets from other areas.

Indigenous oil palm areas are less intensively specialized than the major cocoa and coffee areas. Since, for the most part, such oil palms are not cultivated but are exploited in their wild state, they make little demand on labour apart from harvesting and preparation of the product for market. In general, the oil palm areas are also important producers of other crops suitable to forest areas, such as yams, cassava, sweet potatoes, plantains and a number of tree crops. The inhabitants of the palm belt in Nigeria, however, rely heavily on cash income from the sale of palm oil and kernels to meet their essential food needs. In general, the soils of the oil palm area in Nigeria are comparatively poor, while population density is relatively high. Concentration on the sale of oil palm products, for which there is both an export and a local market, has become relatively profitable.

Other crops which are produced on a significant scale within the indigenous agricultural economies as cash crops for export are ground-nuts and cotton - annual crops which, under the systems of cultivation employed in tropical Africa, are grown in rotation with other crops, mainly food. Such rotation is essential to the maintenance of the fertility of the soil, and consequently of crop yields. Cultivation of ground-nuts and cotton is less concentrated in specific areas than in the case of cocoa, coffee and palm oil. The development of annual crops, such as ground-nuts or cotton, as cash crops within the framework of the indigenous agricultural economies has led to a partial modification of purely subsistence agriculture, the cash crop being rotated with food crops grown for subsistence. Production of such crops for export is thus much less specialized than in the case of cocoa, coffee and palm oil, and producers are largely independent of food purchases.

The type of crop which can be grown in any region is, of course, largely determined by climatic factors. The moist equatorial zone with well distributed annual rainfall is best suited to perennial crops. Within this relatively small

zone are found the specialized cocoa, coffee and palm oil cultivators of the indigenous agricultural economies. The more extensive savannah areas are suited to annual crops, and in these areas cotton and ground-nuts are produced by indigenous cultivators as cash crops. Table 9 sets out the main regions of production of the major export crops produced by the indigenous agricultural economies, together with the acreages under cultivation.

Table 9. Areas under Cocoa, Coffee, Cotton and
Ground-nuts, and Principal Producing Regions, 1948-50
(Thousands of hectares)

Crop and territory	Period	Area	Producing region
<u>Cocoa:</u>			
French West Africa.....	1947-50	119	Mainly Ivory Coast
Gold Coast.....	1950	728	Mainly the Colony and Ashanti
Nigeria.....	1950/51	242	Mainly Ibadan and Ife- Ilesha divisions of Oyo; Ijebu-Ode and Abeokuta provinces and parts of the Colony
<u>Coffee:</u>			
Belgian Congo.....	1947-50	5	Mainly Kasai and Orientale
French Equatorial Africa.....	1948-50	15	Mainly Ubangi-Shari
French West Africa.....	1947-50	186	Mainly Ivory Coast
Tanganyika.....	1951	43 ^{a/}	Mainly Moshi district in northern provinces
Uganda.....	1948-50	69	Mainly Mengo, Masaka and Mubande districts in Buganda, and Bigushi in eastern provinces
<u>Cotton:</u>			
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.....	1948-51	185	The Gezira ^{b/}
Belgian Congo.....	1947-50	314	Mainly Orientale; also Kasai, Equateur, Katanga and Kivu
French Equatorial Africa.....	1948-50	280	Mainly Ubangi and Tchad
French West Africa.....	1947-50	276	Upper Volta, Dahomey, Ivory Coast, Niger and Sudan
Nigeria.....	1950/51	377	Mainly northern territories (Zaria, Katsina and Sokoto)
Uganda.....	1948-50	631	All parts of Uganda ^{c/}
<u>Ground-nuts:</u>			
Belgian Congo.....	1947-50	217	Mainly Orientale, Kasai, Leopoldville, Katanga, Equateur and Kivu
French Equatorial Africa.....	1948-50	155	Mainly Ubangi-Shari; also Tchad, Moyen-Congo and Gabon

Footnotes on following page.

Table 9. (cont'd)

Crop and territory	Period	Area	Producing region
<u>Ground-nuts: (cont'd)</u>			
French West Africa.....	1947-50	1,211	Mainly Senegal, Sudan, Upper Volta and Niger
Nigeria.....	1950/51	412	Mainly northern zones territories (Kano, Sokoto, Katsina and Bornu)

Source: See table 1; also Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Department of Economics and trade, Foreign Trade and Internal Statistics (Khartoum, September 1952).

- a/ Including non-indigenous areas; about 80 per cent of total production is African.
- b/ Production in the Gezira represents about half of the total; largely under irrigation.
- c/ Production in western provinces is small.

In the case of cocoa, coffee and palm oil, the export income flowing directly into the indigenous agricultural economy is much more highly concentrated than in the case of cotton and ground-nuts, production of which is more widely diffused. This variation in the manner in which income is spread is likely to have considerable influence on the process of commercialization of indigenous agricultural economies. It is not possible to estimate the extent of this variation because data are not available to relate the per capita export value of the exports of indigenous agriculture to the size of the population of the regions within each territory where such export crops are grown, and to compare the results with the per capita export value for these crops in relation to the population of the territories as a whole. Fragmentary data are available, however, in the case of cocoa production in the Gold Coast and cotton production in Uganda. It is estimated that there are 300,000 cocoa farmers in the Gold Coast, who may be assumed to have an average of three dependents each, a total of 1.2 million. To this total may be added some 250,000 hired labourers, mostly migrants employed in harvesting the crop. Thus about 1.5 million persons are directly dependent on cocoa cultivation.^{2/} On the basis of the 1950 value of cocoa exports, the per capita export value for those directly dependent on the cultivation of cocoa is approximately \$100, compared with \$36 for the entire population of the territory.

In Uganda, cotton production is widely distributed throughout the territory, except in the western province. It may be assumed that the entire population - except in the western province and the small number directly dependent on coffee production, probably not more than 200,000 - is dependent on cotton production, that is, approximately 3.8 million. On the basis of the 1950 value of cotton exports, the per capita value would be approximately \$12 for those directly dependent on cotton, and about \$10 for the entire population.

An important aspect of the greater degree of specialization by indigenous producers on the cultivation of cocoa and coffee is the employment of hired labour. Although statistics of hired labour employed by indigenous cultivators

^{2/} United Kingdom Colonial Office, An Economic Survey of the Colonial Territories, vol. III (London, 1951).

are not generally available, it is probably that the volume of such employment varies widely from region to region. Whether or not a demand for hired labour becomes general depends in considerable measure on the average size of the farm and on the cash value of the crops grown for sale. Hired labour plays an important part in the cocoa producing areas of the Gold Coast, and in the Buganda province of Uganda, where farm units are often too large for the average family to cultivate unaided, and where the cash value of the crops is relatively high. It has already been mentioned that the number of hired labourers employed by cocoa producers in the Gold Coast is estimated at approximately 250,000. There are no direct estimates of the number of hired labourers employed in indigenous agriculture in Uganda, but the number seems to fluctuate considerably and may be as high as 100,000 at the peak. The employment of hired labour is also common on the cocoa farms of Nigeria. Elsewhere, a demand for hired labour by indigenous cultivators exists only in exceptional cases.

Wage Earning Outside the Indigenous Agricultural Economies

It has been pointed out above that the movement of workers from indigenous agricultural economies into wage earning employment outside is a major factor in the process of commercialization of these economies. More is said below of the relationship between the cash income earned by such labour and the agricultural communities from which the supply of labour springs. At this point attention is confined to the chief directions of the movement of such labour and to its order of magnitude.

The number of African wage earners in certain tropical African territories is shown in table 10. The figures in the table include all recorded wage earners except those employed by indigenous cultivators.

Table 10. Number of African Wage Earners Employed Outside
Indigenous Agricultural Economies^{a/}
(Thousands)

Territory	Year	Total wage earners	Total population	Wage earners as percentage of total population
Belgian Congo.....	1950	962	11,345	8
French Equatorial Africa..	1950	190	6,386	4
French West Africa.....	1947	244	17,144	1
Gold Coast.....	1950	184	4,267	4
Kenya.....	1950	421	5,251	8
Nigeria.....	1947	258	24,300	1
Northern Rhodesia.....	1949	172	1,640	10
Southern Rhodesia.....	1950	458	1,726	26
Tanganyika.....	1951	455	7,408	6
Uganda.....	1950	171	4,918	3

Source: See table 6; also United Kingdom Colonial Office,
Report to the General Assembly of the United Nations
on the Administration of Tanganyika for 1951 (London, 1952),
Colonial No. 287.

a/ Migrant workers from other territories are included in the total
of wage earners for each territory. In the case of Southern Rhodesia,
about 60 per cent of the wage earners are from other territories.
This explains the high percentage for Southern Rhodesia in the final
column of the table.

The percentages of wage earners to total population give some indication of the variations in the significance of wage employment among different territories. Wage employment is much more important in Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia, the Belgian Congo and Kenya than in the other territories. Migrant workers from other territories are most significant numerically in the case of Southern Rhodesia, where about 60 per cent of African wage earners come from outside the territory, and in Northern Rhodesia, where approximately 10 per cent are extra-territorial. Even if extra-territorial wage earners were excluded from the total for Southern Rhodesia, the number of Southern Rhodesia Africans engaged in wage earning within the territory would be equal to about 12 per cent of the total population.^{3/} A large part of total wage employment is provided by production for export in mining and non-indigenous agriculture.

The wage earners represented in table 10 have been classified as workers in agriculture and forestry, mining and other employment; and official statistics of wage employment other than in agriculture and mining are further subdivided into several categories in table 11. These classifications are not strictly comparable for the different territories. Nevertheless, for the broad groupings, they provide an indication of the most important fields of employment outside agriculture and mining.

^{3/} Exclusive of Africans from Southern Rhodesia employed outside Southern Rhodesia, of whom there were 25,000 in 1950.

Table 11. Employment of African Labour, by Major Categories
(Thousands of workers)

Category	Belgian Congo		French Equatorial Africa		French West Africa		Gold Coast		Kenya		Nigeria		Rhodesia		Southern Rhodesia		Tanganyika		Uganda	
	1950	1950	1950	1950	1947	1950	1950	1950	1950	1950	1947	1949	1950	1950	1950	1950	1951	1950	1950	1950
Agriculture.....	238.8	44.3	50.0	20.0	201.9 ^a	55.0	32.4	177.0	232.7	29.5
Forestry.....		22.0	10.4														4.4 ^a	3.6 ^a		
Mining and quarrying.....	113.8	27.1	4.7	44.3	8.3	70.6	37.0	59.5	18.3	5.8										
Other employment..	609.4	99.3	179.2	120.0	210.5	131.9	102.6	221.5	200.2	132.2										
Electric power production.....	1.7	1.4	0.8	...	3.7										
Building and construction...	84.8	17.1 ^b	...	33.7	16.3	43.0	45.0	34.5										
Industry.....	134.9	14.2	41.1	10.1	34.7	10.0	21.0	52.0	28.4	24.4										
Commerce.....	62.1	9.1	39.9	19.2	19.3	19.0	19.9	2.5										
Transport.....	62.1	18.4	15.2	5.2	28.7	...	3.9	10.0	24.1	6.4										
Domestic and other services...	...	8.2	...	9.7	32.0	...	51.5	7.2										
Public employment.....	...	44.4	50.8	30.5	95.1	92.1	9.7	93.0	31.2	39.3										
Miscellaneous.....	255.5	0.7	28.9	...	38.5 ^e	...	36.0	0.8										
TOTAL	962.0	192.7 ^d	244.3	184.3 ^e	420.8	257.5	172.0 ^f	458.0 ^g	455.4	171.2 ^h										

Source: See table 6.

- a/ Including fishing.
b/ Building and public works.
c/ Including domestic service.
d/ Including 3,200 Europeans.
e/ Of these, 77,375 were employed by the Government and 106,963 by private enterprise.
f/ Including 36,000 migrants from other territories.
g/ Including 253,000 migrants from other territories.
h/ Including 18,000 Africans employed in cotton ginning, which provides only seasonal employment.

Table 11 indicates that employment in agriculture and mining together accounted for about 43 per cent of the total wage employment in the region as a whole. In Kenya and Tanganyika, these two categories accounted for approximately 55 per cent of total wage employment; in French Equatorial Africa, Nigeria and Southern Rhodesia, for approximately 50 per cent; in the Belgian Congo, the Gold Coast and Northern Rhodesia, for 35 to 40 per cent. Corresponding figures for French West Africa and Uganda were 27 per cent and 23 per cent, respectively.

In the area as a whole, the largest single field for wage earners was provided by non-indigenous agriculture, which accounted for about 32 per cent of the total number of wage earners in the territories listed in table 11. In Tanganyika, non-indigenous agriculture employed 52 per cent of the total wage earners, in Kenya 48 per cent, and in Southern Rhodesia about 39 per cent. In the Gold Coast and Northern Rhodesia, on the other hand, employment in non-indigenous agriculture was relatively unimportant in relation to other fields of employment, about 11 per cent and 19 per cent of the total, respectively.

In terms of absolute numbers, agriculture was most important as a source of employment in the Belgian Congo, Kenya, Southern Rhodesia and Tanganyika. These four territories accounted for about 76 per cent of the total number employed in agriculture in the ten territories in the table.

About 11 per cent of the total number of wage earners in the ten territories together were employed in mining. The proportion of total wage earners engaged in mining significantly exceeded this percentage in the Gold Coast, Nigeria and Northern Rhodesia. Mining is unimportant, both absolutely and relatively as a source of wage employment in French West Africa, Kenya, Tanganyika and Uganda. In absolute terms it is most important in the Belgian Congo, which accounted for about 30 per cent of all the workers employed in mining in the ten territories.

The classifications in the table obscure the fact that in all territories the governments are large employers of labour. The workers classified under public employment include only a small fraction of the total in various forms of government employment. A large proportion of those classified in construction and building, transport and, in some cases, agriculture are employed by central

and local governments. The groups classified under building and construction include many engaged in public works, such as highway construction and maintenance.

In the area as a whole, secondary industry provides employment for a relatively small number of wage earners. A substantial part of total employment in the secondary industries in the ten territories in the table is accounted for by the Belgian Congo and Southern Rhodesia.

Most of the workers who are employed for wages are migrants from indigenous agricultural economies. They are for the most part wage earners only temporarily, retaining an active connexion with the indigenous agricultural economies to which they return either permanently or at intervals. Although the number of permanent wage earners is increasing, particularly in some mining and urban centres, they are a small proportion of the total. The employment figures in table 11 indicate the average volume of employment, but since most of these workers are migrants, the total number of wage earners is considerably in excess of the average number employed at a given time. Some workers seek employment at rare intervals and for short periods, while others are wage earners for a great deal of the time. It is estimated that the number of individual workers employed annually in mining in the Gold Coast is about five times the average volume of employment.

It is important to note, first, that migrant labour is employed on relatively unskilled work, and wage rates for such labour are generally low; and, second, that not only are wage rates low, but average individual annual earnings also tend to be small because of high labour turnover.

Local Marketing of the Products of Indigenous Agricultural Economies

While there are fairly complete statistics of exports there are virtually none relating to the domestic marketing of locally produced commodities. The evidence presented in chapter 2 indicates, however, that the area under crops marketed internally is probably similar in magnitude to the area under export crops. The volume of agricultural production which is marketed internally, however, depends to a great extent on the availability of a surplus after subsistence needs are met, and it fluctuates widely.

The produce which is sold within the territories is more varied than the export crops. For convenience it may be classified into several groups. The first and most important includes all food products, which may be further subdivided into animal and agricultural products. The second major group consists of non-food production, which may be subdivided into agricultural and pastoral, and the products of local handicrafts.

Regional climatic and soil conditions, of course, determine the nature of crops which can be produced and a certain amount of exchange has grown up on this basis. Thus, for example, pastoral production is confined almost entirely to the savannah areas, and the rain forest areas produce palm oil, which is frequently marketed in parts of the savannah region. The most important non-food crop produced for internal sale by indigenous agriculturalists in tropical Africa is cotton. In Nigeria, for example, 40 to 50 per cent of the cotton crop is marketed locally. The production of local handicrafts is of some importance in parts of west Africa, particularly in Nigeria. In eastern and central Africa indigenous handicrafts are of much less importance commercially.

An indication of the nature and significance of domestic marketing of the production of the indigenous agricultural economies may be obtained by considering the main sources of demand. The most important demand is for food; some of this demand comes from cultivators within the indigenous agricultural economies specializing in cocoa, coffee and palm oil production. In the cocoa producing regions of west Africa, market demand for food has assumed great importance. It has been estimated, for example, that in the cocoa producing areas in the province of Oyo in Nigeria, one-quarter of the farmers are completely dependent upon cocoa and grow practically no food crops when the trees are in full bearing. In the Ibadan division no less than three-quarters of the total population is estimated to be dependent on cocoa farming. The deficiencies of food in these areas of Nigeria are supplied by areas which are less well suited to cocoa production.^{4/} In Nigeria, as in the Gold Coast, cocoa farmers employ large numbers of hired labourers. In Uganda, coffee producers depend on regular purchases of maize, beans and other foods produced in savannah regions in other

^{4/} D. Forde and R. Scott, Native Economies of Nigeria (Faber and Faber, London, 1946), pages 86 and 87.

parts of the country,^{5/} but coffee production in Uganda is confined to a relatively small area. The income derived from the sale of palm oil and palm kernels, particularly in Nigeria, is partly expended on food produced in other regions, though the oil palm areas are in general less highly specialized in cash crops than are the main cocoa and coffee producing areas.

Demand for food also arises from wage earners employed outside the indigenous agricultural economies. The total number of such workers in ten territories of tropical Africa, as indicated by table 11, above, is 3.5 million. A great part of this labour force is employed in mining and non-indigenous agriculture, largely for export. About 390,000 African wage earners are employed in mining in all these territories, embracing most of the mining activity of tropical Africa. A small but increasing proportion of these wage earners have family dependants living with them, especially in the Belgian Congo and Northern Rhodesia, thus increasing the demand for food in the mining centres. Mining operations are widely scattered throughout the region, and large concentrations of mining workers are found mainly in the Katanga district of the Belgian Congo, in the copper belt of Northern Rhodesia, in Nigeria and in Southern Rhodesia. In Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia, a large part of the local demand for maize and other staple food products is supplied by non-indigenous cultivators.

The estimated number of agricultural workers in the ten territories in table 11 is approximately one million, of whom many are employed in wage earning only at seasonal periods. The most important plantation production in tropical Africa is in the Belgian Congo, Kenya and Tanganyika; and in these territories the existence of considerable numbers of wage earners has given rise to regular markets for staple foods produced by indigenous cultivators. Included among the agricultural wage earners are many non-plantation workers who are also partly occupied in raising subsistence food crops, and some plantations, for example sisal estates in Kenya and Tanganyika, grow at least part of the food required for their workers.

^{5/} United Kingdom Colonial Office, Mechanization of Agriculture in Tropical Africa.

Local demands for food produced within the indigenous agricultural economies arise naturally with the development of urban centres where the number of non-agricultural workers is relatively high, and farmers in the immediate countryside often find it more profitable to produce for such local markets rather than for export. A large part of the labour force referred to in tables 10 and 11 finds employment in such urban centres. Although in all territories of tropical Africa urban communities have increased rapidly, the urban population is a small proportion of the total. Many urban groups are actually enlarged rural communities, and for this reason estimates of the size of urban communities in the population statistics of the different territories are not precise or consistent. In central and east Africa, urban development has been closely associated with non-indigenous settlement. The towns have become centres of trade, industry and administration, largely based upon the requirements of non-indigenous settlers.

Domestic trade in the non-food products of indigenous agricultural economies is without doubt much smaller in volume than that in food products. Cotton is the most important non-food product entering into local trade, but the quantity of cotton produced by indigenous cultivators and consumed locally is significant only in Nigeria, French West Africa and the Belgian Congo. Average annual production of cotton in Nigeria for the four years, 1947-50, was approximately 15,000 tons of fibre, of which from 40 to 50 per cent was retained for local consumption. In French West Africa, average annual production during the same period was 7,600 tons, of which the average local consumption was 6,200 tons. In the Belgian Congo, an average of approximately 10,000 tons of cotton was retained annually for local consumption in the years 1948-50. In these and other territories in tropical Africa, there is a tendency for domestic consumption of locally produced cotton to increase as a result of the establishment of textile mills.

Local handicrafts, representing simple forms of specialization within the indigenous agricultural economies, account for only a small fraction of domestic marketing activities in tropical Africa as a whole. Such handicrafts are significant in parts of west Africa, particularly in Northern Nigeria. Even in Nigeria, however, handicraft production accounts for a relatively small proportion

of total production for exchange.^{6/} In the Belgian Congo, official estimates of national income valued the production of indigenous handicraft at less than 3 per cent of the total money income of the indigenous population.^{7/}

Cash Income from Wages and from Sale of Produce

The territories in tropical Africa have been divided into two groups, according to whether cash income of the indigenous agricultural economies from the sale of produce or from wages predominates. In four of the territories of tropical Africa under review, the Belgian Congo, Kenya, Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia, cash income earned by Africans in employment outside the indigenous economies exceeds the income received by the indigenous economies from the sale of their produce. In the other five, French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, the Gold Coast, Nigeria and Uganda, income from the sale of produce of the indigenous agricultural economies exceeds income from wage labour.

In the case of the first group, official estimates of national income for at least one recent year are available. For these four territories, therefore, estimates of cash income derived from the sale of commodities produced within the indigenous agricultural economies and from wages may be taken directly from national income figures; such data are given in table 12. The sum of these two amounts represents the estimated total cash earnings of the indigenous agricultural economies.^{8/} Except for the Belgian Congo, where wages are 57 per cent of the total, by far the largest part of the total estimated income is in the form of wages, which account for 94 per cent of the total in Northern Rhodesia, 90 per cent in Southern Rhodesia and 74 per cent in Kenya. In the case of Northern and Southern Rhodesia, virtually no produce of the indigenous agricultural economies is exported, and only a very small proportion is exported

^{6/} D. Forde and R. Scott, Native Economies of Nigeria, page 137.

^{7/} Bulletin de la Banque Centrale du Congo Belge et du Ruanda-Urundi (Brussels), August 1952.

^{8/} The wages of completely urbanized workers should be excluded, but while the number of such workers is increasing in all territories, they form a relatively small proportion of the total in most cases. Since there is no satisfactory basis for estimating the numbers involved, it was considered expedient to make no deduction from total wages on this account.

from Kenya. The Belgian Congo, on the other hand, exports significant quantities of such produce. Thus in Northern and Southern Rhodesia and, to a lesser extent, in Kenya, the value of the marketed produce of the indigenous agricultural economies mainly represents sales within the territory.

For the territories for which national income estimates exist, table 12 compares the money income earned by indigenous economies with total national income generated in the exchange economy, that is, excluding the value of subsistence production. When available, estimates of the value of direct subsistence production have also been added, in order to indicate the relationship of subsistence production to production for exchange. The proportion which money income earned by the indigenous economy bears to total national income generated in the money economy is approximately 30 per cent in the case of the Belgian Congo and about 24 per cent for Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia. In the case of Kenya, comparison is limited to the share which money income earned by the indigenous economy has in the total geographical income generated in the economy, approximately 25 per cent.

Estimates of national income are not available for the five territories in the second group. Statistics of exports and estimated annual wage bills have been used to compute the estimates shown in table 13, which are roughly comparable with those for the first group. The table shows for each territory the f.o.b. value of exports of the products of the indigenous agricultural economy, and an estimate of the annual wage bill of Africans in employment in production outside the indigenous agricultural economy. The percentages express the relation which the value of exports bears to the sum of the receipts from exports and the total wage bill.

The following qualifications regarding the use of these figures should be noted. The total money income actually received within the indigenous agricultural economies from the sale of their products consists both of income from exports and of income from domestic sales, but estimates of the latter are not available. On the other hand, the income received from exports is reduced by payments for services, including processing, provided outside the indigenous agricultural economies in connexion with exports. If it is assumed that these two unknown amounts approximately offset one another, f.o.b. export receipts may

Table 12. Income Derived by Indigenous Agricultural Economies from Sale of Produce and from Wages, in Four Territories, 1950

(Values in local currencies)

Item	Belgian Congo (millions of BC francs) 1950	Kenya (millions of pounds sterling) 1950	N. Rhodesia (millions of pounds sterling) 1949	S. Rhodesia (millions of pounds sterling) 1950
Value of indigenous marketed produce.....	3,742.0	4.2	0.4	2.1
Wages earned by Africans.....	4,714.0	11.7	6.1	19.3 ^{a/}
Total.....	8,456.0	15.9	6.5	21.6
<u>Percentage of total:</u>				
Value of indigenous marketed produce.....	43	26	6	10
Wages earned by Africans....	57	74	94	90
Value of subsistence production	6,509	19	...	4
Geographical income.....	...	82.7
Total national income....	33,542 ^{b/}	92 ^{c/}
Geographical income generated in the exchange economy.....	...	63.7	39.0 ^{d/}	...
National income generated in the exchange economy...	27,033 ^{b/}	11.0	27.1 ^{c/}	88.0 ^{c/}

Source: Bulletin de la Banque Centrale du Congo Belge et du Ruanda-Urundi (Brussels) August 1952; Kenya, Estimate of Geographical Income and Net Output for the Years 1947, 1948, 1949 and 1951 (Nairobi); Central African Statistical Office, National Income and Social Accounts of Northern Rhodesia, 1945-1949 (Salisbury), 1950, and National Income and Social Accounts of Southern Rhodesia, 1946-1951 (Salisbury), May 1952.

^{a/} Including incomes of African employers and persons working on own account, estimated at £700,000.

^{b/} Gross national income.

^{c/} Net national income.

^{d/} Net geographical income.

be considered approximately equivalent to the total money income flowing into the indigenous agricultural economies from external and internal sales of produce. In Nigeria, where internal trade is relatively well developed, the total income of the indigenous agricultural economy may be underestimated; in Uganda and French Equatorial Africa, total income may be overstated.

Estimates of the total wage bill have been based on official estimates of the average number of Africans in employment and of maximum and minimum wage rates. In all cases, an average between the minimum and the maximum rate has been used, and where possible the appropriateness of this average has been tested by comparison with the total wage bill for particular groups of employees, for example in mining. In the case of Uganda, an estimate of the value of wages in kind has been included. Admittedly, the total wage bills thus derived are only approximate, and it is believed that in all cases they tend to overstate the wage income.^{9/}

From these figures shown in table 13, the proportion which income from exports bears to the total exceeds 80 per cent in all territories except French Equatorial Africa. Although the income estimates are incomplete, they give a sufficiently clear idea of the relative unimportance of wage earning outside the indigenous agricultural economies as a factor in their commercialization, except in French Equatorial Africa, which occupies a somewhat intermediate position between this group and the group of four territories shown in table 12.

Trends in Commercialization

It is evident that the two groups of territories represent differing trends in the process of commercialization of indigenous agricultural economies. The extremes are represented by Kenya, Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia on the one hand, and French West Africa, the Gold Coast and Nigeria on the other. The Belgian Congo and French Equatorial Africa are in between.

^{9/} Both because the figures for average wage rates may be high and because figures for fully urbanized workers are included in the totals. See footnote 8 in chapter 3.

Table 13. Export Receipts from Indigenous Agricultural and Pastoral Products, 1948-51, and Total Wage Bill, 1950, in Five Territories

(Values in local currencies)

Item	French Equatorial Africa (millions of CFA francs)	French West Africa (millions of CFA francs)	Gold Coast (millions of pounds sterling)	Nigeria (millions of pounds sterling)	Uganda (millions of pounds sterling)
Value of exports, 1948-51.....	3,889	20,708	48	72	25
Total wage bill, 1950.....	3,420	4,392	8	12	5
Total.....	7,309	25,100	56	84	30
Percentage of total:					
Value of exports.....	53	83	86	86	83
Total wage bill.....	47	17	14	14	17
Total number employed (thousands).....	190	244	184	258	171
Average daily wage rate.....	60 CFA francs	60 CFA francs	3 shillings	3 shillings	2 shillings

Source: See table 6 and appendix table IV.

In Kenya, Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia, the movement of labour from the indigenous agricultural economies has been increasing. This trend has been associated with little or no production for export within the indigenous agricultural economies, but there has been some development of production for a domestic market. The rate of decline in the relative importance of subsistence agricultural production as a consequence of these developments depends upon conditions which vary from territory to territory. In Southern Rhodesia, national income estimates show that in 1950 the total wage income of African employees was £19 million, while the total value of indigenous agricultural and pastoral production, including subsistence production, amounted to about £6 million. Allowing for the fact that about 50 per cent of African labour in employment in Southern Rhodesia is extra-territorial, the wage income of Africans of Southern Rhodesia exceeds the value of indigenous agricultural and pastoral production by about 50 per cent. Subsistence production, estimated at £4 million, was thus very much less than the total wage income of Africans of Southern Rhodesia. In Kenya, the estimated value of subsistence production in 1950 was £19 million, and the value of the produce marketed by the indigenous agricultural economy was £4.2 million. Wages earned by Africans outside the indigenous agricultural economy amounted to £11.7 million. Thus, the value of subsistence production in Kenya exceeded total income from the sale of produce of the indigenous agricultural economy plus the wages of labour. No estimates of subsistence production are available for Northern Rhodesia, but it may be surmised that in this respect Northern Rhodesia more nearly resembles Kenya than Southern Rhodesia.^{10/}

In each of these three territories non-indigenous settlers account for the major portion of the national income generated in the exchange economy. From the point of view of the commercialization of the indigenous agricultural economy the non-indigenous inhabitants influence both the demand for labour and the demand for the produce of the indigenous economies. The non-indigenous settlers are, however, also agricultural producers, and they contribute to the domestic supply of food and other commodities for which the wages of labour constitute part of demand.

^{10/} In National Income and Social Accounts of Northern Rhodesia, 1945 to 1949 (Salisbury) it is stated that, "while the total value of subsistence income has not been calculated, it is not likely to be less than £5 million in any of the years shown and probably approached £10 million in 1948 and 1949".

In the Belgian Congo, both wage employment and the marketing of the produce of the indigenous agricultural economy play an important part in the process of commercialization. This fact throws light on certain special problems of the territory, where the trends towards commercialization are in some respects competitive. Any significant expansion in the demand for labour may compete with the needs of commercialized production of the indigenous cultivators and may also have adverse effects on the output of the indigenous agricultural economy available for local consumption.

Chapter 4

EFFECTS OF CASH CROPPING AND WAGE EMPLOYMENT

Cash Cropping

The impact of commercialization on economic conditions in indigenous agricultural economies being brought within the scope of an exchange economy by the sale of their produce varies considerably from region to region according to the prevailing type of agriculture. An important distinction exists between the cultivation of annual crops and of perennial crops. Conditions of soil and climate largely determine areas of production for each of these types. Broadly speaking, cultivation of perennial crops in tropical Africa is confined to relatively small rain forest areas, while the extensive savannah regions produce annual crops. The difference in the physical and technical requirements of these crops also largely accounts for the difference in the manner in which production for market has been combined with subsistence production.

Where indigenous agriculture is based on annual crops, cash crops are generally grown in rotation with other annual crops. This is an essential condition for the maintenance of soil fertility. Although information is incomplete on systems of rotation practised in various parts of tropical Africa, rotation is appreciated and widely practised by indigenous farmers. It follows that the development of cash cropping is likely to have resulted in the extension of the area under food crops. Statistical estimates of area under major crops for a sufficient number of years to establish a long-term trend are available only in the case of Uganda. The development of production for market in this territory has largely taken the form of production for export of cotton which is an annual cash crop. According to the yearly reports of the Department of Agriculture in Uganda, the area under perennial crops (chiefly plantains) increased very little from 1919 to 1950, though the area under annual crops rose significantly during the same period. The increase in cotton acreage has been associated with a parallel rise in the area under food crops.

This correlation between the development of annual cash crops and of food crops is tacitly or explicitly recognized by government encouragement of certain annual cash crops. Examples of this are provided by cotton in French Equatorial

Africa and the Belgian Congo, and tobacco in Nyasaland. In French Equatorial Africa, cotton, which is grown in rotation with maize, ground-nuts, cassava and sesame, is cultivated under government control. "Cotton cultivation has, therefore, an interesting bearing on the food situation; the control of the rotation system assures the local administration that, on the basis of one-third under cotton, each cultivator will be supplied annually with 100 to 150 kilogrammes of ground-nuts or maize and two tons of root crops. Experience has shown that food deficiencies in the cotton growing areas are of little concern. In the districts of Carnot and Bonar, in Ubangi, the food situation, greatly deficient in 1940 and 1941, has to a large extent rapidly improved as a result of the introduction of cotton cultivation."^{1/} In respect of plans for the development of flue tobacco in Nyasaland, it is reported that "a very large area is available for the purpose. Tobacco will be grown in rotation with other crops, so that only a comparatively small part of the area will be under tobacco at one time".^{2/}

Although, as a general rule, annual cash crops are grown in rotation with other crops, there may be wide scope for choice, both in the crops to be grown and in the acreage under each crop. High prices for cash crops associated with a relatively plentiful supply of consumer goods may induce the indigenous farmer to devote more of his land and labour to the growing of cash crops at the expense of food, resulting in food deficiency from time to time. Thus, for example, in Tanganyika a recent shortage of ground-nuts was attributed to an increase in the areas under sunflowers, which were easier to grow and more highly priced.^{3/}

More important, however, is the fact that favourable market conditions, by increasing the tendency towards overcropping, may intensify the danger of soil deterioration. This creates more serious long-term problems. With expanding demand for the products of tropical African agriculture, the resting period of both arable and pastoral lands has been materially reduced in many cases, as, for

1/ Eugène Guernier, Encyclopédie Coloniale et Maritime: Afrique Equatoriale française (Paris, 1950).

2/ United Kingdom Colonial Office, The British Territories in East and Central Africa, 1945-1950 (London, June 1950), page 82.

3/ Tanganyika, Department of Agriculture, Annual Report, 1950, page 3. The report adds that the "tendency to swing from food crops to cash crops has to be continually watched, and sustained propaganda is necessary to prevent this swing from going too far" (page 4).

example, in cotton production in Uganda and Nigeria, and ground-nut production in British and French West Africa and elsewhere. In Uganda, "The demand for export crop production requires the opening up of more land, and further decreases the rest period. The pressure on the land is specially heavy in the case of cotton. Cotton leads to more erosion of the soil in Uganda than any other crop".^{4/} Similarly, it has been stated that in French West Africa, "intensive cultivation of ground-nuts, which are the mainstay of Senegal's economy, leaves a desert behind".^{5/}

It has been noted elsewhere that the cultivation of perennial crops is not necessarily associated with that of other crops. When market conditions are favourable, indigenous farmers tend to specialize in the production of cash crops and to rely partly or entirely on other areas for their food. The Gold Coast illustrates more strikingly than any other territory in the region the disassociation of subsistence food production from the production of cash crops, but such highly specialized cash cropping is the exception rather than the rule among indigenous cultivators in tropical Africa. By far the largest areas and the greatest number of indigenous cultivators of cash crops practise a system of farming in which food crops for subsistence are grown in rotation with cash crops. The effects of the wide and rapid fluctuations in prices to which primary products have been subject, are, therefore, mitigated for these cultivators by subsistence production, since such fluctuations may affect their standards of life without seriously endangering their livelihood.

Wage Employment

Although in Africa as a whole, the ratio of wage earners to the total population is small, it is increasing in all territories, and during the past fifteen to twenty years the number of Africans working for wages has increased more rapidly than the total population. In the Belgian Congo, Kenya, Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia and Tanganyika, wage earning is a more important factor

^{4/} J.D. Tothill, Agriculture in Uganda (London, 1940), page 80.

^{5/} Eugène Guernier, Encyclopédie Coloniale et Maritime: Afrique Occidentale française (Paris, 1949).

in the commercialization of the indigenous agricultural economies than is cash cropping, and in these territories the number of wage earners has increased since the mid-nineteen thirties much more rapidly than in territories in which the development of cash cropping has been more important. Thus, for example, from 1936 to 1950 the number of wage earners in the Belgian Congo increased from 491,000 to 962,000, in Kenya from 214,000 to 420,000, in Northern Rhodesia from 77,000 to 172,000, in Southern Rhodesia from 254,000 to 458,000, and in Tanganyika from 243,000 to 455,000.

The effects of this development of wage employment on the economic conditions of wage earners and indigenous agricultural communities may be very significant, but they do not lend themselves to statistical evaluation. As regards wage earners, a distinction should be made between continued wage earning as a main source of livelihood and intermittent wage earning associated with subsistence agriculture. There are no statistics on which to estimate the number of workers who may be in continuous employment. It is certain, however, that in all territories in tropical Africa there is a tendency for an increasing number of wage earners to depend on wage income as the chief means of livelihood. Nevertheless, permanent wage earners form a small part of the total labour force, and nowhere in tropical Africa have they reached the proportions to be found in the industrialized urban centres of the Union of South Africa. There are large numbers of permanent wage earners in the Belgian Congo, Kenya and Southern Rhodesia, where the establishment of secondary industries and the growth of modern towns, developed largely by non-indigenous settlers, has increased the demand for labour; and in west Africa, for example, in such towns as Accra, Kumasi, Takoradi, Lagos, Dakar, Conakry, and Freetown, which are important centres for export trade.

The vast majority of wage earners in tropical Africa, however, are migrants coming for short periods from predominantly subsistence agricultural communities, to which most of them return. This system of migrant labour implies that the wage earner is in need of cash income out of which to pay taxes and to provide a few amenities which add to his standard of living, but that his basic livelihood and that of his dependants is provided within the agricultural community from which he comes. Throughout eastern and central Africa it is common practice, frequently required in government regulations, for the employer to provide basic food rations,

and sometimes shelter, for unskilled African workers, so that during the wage earning period the migrant worker receives a food supply similar to that which he might have had in his own community. It is extremely difficult to evaluate the economic condition of these migrant workers in tropical Africa in relation to any previous period. Quite apart from the fact that statistical data regarding wages and prices of commodities commonly consumed are available in only fragmentary form, there is no satisfactory means of evaluating subsistence standards either within the indigenous agricultural economies or outside them. Certain qualitative statements which have a bearing on the problem may, however, be made.

In the first place, the situation is not static for, as indicated above, not only is the total number of wage earners increasing, but there is also a tendency among wage earners towards greater dependence upon wages for a livelihood. Wage earners in tropical Africa are in various stages of transition, between intermittent wage earning as an adjunct of subsistence agriculture and complete dependence on wages. It is not easy to say, therefore, exactly what part subsistence agriculture actually plays in the life of the wage earner. Where subsistence production is reasonably certain and adequate for the needs of his dependants, and also remains a real alternative form of livelihood to the worker, his basic livelihood is secure whatever may happen to the demand for his labour. However, the fact that dependence on wage earning is increasing may indicate that there is a tendency for per capita subsistence production to decline.

To a very large extent the wage structure of tropical Africa is based upon the system of migrant labour. Wage rates are low, largely because most workers continue to depend on subsistence agriculture and engage in wage earning employment only for brief and irregular periods, so that labour remains unskilled and relatively inefficient. There has been some increase in wage rates in all parts of tropical Africa in recent years, but on the whole these increases have merely kept pace with rising prices. The basic wage structure, though influenced by the demand for skilled labour in certain industrial and urban centres, has not changed fundamentally.

As indicated above, the demand for labour in tropical Africa is largely concentrated in certain territories, while the supply is recruited both from within those territories and from others. Large numbers of migrant workers come from territories which are unable to develop cash crops on a substantial scale because of their remoteness and lack of transport facilities, or else are unable to provide an adequate level of subsistence because of pressure of population and unfavourable physical conditions. Work for wages, therefore, may in some instances provide the only means of earning money within the framework of the indigenous agricultural economy, and it may not only raise the standard of living by increasing the range of articles of consumption, but may also help maintain a precarious subsistence standard. In many areas the number of wage earners rises in years of drought and poor harvests.

On the other hand, the migrant labour system may itself contribute to deterioration in the productive capacity of the areas from which the migrant labour comes. The absence of many male workers from the tribal areas for prolonged periods may result in inferior methods of agriculture, contributing to soil exhaustion. Production then tends to fall, and the pressure on the population to seek employment elsewhere increases the outflow of labour, which in its turn contributes to further deterioration in agricultural output. This aspect of the problem has long been a matter of serious concern in many parts of Africa. It is officially stated, for example, that in Nyasaland "the extent of seasonal migration has grown so large - absentees in 1948 were estimated to number 140,000 - that the Native Labour (Recruiting Permit) Rules had to be amended in 1948 to create a closed season for emigration between November and February, in order to ensure that due attention is given to the planting of crops both for food and for export".^{6/}

^{6/} United Kingdom Colonial Office, The British Territories in East and Central Africa, 1945-50, page 140.

Chapter 5

PROBLEMS OF FURTHER ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

It has been shown that a very large part of the total resources of land and labour in the indigenous agricultural economies of tropical Africa are engaged in production for subsistence. Although virtually all these economies are engaged in some form of cash activity, the flow of money income generated is small in relation to total resources engaged in economic production. Consequently, per capita money incomes are exceedingly low; and because cash earning activities tend to be widely spread, there are relatively few areas of concentration of high incomes. Thus, standards of living of the indigenous inhabitants of tropical Africa are almost everywhere very low. These standards can be raised only by an increase in per capita output, the achievement of which implies, among other things, a more effective use of resources. The degree of economic development which is possible within the framework of subsistence agriculture is severely limited. Further economic development, which aims at higher living standards, is possible only by first bringing within the scope of an exchange economy a large part of the resources of land and labour. In this regard one set of problems is posed by the need to develop incentives to produce for market by extending market facilities. Another set of problems arises from the fact that if considerably more of the resources of the indigenous agricultural economies are brought within the scope of an exchange economy, a decline in agricultural productivity may ensue unless techniques are improved. Maintenance of soil fertility and increasing productivity in agriculture, especially in respect of food crops, are basic to economic development throughout tropical Africa.

Transport Facilities

Lack of transport and related marketing facilities present the most obvious obstacle to increased participation of the indigenous agricultural economies in trade. A statement made in a recent official report concerning

Northern Rhodesia may be applied to a considerable part of tropical Africa: "At present the will of the cultivator to turn his hand to the production of cash crops is often influenced by his confidence, or lack of it, in his ability to market his produce. Existing communications are poor. Present marketing facilities are improvised and elementary, and consequently the primary producer of many areas has to take a risk of selling his surplus crops or of leaving them to rot uneaten. It is believed that there are many who in present circumstances are unwilling to take this risk".^{1/}

Historically, the development of modern transport, particularly railways, in tropical Africa has been associated chiefly with the export of minerals and certain agricultural products. In some cases, for example in east Africa, strategic and administrative considerations have also played a part. Although these transport developments have facilitated the growth of cash cropping by indigenous producers, they were not aimed primarily at the development of indigenous agricultural economies. They have required heavy capital investments from outside, which were made almost entirely on the prospects for export trade.

During the period of low world prices for primary produce in the nineteen thirties, relatively high transport costs in tropical Africa set rather narrow limits to the extension of cash crops by indigenous cultivators even within the general area of transport facilities. This fact in its turn tended to discourage any sizable further investments in transport. Since the Second World War, however, world prices have been favourable to the extension of the production area for certain export crops of indigenous agriculture, particularly ground-nuts and cotton. In many cases export crops have reached the limits of the capacity of existing transport systems. In Nigeria, for example, post-war export prices for ground-nuts have generally been sufficiently high to stimulate production for export in virtually all regions which are physically within reach of rail or river. Partly as a result of the fact that the upper reaches of the River Benue are not navigable for several months of the dry season, there have frequently been very large accumulations

^{1/} Northern Rhodesia Department of African Affairs, Annual Report for the year 1950 (Lusaka, 1951), page 48.

of stocks of ground-nuts at Kano and other centres. Similar transport problems exist in British east and central Africa. According to a recent official statement regarding the Rhodesian railways, "the capacity of the line was formerly well in advance of requirements, but traffic has expanded rapidly as a result of post-war development, and plans are being made to increase the carrying capacities of the railways".^{2/} In many cases transport and other freight handling facilities, such as ports, continue to be handicapped by the lack or the deferment of maintenance and renewal, largely as a result of the war; the situation has been aggravated by heavy traffic demands in recent years. One observer has stated that "some £40 million have been spent on east African transport since the war, and it is still difficult to detect any real improvement".^{3/}

All post-war development plans for tropical Africa have recognized the need for improving and extending transport facilities, and a large part of the total investment envisaged in these plans is to be devoted to this purpose. Thus, in the plans for French territories south of the Sahara, the proportion is about 60 per cent; in the Belgian Congo more than 50 per cent; and in the plans for the British territories as first announced, approximately 25 per cent.

A substantial part of this expenditure is intended to improve existing transport facilities rather than to open extensive new areas. Such improvement of existing facilities is necessary since most transport systems in tropical Africa are unable to handle effectively the volume of traffic offered. This is particularly the case, for example, in British central Africa where the expansion of mineral production for export is being hampered by long hauls and poor access to the sea, as well as by inadequate port facilities at Beira. At the beginning of 1952 congestion had grown so serious at Beira that there were twice as many ships in the port as could conveniently be handled. In spite of efforts to improve port facilities and operations, serious congestion has been frequent in many ports in the area. As a result, both exports and imports have often been inordinately delayed and freight rates to and from

^{2/} Central African Territories: Geographical, Historical and Economic Survey (London, 1951), Cmd 8234, page 33.

^{3/} H. Wynn Jones, "Inadequate Transport Plans for East Africa", New Commonwealth (London), 15 September 1952, page 258.

several ports have been subject to special surcharges to compensate for lost time.

Although the encouragement which has been given by high prices and government policy to cash cropping by indigenous cultivators has put a strain on existing transport facilities in almost all parts of tropical Africa, the improvement of these facilities may not of itself lead to any great extension of the commercialization of the indigenous agricultural economies, unless the facilities are also extended to reach new areas. The railway systems which were developed largely for the export of minerals and plantation crops did not necessarily traverse the most favourably endowed areas of indigenous cultivation. In recent years the development of highways as feeders to major railway and river systems has made possible a more intensive use of the existing transport systems by bringing new areas within their reach.

Highway development figures prominently in the plans of all governments in tropical Africa. As was stated in the Review of Economic Conditions in Africa,^{4/} "In all cases, the largest single item of expenditure under the heading of communications is for the construction of new roads and the improvement of old ones. In French West Africa, for example, it is proposed to develop 18,000 kilometres of new roads, and in French Equatorial Africa, where there are at present about 15,000 miles of dirt roads, mostly not usable in the rainy season, an extensive programme of reconstruction and surfacing to create all-weather roads is projected. In British Africa, expenditure on roads is a large proportion of the total anticipated expenditure for all territories with the exception of Zanzibar. In central and east Africa, plans provide for the construction of arterial roads in Kenya, Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland and Tanganyika".

In 1952 a group of British and American consultants undertook an exhaustive survey for the United Kingdom Secretary of State for the Colonies of the economic possibilities of a number of proposed railway routes and links between the east African and Rhodesian railway systems.^{5/} With regard

^{4/} United Nations publication, Sales No.: 1951 II. C.2, page 111.

^{5/} United Kingdom Colonial Office, Report on Central African Rail Link, Development Survey (London, 1952); also East African Railways and Harbours Administration, A Report on an Engineering Survey of a Rail Link between the East African and Rhodesian Railway Systems (Nairobi, 1952).

to the economic development of various areas to be served by the proposed railway lines, the report of these consultants stated that "with the exception of the south-west Tanganyika mineralized area, development must be based almost entirely on agriculture, and those responsible will be wise to consider whether some part of the funds which would be spent on rail construction, equipment and on bearing initial losses, could not better be devoted in the early phases of development to high-grade all-weather roads, to the promotion of agricultural development of various kinds and possibly, in the early stages, to the lowering of road freights by government assistance".^{6/}

Referring in particular to the proposed link between north and south, the report further stated "that it may well be that to-day the correct approach to the problem is to allow road transport to carry the burden hitherto borne by the low-cost rail line and to postpone rail construction until traffic has begun to build up to such a point that higher standards of rail construction are warranted and their sound economics is assured. A special advantage of road transport as against rail, particularly during the early phase of development, lies in its greater flexibility and in the fact that the roads themselves can be constructed and vehicles obtained more quickly".^{7/}

The engineering survey prepared by the East African Railways and Harbours Administration indicates the practicability of constructing railways over the various routes contemplated. However, since much of the main north-south link would pass through difficult terrain, the report estimated the cost of its construction at about £33 million on the basis of January 1952 prices.^{8/}

^{6/} United Kingdom Colonial Office, op.cit., page 53.

^{7/} Op.cit., page 33.

^{8/} East African Railways and Harbours Administration, op.cit., pages 12 and 91. Since the length of the north-south link is approximately 1,100 miles, this would indicate a cost per mile of about £30,000 (\$84,000 or \$52,000 per kilometre), which may be compared with an estimated average cost of about 3 million Belgian Congo francs (\$60,000) per kilometre for the construction of railways (1,067 metre gauge) in the Belgian Congo, according to calculations made for the ten-year development programme. These data illustrate the large investment required for substantial railway developments. The figures may also be compared with estimated average costs for the construction of roads in the Belgian Congo, ranging from approximately \$11,500 to \$50,000 per kilometre for low-cost, but good, stabilized gravel roads and high-cost concrete heavy traffic roads, respectively. The quoted estimates for the Belgian Congo would be increased by some 20 per cent to take into account price increases since their publication.

The limitations of road transport in tropical Africa should, however, not be overlooked. Most of the highway systems are not constructed to carry substantial or growing traffic, and only a small part of the existing highway system consists of all-weather roads usable all the year round. To the extent that the roads operate as feeders to main railway and **river** systems, they increase the strain on these systems and make improvement in them a necessary parallel development. In general, however, both the smaller investment required for construction of good low-cost roads and the fact that highway transport has been estimated to be more economical than rail transport for a traffic volume under 400,000 tons annually, would make road transport, apart from its function as feeder to existing main railways and river systems, more economical in meeting the development requirements - largely agricultural - of the area concerned.^{9/}

The further commercialization of the indigenous agricultural economies depends on the extension of transport and related marketing facilities to areas where at present they scarcely exist, as well as on improvement in existing facilities. The capital costs of such a development of transport are likely to be high, both in absolute terms and in relation to the national income of the territories. They are greatly beyond the local communities' present capacity to save. To the difficulties presented by topographical and climatic features must be added complications arising from the fact that large areas of tropical Africa are infested by tsetse fly and are in consequence very sparsely inhabited. The relative sparseness of the population is likely to result in a low density of traffic in relation to distances covered so that the high costs which have been a feature of existing transport in tropical Africa are likely to be experienced in any considerable extension of these systems to other areas. Moreover, in many areas most forms of mechanical transport would have to rely on imported fuel.

^{9/} Based on a comparison between railway and highway costs over a distance of 500 kilometres, using twenty-ton trucks, from calculations for the ten-year development programme in the Belgian Congo.

Agricultural Development

Although lack of transport facilities is a major obstacle to bringing within the scope of the exchange economy an increasing proportion of the resources of land and labour, there are also other problems to consider. There are certain limits to commercialization inherent in the farming practices prevalent throughout tropical Africa. While complete specialization, and consequently complete commercialization is possible in the cultivation of perennial crops, annual cash crops are grown in rotation with food crops which are to a large extent directly consumed. Wide extension of production for market appears impossible within the framework of prevailing indigenous farm practices.^{10/} These practices result in a low level of productivity, and the marketable surpluses that can be achieved are relatively insignificant. It is evident that an increase in marketable surplus is possible only if a substantial expansion in production is achieved.

Indigenous agriculture has thus reached a stage where improved methods of cultivation are necessary. Greatly increased production can be achieved only by the introduction of a more intensive system of cultivation, but in certain areas the maintenance of existing levels of production has already given rise to pressing problems.

There is substantial evidence to the effect that in many parts of tropical Africa productivity is declining, owing chiefly to soil deterioration and to animal and plant diseases. Soil deterioration consists of two closely interrelated dangers: soil exhaustion and soil erosion. Over-cropping is the most general factor responsible for soil exhaustion. Until recent times, shifting cultivation, which was widely practised by indigenous farmers, ensured the maintenance of soil fertility. During the past fifty years, however, the introduction of cash crops and increases in population have reduced the resting period for land, and have led to soil exhaustion. The problem of soil conservation is further complicated by soil erosion. The factors which are responsible for soil exhaustion have also accelerated soil erosion.

^{10/} "Considering the precarious working conditions of the African cultivator, he gets the optimum result from the application of his labour to the resources of land." (Eugène Guernier, Encyclopédie Coloniale et Maritime: Afrique Equatoriale française, page 299.)

Over-grazing, over-cutting of forests and defective farming techniques have all played an important part in this respect. Moreover, as indicated above, the absence of large numbers of migrant workers from their agricultural communities has had a deleterious effect on agricultural standards and on output in certain parts of Africa.

Large areas in tropical Africa are infested by tsetse fly. In Tanganyika and Northern Rhodesia more than one-half the total area is unsuitable for cattle. In the southern regions of the Gold Coast and Nigeria, and in large areas of the Belgian Congo and French equatorial Africa, tsetse fly is responsible for the absence or inadequacy of livestock raising. Mixed farming is impossible in those areas at present.

Plant diseases also constitute a threat to agriculture and have often caused heavy damage. For example, despite considerable planting, cocoa production in the Gold Coast has been lower since the war than in the immediate pre-war years owing to the ravages of swollen shoot disease.

Changes in prevailing farm practices which are necessary for further economic development in tropical Africa raise many technical problems covering a very wide range. Such changes include irrigation, soil erosion measures, wider use of fertilizers, mechanization, adaptation of land tenure systems to improved methods of cultivation and to cash cropping, further development of experimental stations, and rural education. Considerable progress has been made by all administrations in tropical Africa in the extension of these and other measures. A large proportion of the expenditure for development plans is devoted to agricultural progress. While a great deal of technical knowledge has been acquired in recent years as a result of all these efforts, many problems remain to be solved before fundamental changes of policy can be pursued with confidence. In this respect the work being undertaken on an inter-governmental level by the Commission for Technical Co-operation for Africa South of the Sahara should be of wide significance for future development.

Labour Supply

There are very definite limits to the extent to which migrant labour can be drawn from subsistence agricultural communities without profoundly disturbing the economic balance of their societies. The standard of

cultivation may be unfavourably affected by the absence of large numbers of male workers, and the result may be a decline in the output of basic foods. Where this tendency becomes marked, the annual outflow of labour tends to increase, leading to a further decline in output. It is evident that eventually a stage may be reached at which the system of migrant labour, based on the labourer's retaining his place in a subsistence agricultural community, may break down.

In many parts of tropical Africa the regular outflow of migrant labour has already produced serious effects on indigenous agricultural production. It is officially reported, for example, that "the Nyasaland Government continues to be concerned by the agricultural and social problems caused by migration of labour to neighbouring territories. In 1951 the quota of workers allowed to be recruited for work in the South African gold mines was reduced from 10,000 (the 1950 figure) to 8,000; a further reduction to 7,000 has been made for 1952. The recruitment of Africans from the southern provinces (where labour is particularly short) has been prohibited".^{11/} The nature of the general problem is also illustrated in the Belgian Congo, where government policy is aimed at maintaining a balance between the supply of labour within the indigenous agricultural economy and outside it. The increasing demand for labour in non-indigenous agriculture, mining and industry competes to some extent with the cultivation of cash crops by indigenous communities, and the supply of labour to non-indigenous enterprise tends to come largely from areas where subsistence agriculture predominates, so that ultimately these areas are threatened with a fall in production. Against this threat, various measures have been adopted, including restrictions on recruitment for employment, compulsory growing of food crops and improved methods of farming.

Thus within the prevailing systems of farming, basic food production may be threatened by the intensification of the demand for labour, which increases the flow of migrants seeking short-term employment. This problem is particularly urgent in territories in which wage employment outside the indigenous agricultural economies is the chief means of obtaining cash incomes. Where, as in Kenya and Ruanda-Urundi, for example, there is also

^{11/} The Colonial Territories, 1951-52 (London, May 1952) Cmd 8553, page 86.

pressure on land resources within the prevailing systems of farming, the need to improve standards of indigenous agriculture and bring it within the scope of the general economic development of the territory is most imperative. Sooner or later, economic development may everywhere reach a stage at which it will be evident that the supply of migrant labour based on subsistence agricultural communities cannot be increased or even maintained.

The degree of economic development which is possible within the system of migrant labour is limited also on other grounds. So long as the labour supply consists largely of unskilled workers who are also subsistence farmers, and the wage structure is based on this fact, both the incentives and the opportunities to enter into permanent employment and to acquire skills are limited. Production tends to be restricted to forms in which less efficient, unskilled labour can be most profitably employed. If economic development is to go beyond this stage, it is clear that a permanent and stable labour force, more productive and better paid, is necessary. There is an increasing trend in this direction, both as a result of action by employers, as in the case of the mining enterprises of the Belgian Congo and Northern Rhodesia, and through official policy, which includes such measures as wage regulation, encouragement of labour organization, and housing and welfare schemes for urban workers. In Kenya, Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia, the development of permanent wage earners among the indigenous inhabitants is complicated by the competition of non-indigenous settlers who monopolize many of the skilled occupations.

Capital Investment

The extension within the indigenous agricultural economies of tropical Africa of production for market, upon which their further economic development substantially depends, may require the investment of large amounts of capital. So far the indigenous agricultural economies have had little capital investment, and output for market has depended largely on existing transport facilities, established with outside capital for the development of certain resources for export. The indigenous agricultural economies are not likely to attract large amounts of private capital from outside, and private saving within the territories of tropical Africa is relatively small. Although the

volume of saving has increased during the past few years, this has been achieved largely through public institutions. A substantial part of such public saving has resulted from the policy of marketing boards in retaining a portion of export receipts to build up reserves for price stabilization and other purposes. Though the rise in world prices has enabled these boards to accumulate large sums, the amount available for investment is necessarily limited by the need for liquid assets which a policy of stabilization entails. The proportion of export receipts that can be retained by marketing boards also depends upon the effect on the incentive of producers. The extent to which resources can be diverted to investment through government policy, without adverse effects on output, may be very limited. In view of these considerations, it appears that reasonably rapid development depends both on government initiative and on outside capital.

The need for outside capital has received positive recognition in the financing of development plans in Africa. Thus, in the case of the British territories, according to estimates for plans approved to 31 March 1952, approximately 18 per cent of the capital cost would be provided by the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund, approximately 32 per cent by loans raised outside the territories and about 50 per cent from local sources. In the case of the French territories, the funds so far invested in the development plans have been provided almost entirely by the metropolitan Government. Similarly, the financing of the ten-year plan for the Belgian Congo depends on funds raised mainly in Belgium.

Considerable capital for development has also been provided through United States aid for specific projects. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development has recently made loans for development in the Belgian Congo, Ethiopia and Southern Rhodesia.

PART II

RECENT TRENDS IN TRADE, PRODUCTION AND ECONOMIC
DEVELOPMENT PLANS

Chapter 6

SUMMARY OF CHANGES

This part of the report presents a brief review of changes during 1951 in production and foreign trade in Africa as a whole^{1/} and of development plans in the Belgian, British and French dependent territories. In some cases the progress of foreign trade and of development plans is shown through the first half of 1952. A statistical appendix, bringing figures to the latest date available at the time of publication, is also provided.

The gaps in information on agricultural production emphasize the fact that official statistics in Africa cover mainly exchange activities within the economies. The level of exchange activities depends very largely on foreign trade, which was greater in value in 1951 than in 1950 in Africa as a whole, with regard both to imports and to exports. In general, unit export values were substantially higher in 1951, and though import values were also higher, the terms of trade were more favourable than in 1950. There was some gain in the volume of both imports and exports. With the increases in production, especially of minerals, and with the rise in investment in development plans, the general level of activities involved in exchange was in most territories somewhat higher in 1951 than in the previous year.

Although fluctuations in the production of subsistence crops profoundly affect the economic condition of the majority of the African population, statistics of the output of such crops are very incomplete and it is not possible, in this respect, to compare output in 1951 with 1950.

There appear to have been few significant changes in agricultural output in 1951 (appendix table I). Of the main export crops, production of cotton fibres in Africa as a whole was approximately 10 per cent less than in 1950. In the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, cotton output fell by about 42 per cent. Production of cocoa also declined, by approximately 14 per cent, chiefly as a

^{1/} For the purposes of this report, Africa is defined as the entire continental land area, except Egypt, together with outlying islands in the Indian and Atlantic Oceans, of which the chief are Madagascar, Réunion, Mauritius and Zanzibar.

result of a drop in the Gold Coast, from 266,000 metric tons in 1950 to 214,000 tons in 1951. Sisal and coffee output each increased approximately 13 per cent. A more striking increase in production is shown by rubber, which rose about 34 percent, largely as a result of increases in Liberia, the Belgian Congo and Nigeria. The expansion of the Nigerian output of rubber is especially noteworthy - from 6,800 metric tons in 1949 to 13,600 in 1950 and 21,600 in 1951.

Information regarding food crops is incomplete. The maize crop of the Union of South Africa, the largest producer, was only 1,717,000 tons in 1951 compared with 2,721,000 tons in 1950, and its wheat crop was also less, by about 3 per cent. In French North Africa, aggregate wheat and barley production was substantially the same in 1951 as in 1950, though in Algeria and Tunisia production of both crops declined.

Production of all minerals, with the exception of gold and silver, was higher in 1951 than in 1950 (appendix table II). Increases of more than 50 per cent were recorded for antimony (73 per cent), magnesite (65 per cent) and petroleum (95 per cent). The output of antimony rose from 10,700 metric tons in 1950 to 18,600 tons in 1951; this increase was largely accounted for by the Union of South Africa, which raised its output from 8,300 metric tons to 15,900 tons. Petroleum production, which is confined to Algeria and French Morocco, rose from 42,700 metric tons in 1950 to 83,300 tons in 1951.

Among the other minerals with large percentage increases in output are vanadium (34 per cent), lead (33 per cent), tungsten (22 per cent) and zinc (20 per cent). The rise in copper production, which was 10 per cent higher in 1951 than in 1950, was chiefly due to the two major producers, the Belgian Congo and Northern Rhodesia. Manganese production was up 13 per cent, from 837,000 to 948,000 tons, all producers except the Union of South Africa sharing in the increase. Iron ore production rose 11 per cent in the region as a whole, mainly as a result of increases in the output of French North Africa (particularly Algeria) and the Union of South Africa. In Africa as a whole, coal output, 95 per cent of which is accounted for by the Union of South Africa and Southern Rhodesia, increased by only one per cent.

Although no figures are published for uranium, the Belgian Congo is known to be an important producer. In the Union of South Africa, the first of several plants to be established for production of uranium from gold ore bodies was opened in October 1952; it has been officially stated that under the uranium production programme, the Union of South Africa may become one of the world's foremost producers.

The trade statistics of Africa for 1951 reflect the full impact on export earnings of the rise in prices of primary products following the outbreak of Korean hostilities. Exports in the region as a whole were one-third higher in value in 1951 than in 1950, though the increases were much greater in some territories than in others (appendix table III). Very large increases, ranging from 50 per cent to nearly 100 per cent, were experienced by the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Ethiopia, French Equatorial Africa, Togoland under French administration, Mauritius, Tanganyika and Uganda. On the other hand, ~~exports~~ exports of Algeria, Mozambique, Madagascar, Nyasaland and Southern Rhodesia increased very little, less than 20 per cent, while in Tunisia and French Somaliland there were decreases of about 10 per cent.

Imports of Africa as a whole rose in value by approximately 40 per cent in 1951, compared with 1950, though the increase was shared more evenly among the individual territories than in the case of exports. Increases ranging from 50 to 70 per cent were experienced by the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, the Cameroons under French administration, the Belgian Congo, Madagascar, Kenya and the Union of South Africa. Tunisia, French Somaliland, Mauritius and Tanganyika showed increases in imports of less than 20 per cent, while Nyasaland showed a small decline. The gains in import values are partly to be ascribed to price rises, but they also represent, for most territories, some increase in the volume of imports of both consumer and capital goods.

The general change in the trend of prices of primary products, which became evident in the second half of 1951 and manifested itself more strongly in 1952, affected many, though by no means all, of the products which are important in the exports of Africa. Cotton and sisal prices, which had risen very sharply in 1950/51, had passed the peak before mid-1951, and though in the second half

of 1951 they remained well above mid-1950 level, they fell further in 1952. Sisal prices dropped very sharply during the second and third quarters of 1952, to a point below their mid-1950 level. The prices of oleaginous products, which had risen less sharply than those of fibres, also fell in the second half of 1951 and the first half of 1952. On the other hand, cocoa and coffee prices, though fluctuating, on the whole maintained a high level and increased in the first half of 1952 compared with the latter part of 1951. Copper prices remained relatively stable throughout the 1951/52 period, at a level materially higher than in 1950.

Export values for the first half of 1952 do not noticeably reflect these price changes. The majority of the territories show very little change in total export values in the first six months of 1952 compared with the same period in 1951. Half the territories show decreases, but only in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Tunisia and Togoland under French ~~xxxx xxxxxx~~ administration were the reductions more than 15 per cent; increases of more than 15 per cent were experienced in Morocco, Sierre Leone, Gambia, Kenya, Tanganyika and Northern Rhodesia.

Prices of imports rose sharply after the outbreak of hostilities in Korea and continued upwards throughout 1951; though they weakened in the first half of 1952, they nevertheless remained substantially above 1950 levels. In the majority of territories, import values in the first six months of 1952 were more than 15 per cent higher than in the same period of 1951; only in Ethiopia, Madagascar, Mozambique, Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia and the Union of South Africa were the increases less than 15 per cent, while Tunisia and Gambia showed reductions. For most African territories, the terms of trade were in varying degrees less favourable in 1952 than in 1951.

During 1951 expenditures on development plans in the dependent territories were generally at a higher level than in 1950, partly as a result of higher prices and partly because of the increasing number of projects under way. In the case of France and the United Kingdom, the financial stringency brought about by balance of payments difficulties and increased defence expenditures have had adverse effects on the supply of capital which they can provide for overseas investment.

By September 1952, no loans had been made in Africa by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development additional to those reported in the Summary of Recent Economic Developments in Africa,^{2/} presented to the Economic and Social Council in 1952. In 1952, the Government of the United Kingdom and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development advanced towards an agreement under which British dependent territories would be able to participate in loans by the Bank.

^{2/} United Nations publications: Sales No.: 1952.11.C.2

^{2/} See appendix table III.

Chapter 7

FOREIGN TRADE

In Africa as a whole,^{1/} the over-all value of foreign trade was greater in 1951 than in 1950 by one-third, imports (valued in United States dollars) being higher by more than \$1,500 million, or 39 per cent, and exports by \$1,100 million, or 31 per cent.^{2/} The earlier fall in imports was sharply reversed in 1951, the proportionate values being 84.6 in 1950 and 117.5 in 1951, on the base of 1948-49 = 100. Indices of exports which, in terms of United States dollars, increased only slightly in 1950, to 106.0, rose in 1951 to 139.2.

For the area as a whole, the merchandise trade deficit increased from \$500 million in 1950 to \$960 million in 1951, though it was still substantially below the level of approximately \$1,400 million in each of the years 1947, 1948 and 1949. Significant increases in trade deficits in 1951, compared with 1950, were experienced by the Union of South Africa (\$238 million in 1950 to \$486 million in 1951), French North Africa (\$275 million to \$472 million), French tropical Africa (\$113 million to \$198 million) and Southern Rhodesia (\$64 million to \$136 million).

In most of the other areas of Africa the improvement in trade balances which occurred in 1950 continued in 1951. In British West Africa and in the Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi, export surpluses, which had increased appreciably in 1950 from low levels in 1949, reached new high levels in 1951. In the British dependent territories of east and central Africa, the aggregate balance of trade had turned from deficits in 1948 and 1949 to an export surplus of \$52 million in 1950, which was doubled in 1951. In the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan the export surplus of \$63 million in 1951 was three times as high as in 1949 and 1950. Ethiopia and the Portuguese territories experienced export surpluses in 1951 after having had adverse trade balances in all previous years since the war. On the whole, the trade of the British territories improved much more than that of the French, owing to the relatively greater

^{1/} Excluding Egypt; see footnote ^{1/} in chapter 6.

^{2/} See appendix table III.

increase in their exports. The aggregate surplus of exports over imports in the British territories^{3/} advanced from \$117 million in 1950 to \$155 million in 1951, while the aggregate trade deficit of the French territories deteriorated from \$417 million to \$742 million.

Exports

The increases in export values common to almost all countries in Africa were due less to gains in the volume of exports than to the rise in prices of primary products. The sharp upward movement in the prices of primary products following the outbreak of hostilities in Korea had largely spent its force by the middle of 1951 and since then many commodity prices have declined.

Territories in which minerals constitute a substantial proportion of total exports benefited from the high unit export values of minerals throughout 1951. Thus, in Northern Rhodesia, where exports are almost wholly comprised of minerals, mostly copper, the total value of exports in 1951 was 34 per cent higher than in 1950, though there was little increase in volume. Compared with the first half of 1951, export values in the second half of the year were 9 per cent higher, and in the first six months of 1952 were 26 per cent higher. In the Belgian Congo, official quantum and price indices of mineral exports shown on the base year 1948-49, advanced from 108.9 to 113.6 in quantum and from 116.3 to 138.3 in price. The notable increases in production and exports of copper, zinc and manganese were due to the development of installations, greater utilization of mechanical processes and additional availability of hydroelectric energy. The rate of increase in mineral exports was even greater in the first six months of 1952 than in the previous year, the quantum index reaching 123.3 in 1951 and 148.5 in the first six months of 1952. In French Morocco and Tunisia, where minerals comprise nearly one-third of total export values, rising prices, particularly for phosphates, and increased export volume, particularly of manganese, resulted in rising values of mineral exports in 1951 and through the first half of 1952. The preponderance of gold among mineral exports depressed

^{3/} Including Southern Rhodesia.

values in the other chief mineral exporters, the Union of South Africa and Southern Rhodesia, where minerals, including semi-processed gold, comprised about one-third of 1951 exports, and the Gold Coast, where the proportion was about one-fourth.

Of the African producers of vegetable products, those which show the largest increase in total exports in 1951 compared with 1950 are those for which cotton, sisal and sugar play a predominant part in exports. The Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Ethiopia, French Equatorial Africa, Mauritius, Tanganyika and Uganda each increased their exports by more than 50 per cent. Cotton and sisal prices, which rose very sharply, reached their peak during the first half of 1951 and declined during the second part of the year and the first half of 1952. The effects of these more recent price changes are not clearly reflected in the export values for the first half of 1952, owing to seasonal and other factors, although they may be expected to have an adverse effect on the export earnings of many territories.

African territories which showed the smallest increase in 1951 exports, less than 20 per cent above 1950 values, were French North Africa, where agricultural products consist mainly of fruit, vegetables and cereals, and Nyásaland and Southern Rhodesia, where the price for the main crop, tobacco, was lower than in 1950.^{4/}

Imports

Higher import values in 1951 were largely due to the rise in the price of semi-manufactured and finished products, but increased quantum also featured in the import trade of nearly every territory. Of the countries publishing quantum indices of trade, the following are representative of the territories which experienced the largest increases in imports, from 22 per cent to nearly 50 per cent higher than in 1950.

^{4/} Madagascar exports in 1951 also reveal a small increase, only 8 per cent higher than in 1950. But this was due to a decline of 20 per cent in the value of its main export, coffee, only 30,000 tons being exported, compared with 45,000 tons in 1950.

Quantum indices of imports

	<u>Base year</u>	<u>1950</u>	<u>1951</u>
Belgian Congo.....	1948-49	98	143
Cameroons, French administration...	1949	106	157
French Equatorial Africa.....	1949	107	133
French West Africa.....	1949	117	152
Madagascar.....	1949	122	182
Morocco.....	1949	107	131
Southern Rhodesia.....	1939	216	266

While the gains in the quantum of imports affected most classes of goods, no common pattern is evident. In the Union of Southern Africa, for example, there was a much more marked increase in the volume of imports of producers' supplies than of equipment or consumer goods. By mid-1950 the effect of a high level of industrial activity, combined with drastic import restrictions, had resulted in heavy depletion of stocks. The relaxation of import controls in the second half of 1950 selectively favoured producers' supplies, and industrial activity continued at a high level. In Southern Rhodesia, in particular, and also in some of the dependent territories of tropical Africa, increasing rates of investment in various development plans resulted in increased imports of capital equipment. In some territories, notably the Belgian Congo and British East Africa, there was a marked increase in imports of consumer goods, mainly textiles. Food imports rose considerably in French North Africa and in Northern and Southern Rhodesia.

Changes in Territorial and Regional Trade

The extent of increases in import and export values in certain territories and regional areas in Africa is set forth in table 14. The following percentage increases in export and import values are notable: the large increase in the over-all trade of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan and British East Africa and the relatively small gain in French North Africa; the relatively large rise in imports into the Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi, the Union of South Africa and French tropical Africa; and the relatively small gain in exports from British central Africa.

Table 14. Increases in Trade Values in 1951 compared with 1950
(Percentage change from 1950)

Territory	Over-all trade	Imports	Exports
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan.....	76	55	93
Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi.....	53	60	48 ^{a/}
Ethiopia.....	46	28	66
Union of South Africa.....	46	53	36
British Territories (including Southern Rhodesia).....	37	38	37
East Africa.....	53	46	59
West Africa.....	35	34	35
Mauritius.....	34	16	55
Central Africa (including Southern Rhodesia).....	31	39	22
Portuguese territories.....	32	27	38
French territories.....	30	37	20
Tropical Africa.....	40	45	33
Madagascar and Reunion.....	32	47	14
North Africa.....	26	33	16

Source: Detailed country totals are shown in appendix table IV; itemized principal import and export commodities, by countries, are given in appendix tables V and VI. Trade data are in United States dollars.

a/ The increase is overstated, since in 1950 the f.o.b. conventional values of exports were undervalued by some 15 per cent (Bulletin Mensuel d'Informations Générales et Revue des Marches de la Banque du Congo Belge, April 1952, page 180).

Anglo-Egyptian Sudan

The increase of about 93 per cent in the value of exports from the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan in 1951, compared with 1950, was greater than in any other territory in Africa. This was primarily due to high cotton prices but also to an increase in quantities exported. Raw cotton exports, comprising three-fourths of the country's total exports, rose by nearly 50 per cent, from 66,500 tons in 1950 to 97,500 tons in 1951. Exports of cotton-seed and gum arabic also increased, though to a lesser extent than cotton. While imports rose in value by 55 per cent, the quantum gain was only 13 per cent.

British East Africa

The most outstanding feature of the trade of the British east African territories in 1951 was the large increase in the value of both imports and exports compared with 1950. The second point of major interest was the change in the balance of trade, from a small favourable balance in 1950 to a surplus of £10.0 million in 1951. Imports increased by £32.8 million, or 46 per cent, compared with 1950, largely as a result of an increase in imports of cotton piece-goods. Imports of all textiles and clothing advanced from £15.3 million in 1950 to £27.4 million in 1951; imports of these goods from Japan alone increased by £4 million. In all three territories the increase in import values of textile piece-goods, and, to a lesser extent, of clothing, affected the percentage distribution of imports to the detriment, generally, of capital goods (see table 15).

Table 15. British East Africa: Distribution of Retained Import Values, by Principal Categories, 1950 and 1951

(Percentage of total)

Territory and year	Textiles	Clothing	Other consumer goods	Producers' materials	Capital goods
<u>Kenya:</u>					
1950	10	7	14	36	27
1951	16	8	12	39	24
<u>Tanganyika:</u>					
1950	19	4	12	32	33
1951	24	6	13	32	23
<u>Uganda:</u>					
1950	26	6	13	26	27
1951	27	7	13	32	20

Source: East Africa Statistical Department, East African Economic and Statistical Bulletin (Nairobi), June 1952.

While total exports,^{5/} inclusive of re-exports, increased by 59 per cent, domestic exports alone rose £41.7 million, or 61 per cent over the 1950 figures. As regards individual territories, the increases were 71 per cent in Tanganyika, 65 per cent in Uganda and 40 per cent in Kenya. Cotton, sisal and coffee together comprised 77 per cent of east African exports and account for most of this gain. Raw cotton exports, mainly from Uganda, increased by £14 million or 77 per cent in 1951, although the total quantity exported from east Africa was barely 2 per cent higher. The value of sisal fibre and tow nearly doubled, to £30.8 million in 1951, while the quantity exported, mainly from Tanganyika, increased only 17 per cent, by 26,000 tons.

^{5/} Excluding trade among the three territories.

Coffee exports increased in value by nearly £27 million, or 45 per cent, and in quantity by approximately 13,000 tons, or 23 per cent.

French North Africa

The comparatively slight increase in the trade of French North Africa in 1951 showed the effects of generally poor harvests in Algeria and Tunisia. However, while imports rose in value by 33 per cent, only a little less than the average for Africa as a whole, exports increased by only 16 per cent, compared with 32 per cent for Africa as a whole. On the basis of the more important food items reported in the customs statistics, the quantity of imports of food into Algeria and Tunisia was 30 per cent higher than in 1950. Moroccan imports of producers' supplies were 60 per cent higher in value than in 1950, compared with increases of about 30 per cent in import values of consumer goods and capital equipment.

Practically all exports (94 to 98 per cent) from the three countries consist of primary materials or foodstuffs. In all three, the proportion of primary materials increased in 1951 and food exports fell correspondingly (table 16). In Tunisia, food exports were only half the 1950 value.

Table 16. French North Africa: Distribution of Total Export
Values, by Principal Categories, 1949 to 1951
(Percentage of total)

Territory and year	Foodstuffs	Primary materials
<u>Algeria:</u>		
1949	78.5	15.6
1950	77	16
1951	67.5	26
<u>Morocco:</u>		
1949	57.8	38.3
1950	50	46
1951	42.6	53.2
<u>Tunisia:</u>		
1949	54.8	42.6
1950	66	31
1951	37.4	60.8

Source: Bulletin Economique et Social du Maroc, 1950, 1951 and 1952
(second quarter).

The relative gain in exports of primary materials was due very largely to increases in exports of minerals and also to significant increases in exports of alfalfa. Exports of alfalfa from Tunisia rose 17 per cent, by 24,000 tons and, together with phosphates, constituted more than a third of total Tunisian export values in 1951. In Algeria, alfalfa exports increased 27 per cent and became one of the more important commodity exports. Although alfalfa exports from Morocco were of relatively minor importance, they nevertheless increased by more than half, to 37,000 tons in 1951.

The most important single food item in each country's export trade in 1950 declined appreciably in 1951; Algerian wine by 18 per cent in volume and 10 per cent in unit value; preserved fish from Morocco by 31 per cent in volume, half offset by an increase in unit value; and Tunisian olive oil by 83 per cent in volume, also offset by a 15 per cent increase in unit value. Among the more notable declines in other food exports were in vegetables from all three territories; in citrus from Morocco and Tunisia, just about offset, however, by increased export from Algeria; and in cereals from Algeria and Tunisia. In 1949, cereals had ranked in all territories among the three most important commodity exports, constituting 15 per cent of total exports values for Morocco, 10 per cent for Tunisia and 7 per cent for Algeria. In 1950 the overall quantity of cereals exported was only about four-fifths of the 1949 exports; again, in 1951, exports dropped to 638,000 tons, only three-fourths the amount exported in the previous year; and in the first six months of 1952 only 273,000 tons were exported, considerably less than in the first half of each of the years 1950 and 1951.

From having been a net exporter of 93,000 tons of wheat in 1950 and 20,300 tons in the first half of 1951, French North Africa became a net importer of 131,700 tons in the second half of 1951 and of 112,800 tons in the first half of 1952. Production of wheat in this period increased by some 67,000 tons, compared with the 2,162,000 ton harvest in 1950, so that quantities available for local consumption rose appreciably, though some of the amount was accounted for by the gain of 32,500 tons in flour

exports. Combined Algerian and Tunisian production of other cereals than wheat fell in 1951 to 820,000 tons, a reduction of 30 per cent compared with 1950. Although the proportions of the respective harvests which were exported declined by only 6 per cent, the amount of the reduction was 181,000 tons, 40 per cent lower than 1950 exports. During the second half of 1951 and the first half of 1952, exports virtually stopped, and Tunisia actually imported 23,000 tons of barley during that period.

The 69,000 million franc increase in the trade deficit of French North Africa in 1951 was caused very largely by these fluctuations in imports and exports of food. In Morocco, where fluctuations in food products were not so marked, the trade deficit increased by about 46 per cent, whereas in Algeria and Tunisia the deficits doubled. Nearly half the 104,000 million franc increase in the over-all import value of the three territories was represented by consumer goods, both manufactured articles and food, which increased by 50,000 million metropolitan francs. At the same time, combined exports of foodstuffs from the three territories declined by 5 per cent in value, despite generally higher prices in the first half of the year.

Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi

The import trade of the Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi developed more in 1951 than that of any other territory in Africa, to a value of 5,800 million Belgian Congo francs, or 60 per cent higher than in 1950. Of this total increase, 3,600 million francs is accounted for by equipment and supplies for industrial and agricultural producers, and 2,200 million by consumer goods. In value terms, the increase in each of these two categories was approximately the same, about 60 per cent. However, in the case of equipment and supplies, the increase in total values was to a considerable extent the result of higher unit values for these goods, since the official quantum indices reveal increases in equipment of 36 per cent and in producer supplies of 24 per cent. Unit values of consumer goods, on the other hand, did not rise to the same extent, and the total increase in import values of these goods represents a considerable gain in quantum. Quantum indices of goods destined for indigenous consumption more than doubled and that of goods for European consumption increased by 50 per cent as the following quantum indices of imports (1948-49) = 100 indicate:

	Consumer goods destined principally to		Producers' supplies	Capital equipment
	Europeans	Indigenous economies		
1950 Full year ...	118.5	64.9	119.4	97.7
1951 Full year ...	177.6	133.2	148.4	132.9
1952 First half ..	185.9	143.1	194.8	178.8

Source: Section Statistique du Gouvernement Général, Bulletin de la Banque Centrale du Congo Belge et du Ruanda-Urundi, October 1951.

The rising trend of imports continued at about the same over-all rate through the first half of 1952, though producers' supplies and equipment rose much more than consumer goods.

Union of South Africa

Total imports into the Union of South Africa in 1951 amounted to £SA 516.9 million, ⁵³ per cent above the 1950 figure of £SA 337.6 million.^{6/} The principal factor in this increase was the restoration of stocks, which had become seriously depleted by the time import restrictions were relaxed in the second half of 1950.

Imports of capital equipment and producers' supplies increased by 61 per cent in value, and consumer goods by 49 per cent. The value of food imports did not increase at all, while imports of such items as clothing, motorcars, refrigerators, glassware, books, newsprint, radios, jewellery and fancy goods approximately doubled in value. Of capital equipment and producers' supplies, by far the largest relative gains in imports, more than 100 per cent, occurred in cotton and rayon piece-goods, metal bars and rods, unmanufactured rubber and wooden boxes. The largest rise in absolute value was in textiles and in metal products, which together accounted for more than 70 per cent of the total increase in the imports of the Union of South Africa (table 17).

^{6/} See appendix table IV.

Table 17. Union of South Africa: Increases from 1950
to 1951 in Imports of Consumer Goods and of
Capital Equipment and Producers' Supplies
(Millions of South African pounds)

Item	Consumer goods	Capital equipment and producers' supplies
<u>Total imports:</u> ^{a/}		
1950	51.8	235.3
1951	78.5	378.7
Total increase.....	26.7	143.4
<u>Increases from 1950 to 1951 by commodity classes:</u>		
Animal, agricultural and pastoral products.....	...	2.1
Food, beverages and tobacco.....	-	0.1
Textiles, apparel, yarns and fibres	6.9	57.1
Metals, metal manufactures, machinery and vehicles.....	4.3	53.4
Non-metal mineral products.....	1.3	0.7
Oils, waxes, resins and paints.....	...	7.7
Drugs, chemicals and fertilizers ..	1.2	3.4
Leather, rubber and products	0.2	6.8
Wood and products.....	0.1	5.9
Paper and products.....	6.3	6.1
Jewellery, etc.	3.0	...
Miscellaneous	3.4	0.1

Source: Union of South Africa, Department of Customs and Excise,
Monthly Abstract of Trade Statistics (Pretoria), December 1951.

^{a/} Values f.o.b.; excluding government stores.

French tropical Africa

Compared with 1950, imports into French tropical Africa in 1951 rose by 61,312 million metropolitan francs, or 45 per cent; the increases in the individual territories were 56 per cent in the Cameroons, 45 per cent in French West Africa, 44 per cent in Togoland and 36 per cent in French Equatorial Africa. There were exceptionally large importations from France into the Cameroons and French West Africa, 58 to 60 per cent higher in value than in 1950. Some of this increase marks an orientation towards securing capital equipment and supplies from the metropolitan Power rather than from the dollar area, for the over-all dollar deficit of these two territories was reduced from 9,400 million to 6,800 million metropolitan francs. At the same time, the deficit of the Cameroons in trade with France nearly doubled, to 9,500 million metropolitan francs in 1951, and that of French West Africa very nearly tripled, to 35,000 million francs.

In French Equatorial Africa, the Cameroons and French West Africa, for which official indices are published, the changes in the quantum of imports from 1950 through the first half of 1952 were as follows (1949 = 100):

	<u>French Equatorial Africa</u>	<u>Cameroons, French Administration</u>	<u>French West Africa</u>
1950 Full year	107	106	117
1951 First half	127	162	149
1951 Second half	138	152	155
1952 First half	135	155	...

Source: Statistical Office of the United Nations.

British Central Africa^{7/}

The relatively small increase in exports -- 22 per cent higher in 1951 than in 1950 -- from this area, compared with the rest of Africa, is accounted for by Southern Rhodesia and Nyasaland. The value of exports from Northern Rhodesia, mainly copper, was 34 per cent higher than in 1950, equal to the increase for Africa as a whole.

^{7/} Including Southern Rhodesia.

In Southern Rhodesia, 1951 exports were only 9 per cent higher than in 1950, owing to the poor tobacco crop and its fall in price; exports of tobacco were nearly 10,000 tons and £3.7 million under those of 1950. This depression in tobacco exports was offset to some extent by the continuing increase in exports of manufactured products which has been a notable feature of the post-war trade of Southern Rhodesia. The indices of total volume of exports show a decline in 1951 of 9 per cent from the 1950 peak as follows (quantum index, 1939 = 100):

1948	142
1949	146
1950	172
1951	157

Source: Central African Statistical Office, Economic and Statistical Bulletin of Southern Rhodesia, February 1952.

Nyasaland exported 1,400 more tons of tobacco than in 1950, but the value of total tobacco exports was £34,000 lower. This decline was offset by the continued recovery in agricultural production and higher prices for cotton, tea and soya beans, together with an export of maize (13,500 tons) for the first time since the 1949 drought, so that the territory's total exports in 1951 were 17 per cent higher than the 1950 value.

Direction of Trade

For most African territories, import restrictions were less severe in 1951 than for some years before. Although in the British territories it was not possible to relax control over imports from dollar sources, permits for importation of goods from other foreign countries were issued with progressively greater freedom during the year, culminating towards the end of the year in the extension of the open general licence system to all member countries of the Organization for European Economic Co-operation. This relaxation of control is reflected in the relative increase of imports from sources other than the metropolitan Powers.^{8/}

^{8/} See appendix table VII.

In the aggregate import trade of the three French North African territories, the share of France declined from 73 per cent in 1950 to 68 per cent in 1951. At the same time, imports from the rest of the French franc area and the sterling area remained relatively unchanged, while imports from dollar sources declined from 9.5 per cent to 7.8 per cent of the total. In French tropical Africa, the increase in the share of the metropolitan Power was more than offset by relative reductions in imports from dollar and sterling sources. Consequently, a phenomenon common to both north Africa and tropical Africa was the very large increase in imports from sources outside the French franc, dollar and sterling areas, particularly from southern Europe, western Germany, Belgium and the Netherlands and its overseas possessions. The aggregate imports of the French territories in 1951 from sources outside the franc, dollar and sterling areas more than doubled the 1950 value. This, together with the fact that aggregate exports to these other countries remained unchanged, caused a heavy decline in the trade balance with them, from a combined surplus of 26,800 million metropolitan francs in 1950 to a trade deficit of 13,500 million in 1951 (see table 18).

Table 18. Trade of French Territories
with Countries outside the French Franc,
Sterling and Dollar Areas, 1950 and 1951
(Millions of metropolitan francs)

Territory and year	Imports from other countries		Balance of trade with other countries
	Value	Percentage of total trade of territory	
<u>Algeria:</u>			
1950	9,066	6.0	4,212
1951	20,179	9.9	-5,374
<u>Morocco:</u>			
1950	14,142	12.3	8,732
1951	32,930	20.6	-8,890
<u>Tunisia:</u>			
1950	3,614	7.0	9,274
1951	6,270	10.5	2,591
<u>French West Africa:</u>			
1950	5,499	6.5	2,999
1951	8,119	6.6	-37
<u>Togoland, French administration:</u>			
1950	322	9.9	612
1951	668	14.3	294
<u>French Equatorial Africa:</u>			
1950	3,983	14.9	-1,740
1951	6,706	18.4	-4,158
<u>Cameroons, French administration:</u>			
1950	2,510	11.9	2,752
1951	4,218	12.8	2,111
<u>Total:</u>			
1950	39,136	8.6	26,841
1951	79,090	12.8	-13,463

Source: See appendix table VII.

This decline in the trade balance of French territories with other countries was offset to some extent by the appreciable sterling surplus, which increased from 14,700 million metropolitan francs in 1950 to 21,200 million, largely as a result of improved markets in the United Kingdom for Algerian, Tunisian and French Equatorial African products. Although the total dollar deficit for the year remained at approximately the 1950 level of 38,500 million metropolitan francs, the trend was downwards.^{9/} Increasing United States imports, particularly into Algeria and Morocco, combined with the effect of lower export prices in the second half of the year, checked the improvement in the dollar deficit which had occurred after 1949. During the first half of 1952, the combined dollar deficits of Algeria and Morocco reached 19,300 million metropolitan francs, including an adverse balance with the United States of 13,300 million, which was of the same order as for the whole of 1950.

In contrast with the French territories, there was an appreciable increase in the dollar surplus accruing to the British dependent territories in 1951. Comparatively stricter control over dollar imports, combined with increased United States purchases, particularly of Tanganyika sisal and west African cocoa, which more than offset the decline in United States purchases of Rhodesian copper and tobacco, resulted in an over-all increase in the dollar surplus with the United States, from £44 million in 1950 to £51 million in 1951.^{10/} Of the surplus, west Africa contributed by far the larger share, £40 million in 1951, but east Africa's dollar trade showed the greatest relative improvement, rising from a surplus of £3 million to £9 million.

The British territories, like the French, showed a proportional decline in the metropolitan Power's share in their imports^{11/} and an increasing deficit with non-sterling countries other than the dollar area. The figures in table 19, showing trade with non-sterling areas other than the United States, reveal that the over-all deficit with these non-sterling countries increased from £2.5 million in 1950 to £16 million in 1951.

^{9/} Trade with the United States is shown in appendix table VIII. Trade with the rest of the dollar area is insignificant, except in the cases of Algeria and Morocco, where it comprised about one-third of their total dollar trade.

^{10/} Trade of each territory with the United States is shown in appendix table VIII. As in the case of the French territories, trade with dollar countries other than the United States is very small.

^{11/} Trade with the United Kingdom is shown in appendix table VII.

Table 19. Trade of British Territories with Sterling and Non-Sterling Areas (excluding the United States), 1950 and 1951

(Millions of pounds sterling)

Area and item	Sterling area		Non-sterling area; exclusive of United States	
	1950	1951	1950	1951
<u>West Africa:</u> ^{a/}				
Imports	77.6	94.6	32.8	52.7
Exports	111.8	149.3	24.9	34.8
Balance	34.2	54.7	7.9	17.9
<u>East Africa:</u>				
Imports	54.7	65.9	15.0	34.6
Exports	48.0	66.9	17.4	34.4
Balance	-6.7	1.0	2.4	0.2
<u>Central Africa:</u> ^{b/}				
Imports	77.3	104.0	10.8	14.6
Exports	76.1	99.4	13.8	16.7
Balance	-1.2	-4.6	3.0	2.1
<u>Total:</u>				
Imports	209.6	264.5	58.6	101.9
Exports	235.9	315.6	56.1	85.9
Balance	26.3	51.1	-2.5	-16.0

Source: See appendix table VII

^{a/} Excluding Gambia. In the case of Sierre Leone, the sterling figures include only British Commonwealth sterling countries.

^{b/} Imports for Northern and Southern Rhodesia f.o.b.; sterling figures include only British Commonwealth sterling countries.

The relaxation of controls over imports from the members of the European Payments Union, and difficulties in obtaining deliveries of some materials from the United Kingdom, contributed towards the increasing flow of imports from non-sterling sources and towards the growing deficit with other than sterling and dollar countries. However, by far the most important single contributing factor was the marked revival of trade with western Germany, Italy and Japan (table 20). The two latter countries are negligible as markets for the produce of the British African territories and at the same time their supplies to the British territories, mainly of textiles and metal goods, doubled in value compared with 1950. Western Germany, on the other hand, doubled the value of its purchases from British African territories in 1951 compared with 1950, increases being particularly notable in Uganda cotton, Nigerian cocoa and rubber and Southern Rhodesian hides. Despite this increase in export trade with western Germany, the favourable balance declined, owing to a threefold increase in imports of German goods. The British territories were, therefore, in over-all deficit with the three former Axis countries to the amount of £20.6 million in 1951, compared with £3.8 million in 1950.

Table 20. Trade of British Territories with Germany,
Italy and Japan, 1950 and 1951
(Thousands of pounds sterling)

Territory and year	Germany		Italy and Japan	
	Imports	Trade balance	Imports	Trade balance
<u>Gold Coast:</u>				
1950	1,175	4,332	3,150	-3,126
1951	4,724	2,508	5,472	-5,304
<u>Kenya:</u>				
1950	421	1,324	945	-611
1951	2,205	100	4,930	-4,118
<u>Nigeria:</u>				
1950	1,422	-303	7,078	-6,941
1951	4,493	-1,296	11,339	-11,126
<u>Northern Rhodesia:</u> ^{a/}				
1950	102	2,168	280	-163
1951	465	2,338	1,029	-932
<u>Nyasaland:</u>				
1950	85	-85	425	-425
1951	192	-192	739	-739
<u>Sierra Leone:</u>				
1950	78	191	190	-177
1951	143	241	406	-406
<u>Southern Rhodesia:</u> ^{a/}				
1950	335	199	685	-422
1951	859	341	1,949	-1,572
<u>Tanganyika:</u>				
1950	279	1,252	1,749	-587
1951	819	715	3,875	-3,539
<u>Uganda:</u>				
1950	260	411	1,937	-817
1951	965	4,152	3,464	-1,819
<u>Total:</u>				
1950	4,157	9,489	16,439	-13,269
1951	12,865	8,907	33,203	-29,555

Source: See appendix table VII.

^{a/} Imports f.o.b.

The increasing deficit with non-sterling countries, other than the dollar countries, was a feature common to the 1951 trade of most British dependent territories and one which contributed to the crisis manifested in the reserves of the sterling area towards the end of the year. After the meeting of Commonwealth Finance Ministers in January 1952, action was taken to re-introduce specific licensing of many items previously on open general licence, in an endeavour to restrict imports from the non-sterling area to below the 1951 level. The fall in many export prices and the continuing high prices of imports added, however, to the difficulty of reducing the trade deficit.

In 1951, the Union of South Africa likewise increased its trade **deficit** with non-sterling countries. This country, like Southern Rhodesia, is normally in dollar deficit, but in 1951 the deficit with the dollar area doubled as compared with the previous year. Imports from the United States alone reached £91 million,^{12/} higher by £10 million than in 1949, and though as a proportion of total imports this was lower than in pre-devaluation years, it represented an increase, from 16 per cent in 1950 to 19.4 per cent in 1951. An even greater proportional increase, from 5.3 per cent to 9.4 per cent, occurred in imports from Belgium, Germany and Italy. With these three countries alone, the trade balance of the Union of South Africa declined from a surplus of £12 million in 1950 to a deficit of equivalent amount in 1951. The increased flow of imports, from these four non-sterling sources in particular, was largely at the expense of the share of the United Kingdom in the import trade of the Union of South Africa; this declined from 41.1 per cent of the total in 1950 to 35.4 per cent in 1951. Within the African continent itself, on the other hand, the net orientation of the trade of the Union of South Africa was towards the British territories and away from the non-sterling territories; the value of imports from British West Africa more than tripled and, for the first time since the war, it imported more from Northern Rhodesia and from Southern Rhodesia than from the Belgian Congo.^{13/}

^{12/} See appendix table VIII.

^{13/} See appendix table IX for details of the imports of the Union of South Africa from other territories in Africa and of its exports to these territories.

All imports of the Union of South Africa from non-sterling sources increased from 1950 to 1951 by £103 million, and from sterling sources by only £58 million. The deficit with the non-sterling area, which had accounted for only about one-fifth of the total deficit in 1950, reached a proportion of nearly three-fifths in 1951. The following table shows the direction of the trade of the Union of South Africa, with import and export values corrected in order to take account of the territory of South West Africa and to make various other adjustments for balance of payments purposes (in millions of South African pounds):^{14/}

	<u>Imports</u>	<u>Exports</u> ^{a/}	<u>Balance</u>
<u>Sterling area:</u>			
1950	159	97	- 62
1951	218	136	- 82
<u>Dollar area:</u>			
1950	77	38	- 39
1951	130	51	- 79
<u>Other non-sterling countries:</u>			
1950	69	71	2
1951	119	89	- 30
<u>Total:</u>			
1950	305	209	- 96
1951	467	276	-191

Source: See appendix table X.

a/ Excluding gold bullion and gold products.

Thus, the trade deficit of the Union of South Africa with the outside world (excluding gold bullion and products), which had declined from about £174 million in 1949 to about £96 million in 1950, increased again, to £191 million in 1951. Adding the country's deficit on invisible current account and deducting the net inflow of private capital,^{15/} the total deficit with the outside world (excluding gold) which had dropped from £180 million in 1949 to £93 million in 1950, increased again, to £192 million in 1951. Although the 1951 deficit on current and private

^{14/} Appendix table X gives the balance of payments on current and capital account of the Union of South Africa for the years 1949, 1950 and 1951.

^{15/} See appendix table XI. Private (other than banking institutions) capital inflow is there grouped among transactions on current account, because no separate allocation to currency areas is available for 1949.

capital account thus reverted to about the same absolute level as in 1949, the point of major interest lies in the change of direction of these international transactions. The proportion of the deficit each year with each of the currency areas is shown in the following figures of net deficit on current and private capital account:

	<u>1949</u>	<u>1950</u>	<u>1951</u>
Amount (millions of pounds sterling)	180	93	192
<u>Percentage of total:</u>			
Sterling area	38.9	38.7	28.1
Dollar area	58.3	43.0	50.0
Other non-sterling countries....	2.8	18.3	21.9

Chapter 8

PROGRESS OF DEVELOPMENT PLANS

During 1951, public expenditure on development increased in most African territories, though the increases were partly the result of the rise in prices. Long-range development plans in most of the dependent territories reached a higher tempo of implementation as more projects were begun and some of the previous shortages of personnel and equipment were, at least partially, overcome. Nevertheless, as a result of the slow start and the revisions which have proved necessary, implementation has not been as rapid as anticipated.

Although physical problems of supply, which had delayed work on development plans in previous years, had been partly overcome by 1950, they have not yet been entirely solved. While equipment and materials were generally in better supply by the end of 1950, relative shortages of manpower in many parts of Africa south of the Sahara became more acute in 1951 and 1952 as work on the plans increased. In the Belgian Congo, labour shortage is a major reason for the relatively slow rate of progress, for although between the end of 1949 and the end of 1950, the total labour force increased by some 15 per cent, from about 893,000 to just over a million, the demand for labour in the private sector remained high. The 1951 revision of the plan for Northern Rhodesia also pointed to the increasing shortage of semi-skilled and unskilled African labour as materially affecting the rate of execution of the plan. Similarly, in the Gold Coast it is recognized that lack of manpower may seriously hamper the realization of the programme laid down in 1951.^{1/}

While the rise in prices has resulted in higher costs than were expected, it has, on the other hand, led to an increase in export receipts of most African territories, and budget revenues were notably higher in 1951 than in 1950. Many of the territories have thus been able to supply from local sources larger sums for

^{1/} The relative shortage of wage labour in Africa is related to the conditions of economic organization described in part I of this report. The migrant labour system implies considerable mobility of labour in a certain sense. This mobility, however, is an aspect of the -- partially -- subsistence agricultural economies from which the migrant workers originate. A rapid expansion in the supply of wage labour is not possible without a profound disruption of the existing social organization. This applies to all types of labour, both skilled and unskilled. A rapid increase in the supply of skilled labour faces the additional difficulty of training.

development than were estimated. In the Gold Coast, for example, a large part of the revised plans is to be financed by an increased export tax on cocoa. Similar increases in export taxes have been adopted by many other territories.

The utilization of local resources for development is the more important in view of the fact that in France and the United Kingdom, in particular, balance of payments difficulties experienced in 1951 and 1952 and measures taken to deal with them have adversely affected the supply of capital available for overseas investment. In the case of the United Kingdom it was stated that "the economic stringency in the United Kingdom has made it all the more important that colonial governments should utilize their own resources to the maximum. The higher level of prices paid in the past two years for certain raw materials and foodstuffs has improved the financial position of the producing territories at the same time as it has worsened that of the United Kingdom. With this in mind, a number of colonial governments raised their levels of Taxation".^{2/} The revised plans for the British territories provide for approximately 50 per cent of the total estimated expenditure to be met from local funds, as against one-third in the original plans. In June 1951 a conference of colonial government officials was held in London to examine development finance. All aspects of the problem were covered, including the utilization of local resources by loans and taxation, and possible arrangements whereby the governments of the dependent territories might be enabled to borrow from the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. In December 1952 the Colonial Loans Act of 1949 was amended to enable the Government of the United Kingdom to guarantee cash borrowings up to £100 million, with provision for guaranteed loans to be made to governments of territories with advanced constitutions and to such bodies as the East Africa High Commission. The Bank sent missions to British east and central Africa in the latter part of 1952.

As regards France, the situation was summed up in an official statement, according to which "the programme of investment for 1951 was prepared in economic and financial circumstances which differ considerably from those of previous years. Budgetary difficulties increased both on account of the diminution of American aid, of which the counterpart funds were the principal source of income of the

^{2/} The Colonial Territories, 1951-1952 Cmd 8553 (London), page 68.

Modernisation and Equipment Fund between 1948 and 1950, and on account of the increase in defence expenditures."^{3/}

A very large proportion of the expenditure on development plans in the French territories has been furnished by the metropolitan country, and counterpart funds of United States aid made up approximately 20 per cent of the credits so provided to French territories in Africa between 1948 and 1951.

Belgian Congo

The budgets of 1948 and 1949 had provided, respectively, 45 million and 3,900 million Belgian Congo francs for certain works which were part of the ten-year plan (appendix table XII). However, the first regular budgetary provisions for the realization of the ten-year development plan for the Belgian Congo were made in 1950, when extraordinary credits of 6,800 million francs were voted for expenditure on the plan during the three years, 1950 to 1952. In 1951, additional credits were voted, amounting to 1,726 million francs, of which 349 million were for the year 1951 and the balance for 1952. The estimates for 1952 provided for further credits of 2,780 million francs. Thus total credits of 11,589 million francs have been included in the extraordinary budgets for expenditures on the development plan to the end of 1952.

Additional to projects of the ten-year development plan provided for in the extraordinary budget, are the investments in public and semi-public bodies, of which the Colonial Transport Office (OTRACO) and the Water and Electricity Authority (REGIDESO) are the most important. By the end of 1952, total credits of 11,188 million Belgian Congo francs had been allotted to these and other semi-public bodies -- 9,290 million to OTRACO alone. More than half of the total credits allotted to these developments relate to the years 1951 and 1952.

The actual rate of execution of the plan has fallen substantially below the credits allotted. Credits actually committed by the end of 1951 amounted to 3,711 million Belgian Congo francs in the extraordinary budget and 4,535 million francs for projects of semi-public authorities (appendix table XIII). Since no more than 827 million francs had been authorized in the extraordinary budget for expenditure on specific projects by the end of 1950, there was a very great increase in the expenditures authorized for 1951. In the case of the semi-public

^{3/} Commissariat général du plan de modernisation et d'équipement, Cinq ans d'exécution du plan de modernisation et d'équipement de l'Union française (Paris, 1952), page 11.

authorities, authorized expenditures have more nearly kept pace with the credits allotted. Credits actually used amounted to 1,667 million francs to the end of 1951 in the extraordinary budgets and to 3,023 million francs in respect of the semi-public authorities.

The rate of progress in the realization of the ten-year plan cannot be estimated by comparing these figures of credits and expenditures with the original estimates of cost because of the rise in prices and also because of the addition of certain projects not in the original plan. It has been officially estimated that the projects, which in the original plan were expected to cost about 25,000 million francs, would at 1952 prices cost some 40,000 million.

Thus, although much more was achieved in 1951 than in 1950 in the execution of the development plan, the material rate of progress has been significantly slower than was originally anticipated. The reasons for the relatively slow progress are clearly not financial. According to an official statement, the chief reason was the difficulty of securing an adequate supply of labour, both skilled and unskilled.

The credits in the extraordinary budget for the development plan in 1952 were approximately 2,780 million Belgian Congo francs, of which 2,393 million represented the balance of the three-year credits voted in 1950. The 1952 budgets of the semi-public authorities, mainly OTRACO, carried credits of 4,617 million francs for development, an amount which is nearly as large as the total credits of these semi-public authorities for the three previous years.

British Territories

The ten-year development plans of the British territories were originally formulated in 1946 and 1947 and are administered by each territory individually. Although similar in scope and character to one another, they do not follow a uniform pattern. In some cases, as for example in Uganda, they have been very closely integrated into the regular budget of the territory. The plans were drawn up, also, in light of the fact that many development projects of a public or semi-public character would be undertaken outside the ten-year plans. Most of the plans have been revised several times, in some cases quite substantially. In these circumstances no over-all estimate of investment in the development plans of the British territories is possible, as it is for the French and Belgian territories.

The Government of the United Kingdom reported that during the year 1951/52 expenditure on development in its dependent territories increased considerably in money and to a lesser extent in real terms compared with previous years.^{4/} This statement covers British dependent territories in Africa and elsewhere; it reflects, however, the situation in most African territories. Thus, for example, in Northern Rhodesia expenditures on the development plan increased from £2.5 million in 1949 to £3.6 million in 1950 and £4.6 million in 1951; in Tanganyika expenditures on the development plan, which were £1.7 million in 1949 rose to £5.2 million in 1951; in Nigeria development expenditure increased from £4.8 million in 1949/50 to £5.3 million in 1950/51; and in the Gold Coast development expenditure, which was £3.8 million in the 1950/51 budget, is estimated at £8.8 million for 1951/52. In Kenya, on the other hand, development expenditures were approximately the same amount, namely, a little more than £4 million, in each of the years 1949, 1950 and 1951.

Revisions of plans in British territories cover both changes in certain of the projects in the light of new conditions and the adjustment of original estimates of costs to subsequent price changes. Some of the reasons for these revisions were summarized when the ten-year plan for Northern Rhodesia was revised in 1951: first, the need to compare the scope of the plan as originally drafted with present day needs and costs, to ascertain what projects had become unimportant or less urgent and what new ones were now essential; second, the need to consider the rate at which funds could be available; third, the need to re-assess recurrent expenditure commitments arising out of the plan in relation to normal budgetary resources.^{5/}

Some of the revisions have been substantial. In Northern Rhodesia, the 1951 revision increased the total estimated cost of the ten-year plan (1947 to 1956) from £17 million in the original estimates to £36 million. This new estimate covers both the revised cost of previous projects and some new schemes.

^{4/} The Colonial Territories, 1951-1952 Cmd 8553, page 68.

^{5/} Northern Rhodesia, Second (1951) Review of the Ten-Year Development Plan of Northern Rhodesia (Lusaka), page 3.

In Tanganyika, the original estimates for the ten-year development plan were for an expenditure of approximately £18 million, and in 1951 a revised estimate anticipated that an expenditure of £36 million would be called for in the period 1950 to 1956. Similarly, in Nyasaland in 1951 the estimated cost of the plan was increased to £12 million from the original estimate of £8 million. In Kenya, the original estimates of £21 million for the development plan were revised in 1951 to £35 million. Very extensive revisions, virtually amounting to a new plan, have been made in the Gold Coast during 1951. The plan as revised is estimated to require an expenditure of £75 million in the ten years ending 1960. This expenditure does not include the Volta River project, involving an investment of £100 million from public and private sources. About 35 per cent of the expenditure on the revised plan is to be devoted to transport and communications, about 33 per cent to social services and most of the remainder to agriculture and industry. In August 1951 the Legislative Assembly of the Gold Coast established a development fund through which the development plan will be financed (appendix table XV).

Southern Rhodesia embarked on a four-year development plan in 1949, the plan being subject to review after two years. In 1952 the first plan was revised and extended for a further four-year period. The original plan envisaged an expenditure of £48 million between 1 April 1949 and 31 March 1953. By 31 March 1951, actual expenditure was just over £26 million. The revised plan anticipated an expenditure of £61 million over the subsequent four years.

The revised four-year plan is being financed largely by loans, of which it was anticipated that £22 million would be raised locally, £22.5 million in London, and £10 million from the loan made by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development in February 1952.

In addition, there are three major projects not included within the scope of the plan: first, the Kariba Gorge project, at an estimated cost of £74 million, for the development of a hydroelectric plant with an ultimate capacity of a million kilowatts; second, the extension of the QueQue steel plant, at an estimated cost of £13 million, to increase its capacity to some 150,000 tons annually; and third, the establishment of an industry to extract oil from coal, study of which is not yet complete.

French North Africa

Total public investment in development plans in French North Africa increased from 92,000 million metropolitan francs in 1949 to 135,000 million francs in 1951, compared with 121,200 million in 1950; the estimated expenditure for 1952 is 147,000 million francs (appendix table XVI).

From 1946 to the end of 1948, a large part of public investment in French North Africa was devoted to repair of war damage. In 1949 the four-year investment plans for integrated development, to raise economic and social standards of the territories as a whole, came into operation.

The rate of progress in reaching the targets set for the four-year period has varied. While the general objectives have been reached or even surpassed in the production of electric power, petroleum and other minerals, achievement in the field of agricultural development has been less notable.

Progress has been made in all three territories in the expansion of capacity for electric power production. Thus, from 1948 to the end of 1951, production increased from 455,000 to 672,000 kilowatt-hours in Algeria, from 377,000 to 625,000 kilowatt-hours in Morocco, and from 127,000 to 160,000 kilowatt-hours in Tunisia, increases which correspond in general to the rise in hydroelectric power production. Petroleum output, which at present is confined to Algeria and Morocco, has increased from 13,000 tons in 1948 to approximately 83,000 tons in 1951. In Algeria, petroleum production rose from 130 tons in 1949 to 7,200 tons in 1951. Output of coal in Morocco has also been greatly expanded, from 290,000 tons in 1948 to 395,000 in 1951. Lead output rose from 53,000 tons in 1949 to 92,000 tons in 1951, and zinc from 13,000 tons to 32,000 tons.

Phosphate production in 1951, at 7,062,000 tons, was already in excess of the objective of 6.8 million tons set for 1952. Similarly, the output of manganese reached 334,000 tons in 1951 as against a target of 300,000 set for 1952, mainly as a result of development in Morocco.

On the other hand, in the fields of agriculture, animal husbandry and water resources, progress under the development plans has been much less satisfactory in all three territories. According to an official statement, insufficiency of credits provided for agricultural development in local budgets has been largely responsible for this comparatively slow rate of development. In Algeria, lack

of funds led to the interruption in November 1951 of certain rural betterment schemes. Another aspect of the relatively slow progress of development in agriculture is seen in the low level of imports of agricultural machinery. The experience with development plans in French North Africa suggests that some readjustment of priorities in investment, giving greater importance to agriculture, may be desirable.^{6/}

As regards transport developments, certain highway construction projects have been abandoned. On the other hand, part of the railway network has been electrified, and a great deal of progress has been made in the modernization of installations and rolling stock. Progress has also been made in port improvements.

The development plans of French North Africa are financed both through the territorial budgets and through extra-budgetary allocation (appendix table XVII). In either case the funds are derived from sums made available in metropolitan France through the Modernization and Equipment Fund, and from local resources of the territories. By the end of 1951, total investment in development plans had amounted to 348,000 million francs, of which 135,000 million, or approximately 39 per cent, was provided by the Modernization and Equipment Fund.

French Territories South of the Sahara

The development plans for the French territories south of the Sahara came into operation in 1947. During the first three years, however, shortages of material and personnel, as well as delays experienced in preparing projects for execution, resulted in a slow tempo of investment expenditure. It was not until 1950 that many of these difficulties were substantially overcome and the rate of investment approached the level anticipated when the plans were first formulated. By the end of June 1952, development projects amounting to 237,000 million metropolitan francs had been authorized for execution. Actual expenditures were, however, at a much slower rate. Anticipated outlays to the end of June 1952 amounted to 179,000 million francs, while disbursements actually amounted to 135,000 million francs (appendix table XVIII). The actual amounts invested lie somewhere between the figure for anticipated expenditure and the figure for disbursements. The increasing rate of investment in the plans is shown by the fact that of the 135,000 million francs expended from the inception of the plans

^{6/} See page 138 of draft.

to the end of June 1952, approximately 89,000 million francs, or about 65 per cent, was paid between June 1950 and June 1952. In 1951 and the first half of 1952, the rate of investment was notably higher than in 1950.

To some extent the higher levels of expenditure in 1950, 1951 and 1952, compared with the previous years, are explained by the rise in prices and also by the greater number of projects undertaken. Nevertheless, as a result of delays experienced in the early phase, as well as difficulties subsequently encountered, the execution of the plans has fallen well behind the objectives originally set. Development of transport and communication was by far the largest single item in the original plans, and about 60 per cent of the investment so far made has been in this field, a large part of it for the development of highways. Even so, road construction and transport development have generally fallen short of targets. This is partly due to the fact that preliminary plans for certain projects were found to be in need of considerable modification in the light of subsequent technical studies.

Increases in production, which the plans anticipated, have also fallen short of objectives. This is officially stated to be due chiefly to the fact that the introduction of improved farming techniques has been more difficult than was anticipated. Investments of private capital have also been smaller than had been expected and, in consequence, the burden of development, in so far as capital investment is concerned, has fallen largely on the public sector. As a result, there has been a shift in emphasis in the development projects undertaken in 1952 towards those which have a more direct bearing on production.

In consequence of the rise in prices since 1950 and the enlarged scope of the projects undertaken, the credits available are being rapidly expended. It was estimated that in 1952, for the first time since the plans came into effect, the total of the credits carried over from previous years and voted for the current year through the Caisse Centrale de la France d'outre Mer would be exhausted by the end of the year.

Table I. Output of Principal Agricultural Commodities by Major
Producers, 1949 to 1951
(Thousands of metric tons)

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
<u>Cereals:</u>			
Barley, total Africa	3,762	2,909	3,101
Algeria	890	804	560
Ethiopia	800	600	600
French Morocco	1,368	1,075	1,617
Tunisia	400	200	50
Maize, ^{a/} total Africa	6,250	5,994	5,079
French Morocco	400	127	215
French West Africa	310	262	...
Madagascar	61	73	77
Union of South Africa	2,633	2,721	1,717
Millet and sorghum, total Africa	10,333	10,674	...
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	651	867	...
Basutoland	49
Bechuanaland	14	12	...
Belgian Congo	52	...
Cameroons, French administration	412	346	...
Eritrea	57
Ethiopia	1,650	1,400	...
French Equatorial Africa	600	600	...
French Morocco	63	33	...
French West Africa	2,131	2,417	...
Gambia	117	119	...
Gold Coast	20
Madagascar	63	75	...
Nigeria	2,581
Northern Rhodesia	182
Nyasaland	38
Ruanda-Urundi	177	186	...
Somalia	16
Southern Rhodesia ^{b/}	147
Spanish Morocco	44
Tanganyika ^{c/}	559	516	...
Togoland, French administration	92	86	...
Uganda
Union of South Africa	154

Table I, continued

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
<u>Cereals</u> (continued):			
Oats, total Africa	330	290	310
Algeria	142	142	129
French Morocco	39	44	49
Tunisia	25	20	25
Union of South Africa	115 ^{d/}	...	93
Rice ^{a/} , total Africa	2,082	2,508	2,580
Belgian Congo	160	147	145
French West Africa	385	531	...
Gambia	19	21	22
Liberia	173
Madagascar	750	802	816
Nigeria ^{e/}	250	...
Sierra Leone	275	275
Tanganyika	49	78	...
Zanzibar and Pemba	7	16	16
Wheat ^{a/} , total Africa	2,933	3,282	3,191
Algeria	947	947	873
French Morocco	638	755	838
Kenya ^{f/}	110	129	114
Tunisia	540	460	320
Union of South Africa ^{f/}	417	709	690
<u>Fibres:</u>			
Cotton ^{a/} , total Africa	263	308	276
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	67	102	62
Angola	7	6	5
Belgian Congo ^{g/}	50	44	44
French Equatorial Africa	27	22	31
French West Africa	8	6	7
Kenya	2	2	2
Mozambique	18	28	28
Nigeria	15	18	22
Nyasaland	2	2	1
Tanganyika	7	9	15
Togoland, French administration	1	2	2
Uganda	62	63	67

Table I, continued

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
Fibres: (continued)			
Sisal, ^{a/} total Africa	215	217	245
Angola	20	21	24
Eritrea	1	1	...
French Equatorial Africa	2	2	...
French West Africa	1	2	...
Kenya	37	41	42
Madagascar and Comoro Islands	6	5	...
Mozambique	18 <u>d/</u>	19 <u>d/</u>	19 <u>d/</u>
Southern Rhodesia	1	1	1
Tanganyika	128	124	148
Uganda	1	1	1
Wool, ^{a/h/} total Africa	63	68	68
Algeria	2	3	...
Basutoland	3	3	3
French Morocco	5	6	...
Libya	1	1	1
South West Africa	2	2	2
Tunisia	3 <u>d/</u>	3 <u>d/</u>	3 <u>d/</u>
Union of South Africa	47	49	50
Oil-seeds and oils:			
Copra, total Africa	100	120	100
French West Africa	0.3
Gold Coast ^{i/}	0.5	0.8	1.2
Kenya ^{j/}	1.8	1.2	...
Madagascar	5.1
Mauritius	1.3	2.3 ^{i/}	1.1 ^{i/}
Mozambique	47.1	46.8	40.0
Ruanda-Urundi ^{f/}	0.1
Seychelles	6.2 ^{i/}	6.0 ^{i/}	...
Tanganyika	16.8	27.4	...
Togoland, French administration	3.2	5.0	...
Zanzibar	18.0	20.7	14.2
Cotton-seed, ^{a/} total Africa	533	583	565
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	117	175	109 <u>d/</u>
Angola	16	13	9
Belgian Congo ^{g/}	97	93	88

Table I, continued

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
<u>Oil-seeds and oils:</u> (continued)			
Cotton-seed, ^{a/} (continued)			
French Equatorial Africa	47	56	60
French West Africa	16	12	14
Kenya	6	5	5
Mozambique	36	56	56
Nigeria	30	37	43
Nyasaland	4	7	3
Tanganyika	14	15	20
Uganda	142	126	124
Ground-nuts, ^{a/} total Africa	2,086	1,982	2,181
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	25	18	...
Belgian Congo	146	162	160
Cameroons, French administration	90	100	...
French Equatorial Africa	15 ^{k/}	78	...
French West Africa	850	704	780 ^{d/}
Gambia	63	66	69 ^{d/}
Madagascar	8	9	12 ^{d/}
Nigeria ^{l/}	463 ^{l/}	430	470 ^{d/}
Southern Rhodesia	25	32	46
Tanganyika	9	12	14
Togoland, French administration.	16	15	...
Uganda ^{p/}	127
Union of South Africa	86	92	89
Olive oil, total Africa	160	80	100
Algeria ^{m/}	27	18 ^{d/}	23 ^{d/}
French Morocco	12	10	25 ^{d/}
Libya	5 ^{n/}	5 ^{n/}	9 ^{d/}
Tunisia	118	46	45 ^{d/}
Palm kernels, ^{o/ i/} total Africa	326.4	341.3	311.2
Angola	5.2	5.1	4.4
Belgian Congo ^{p/}	48	51.4	56.0
Cameroons, French administration	16.4	12.8	12.1
French Equatorial Africa	3.6	3.8	3.6
French West Africa	38.4	38.0	33.9
Nigeria	172.0	190.1	158.6
Portuguese Guinea	7.6	7.6	...
Sierra Leone	35.2	32.5	34.4

Table I, continued

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
<u>Oil-seeds and oils: (continued)</u>			
Palm oil, ^{1/} total Africa	318.4	329.4	309.3
Angola	11.6	13.8	11.4
Belgian Congo	117.6	123.9	128.1
Cameroons, French administration.	6.4	4.8	3.1
French West Africa	10.0	11.2	14.6
Nigeria	172.8	175.7	152.1
Sesame, ^{a/} total Africa	188.5	281	...
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	79.1	168.3	...
Belgian Congo ^{b/}	8.6	6.2	5.5
Ethiopia	30.0	26.0	35.0
French West Africa	1.2	4.1	...
Nigeria	14.6 ^{g/}	11.2	10.5 ^{d/g/}
Somalia	2.0	...
Tanganyika	4.7	5.0	...
Uganda ^{b/}	32.5
<u>Other commodities:</u>			
Cassava, total Africa
Belgian Congo	5,505	6,277	6,222
Cameroons, French administration.	830	802	629
French Equatorial Africa	390	540	1,240
French West Africa	940	1,124	...
Gold Coast	512	512
Kenya
Liberia	408
Madagascar	897	944	953
Mauritius	4	4	3
Mozambique ^{b/}	3	4	...
Nigeria	3,000	10,750 ^{e/}	...
Northern Rhodesia	60
Nyasaland	610
Réunion	9	9	9
Ruanda-Urundi	958	919	1,463
Sierra Leone	36	36	36
Tanganyika	789	813	...
Togoland, French administration	170	230	...
Uganda
Zanzibar and Pemba	90	100	120

Table I, continued

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
<u>Other commodities:</u> (continued)			
Citrus fruit, total Africa	674	722	750
Algeria	221	268	272 <u>d/</u>
French Morocco	150	161	174 <u>d/</u>
Southern Rhodesia <u>f/</u>	8	9 <u>d/</u>	9 <u>d/</u>
Tunisia	37	31	30 <u>d/</u>
Union of South Africa	216	223	235
Zanzibar and Pemba	6	4	...
Cocoa, ^{a/} total Africa	487	519	446
Belgian Congo <u>s/</u>	1.7	1.8	2.1
Cameroons, French administration.	42.5	45.7	45.0 <u>d/</u>
French Equatorial Africa	2.5	2.4 <u>s/</u>	3.0 <u>d/</u>
French West Africa	55.0	60.0 <u>d/</u>	45.0 <u>d/</u>
Gold Coast <u>r/</u>	250.4	266.2	214.0 <u>d/</u>
Liberia	0.8	1.0 <u>d/</u>	...
Madagascar	0.3	0.3	...
Nigeria	96.0 <u>d/</u>	112.0 <u>i/</u>	107.0 <u>d/i/</u>
Principe and São Tome	8.1 <u>d/</u>	7.6 <u>d/</u>	8.0 <u>d/</u>
Spanish Guinea	17.6 <u>d/</u>	15.0 <u>d/</u>	15.0 <u>d/</u>
Togoland, French Administration	2.5	4.6	3.0 <u>d/</u>
Coffee, ^{a/} total Africa	247	281	317
Angola	36.6	46.6	51.0 <u>d/</u>
Belgian Congo	20.4	20.7	21.2
Cameroons, French administration.	7.4	8.6	8.7 <u>i/</u>
Ethiopia	36.5 <u>d/</u>	31.2 <u>d/</u>	35.0 <u>d/</u>
French Equatorial Africa	4.5	5.5	...
French West Africa	36.0	47.2	64.0 <u>d/</u>
Kenya <u>s/</u>	6.4 <u>s/</u>	9.9 <u>s/</u>	16.4 <u>s/</u>
Madagascar	29.2	30.7	...
Ruanda-Urundi <u>t/</u>	8.6	13.6	14.2
Tanganyika	13.3	18.3	17.4
Uganda	40.5	39.0	43.3 <u>d/</u>
Potatoes, ^{a/} total Africa	736	850	825
Algeria	180	246	218
Madagascar	58	90	86
Ruanda-Urundi	93	111	...
Union of South Africa	239	240 <u>d/</u>

Table I, continued

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
<u>Other commodities:</u> (continued)			
Rubber, ^{i/} total Africa ^{u/}	55,698	54,466	73,155
Belgian Congo	6,887	8,217	12,167
Gold Coast	396	265	334
Cameroons, French administration	2,251	1,798	2,146
Liberia	28,736	31,620	35,357
Nigeria	6,877	13,624	21,573
Nyasaland	46	51	41
Tanganyika	19	8	20
Sugar, ^{a/} total Africa	1,265	1,445	1,358
Angola	51	52	50 <u>a/</u>
Belgian Congo	14	14	15 <u>a/</u>
Kenya <u>e/ v/</u>	13	16	20
Madagascar	15	14 <u>a/</u>	18 <u>a/</u>
Mauritius	416	457	484 <u>a/</u>
Mozambique	80	85	93 <u>a/</u>
Reunion	108 <u>v/</u>	106 <u>v/</u>	125 <u>a/</u>
Tanganyika <u>v/</u>	8	10	10
Uganda <u>f/ v/</u>	52	62	62
Union of South Africa	509	622	482
Sweet potatoes and yams, total Africa	16,780	16,077	16,568
Belgian Congo	382	378	386
British Togoland	12 <u>w/</u>	166	...
Cameroons, French administration	98	86	113
Ethiopia	27	25	27
French Equatorial Africa	15 <u>w/</u>	15 <u>w/</u>	...
French West Africa	1,644	1,019	...
Gold Coast <u>r/</u>	36 <u>x/</u>	482	482
Madagascar	240	293	321
Nigeria	3,600	9,973 <u>e/</u>	...
Northern Rhodesia	10
Nyasaland	80
Ruanda-Urundi	1,110	1,028	1,387
Sierra Leone	10	10	10
Tanganyika	241	254	...
Togoland, French administration	204	264	...
Uganda	2,250 <u>a/</u>
Union of South Africa	40 <u>a/</u>
Zanzibar and Pemba	10	10	12

Table I, continued

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
<u>Other commodities: (continued)</u>			
Tea, ^{a/} total Africa	17	21	21
Belgian Congo	0.1	0.2	0.2
Kenya ^{s/}	5.4	6.7	7.0 ^{d/}
Mauritius	0.3	0.3	0.4
Mozambique	2.3 ^{d/}	3.1 ^{d/}	...
Nyasaland	5.7	7.0	...
Southern Rhodesia ^{s/}	0.3	0.4	0.4
Tanganyika	0.7	1.0	1.1
Uganda	1.5	1.9	1.9 ^{d/}
Union of South Africa	0.1	0.1 ^{i/}	...
Tobacco, ^{a/} total Africa	140	130	130
Algeria	20.0	19.4	21.4
Northern Rhodesia	3.0	3.0	5.0
Nyasaland	14.4	16.4	12.0
Southern Rhodesia ^{f/}	48.5	40.1	49.1
Union of South Africa	21.7	24.2	18.4
Wine, total Africa	1,837	1,837	1,817
Algeria	1,447	1,430	1,374
French Morocco	50	71	102
Libya	4	3	1
Tunisia	88	78	65
Union of South Africa	246	251	274

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Food and Agricultural Statistics; International Rubber Study Group, Rubber Statistical Bulletin (London), October 1952.

Production statistics for the Northern Hemisphere pertain generally to the harvests of the spring, summer, and fall of the year stated, but for the more southernly regions of this hemisphere, they represent harvests continuing into the early part of the following year; for the Southern Hemisphere, these data relate to the crops harvested in the latter part of the year indicated and the first half of the following year. In accordance with this definition the split year annotation has been omitted from the tables (e.g. 1950/51 appears as 1950).

Footnotes to Table I, continued

- a/ 1951 figures are preliminary.
- b/ Crops in villages.
- c/ Including maize.
- d/ Unofficial figures.
- e/ Including Cameroons under British administration.
- f/ On farms and estates.
- g/ Including Ruanda-Urundi.
- h/ Clean basis.
- i/ Exports.
- j/ Recorded sales.
- k/ Commercial crop.
- l/ Exports of nuts and oil.
- m/ Olive production from plantations with density of 50 trees or more per hectare, comprising about half of total production.
- n/ Tripolitania only.
- o/ Oil equivalent of palm kernels.
- p/ Including palm kernel oil expressed in the Belgian Congo as follows:
12,000 tons in 1949, 12,800 tons in 1950 and 17,200 tons in 1951.
- q/ Purchases for export only.
- r/ Including Togoland under British administration.
- s/ On estates only.
- t/ Parchment coffee.
- u/ Totals for Africa are production estimates.
- v/ Calendar year.
- w/ Sweet potatoes only.
- x/ Yams only.

Table II. Output of Principal Minerals by Major Producers

1949, 1950 and 1951

(Thousands of metric tons)

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
<u>Metallic mineral ores (metal content):</u>			
Antimony (metric tons):			
Algeria	1,338	1,354	1,464
French Morocco	700	689	957
Spanish Morocco	156	367	203
Southern Rhodesia	41	24	69
Union of South Africa	4,494	8,311	15,858
Total	6,729	10,745	18,551
Bauxite:			
Gold Coast ^{a/}	148	117	131
Mozambique	1	4	4
Total	149	121	135
Chrome:			
Sierra Leone	9.29	3.1	5.5
Southern Rhodesia	121.8	145.8	144.1
Union of South Africa	183.7	225.0	246.7
Total	314.8	373.9	396.3
Cobalt (metric tons):			
Belgian Congo	4,403	5,149	5,715
French Morocco	209	390	688
Northern Rhodesia	402	670	706
Total	5,014	6,209	7,109

Table II, continued

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
<u>Metallic mineral ores:</u> (continued)			
Copper:			
Angola	1.0	1.5	...
Belgian Congo <u>b/</u>	141.4	175.9	192.0
Northern Rhodesia	263.2	280.9	314.1
South West Africa	9.9	11.1	11.7
Union of South Africa	29.5	33.2	32.7
Total	445.0	502.6	550.5
Gold (kilogrammes):			
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	128	110	46
Bechuanaland	9	8	5
Belgian Congo <u>c/</u>	10,383	10,557	10,958
Cameroons, French administration	278	226	169
Eritrea	70	34	...
Ethiopia	630	383	466
French Equatorial Africa	1,781	1,711	1,644
French West Africa	90	149	55
Gold Coast	21,055	21,444	21,731
Kenya	624	714	823
Liberia <u>a/</u>	410	431	305
Madagascar	52	60	61
Mozambique	77	31	27
Nigeria	78	70	49
Northern Rhodesia	37	45	3
Sierra Leone	71	118	101
Southern Rhodesia	16,428	15,899	15,145
South West Africa	1	1	...
Swaziland	88	56	10
Tanganyika	2,146	2,026	2,040
Uganda <u>a/</u>	20	18	7
Union of South Africa	364,068	362,782	358,202
Total	418,524	416,873	411,847

Table II, continued

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
<u>Metallic mineral ores:</u> (continued)			
Iron:			
Algeria	1,340	1,361	1,496
French Morocco	161	147	247
Spanish Morocco	547	583	574
Sierra Leone	664	711	695
Southern Rhodesia	26	30	25
Tunisia	384	413	492
Union of South Africa	749	717	856
Total	3,871	3,962	4,385
Lead:			
Algeria	1.1	1.3	2.9
Belgian Congo	0.2	--	--
French Equatorial Africa	0.7	2.5	2.5
French Morocco	37.2	48.2	68.1
Spanish Morocco a/	0.1	0.1	0.2
Northern Rhodesia	14.2	13.9	14.6
Southern Rhodesia	0.2	--	--
South West Africa	32.0	27.0	39.5
Tunisia	14.9	19.3	21.2
Union of South Africa	0.2	0.6	0.9
Total	100.8	112.9	149.9
Magnesite:			
Southern Rhodesia	7.6	8.6	14.8
Union of South Africa	10.5	11.8	18.8
Total	18.1	20.4	33.6
Manganese:			
Angola	9.3	4.7	23.1
Belgian Congo	6.1	8.5	35.5
Gold Coast	385.0	376.0	425.0
French Morocco	98.1	115.3	151.4
Northern Rhodesia	0.5	0.2	0.5
South West Africa	--	0.5	3.3
Union of South Africa	275.2	332.1	309.2
Total	774.2	837.3	948.0

Table II, continued

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
<u>Metallic mineral ores:</u> (continued)			
Nickel:			
Union of South Africa ^{d/}	0.57	0.84	1.14
Silver (metric tons):			
Algeria	1.0	1.0	0.3
Belgian Congo	141.5	138.7	118.0
British West Africa ^{a/ e/}	1.3	1.4	1.6
French Morocco	22.9	34.1	43.0
Northern Rhodesia	4.2	5.4	...
Southern Rhodesia	2.6	2.7	2.5
South West Africa	20.5	27.6	27.0
Tunisia	2.1	2.3	1.9
Union of South Africa	36.1	35.3	36.2
Total	232.2	248.5	230.5
Tin in concentrates (metric tons):			
Belgian Congo	13,980	13,680	13,888
Nigeria	8,965	8,391	8,666
Tanganyika ^{a/}	110	97	66
Uganda	171	137	121
Union of South Africa	478	654	779
Other countries ^{f/}	339	311	296
Total	24,043	23,270	23,816
Tungsten (metric tons):			
Belgian Congo ^{g/}	230	240	212
Nigeria	3	3	12
Southern Rhodesia	16	35	107
South West Africa	13	13	37
Uganda ^{a/}	108	130	100
Union of South Africa	250	57	113
Total	620	478	581

Table II, continued

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
<u>Metallic mineral ores: (continued)</u>			
Vanadium (metric tons):			
Northern Rhodesia	153	--	87
South West Africa	164	295	309
Total	317	295	396
Zinc:			
Algeria	6.9	7.1	9.4
Belgian Congo	56.8	76.3	88.7
French Morocco	2.8	11.4	19.5
Northern Rhodesia	23.2	23.1	23.0
South West Africa	13.0	11.9	14.8
Tunisia	3.3	2.9	3.5
Total	106.0	132.7	158.9
<u>Non-metallic minerals:</u>			
Asbestos:			
Kenya	0.7	0.2	0.4
French Morocco	0.4	0.5	0.6
Southern Rhodesia	72.2	64.9	70.5
Swaziland	30.8	29.6	31.7
Union of South Africa	64.3	79.3	97.4
Total	168.4	174.5	200.6

Table II, continued

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
<u>Non-metallic minerals:</u> (continued)			
Coal: ^{h/}			
Algeria	265	258	247
Belgian Congo	152	160	218
French Morocco	341	368	394
Mozambique	13	56	78
Nigeria	559	594	560
Southern Rhodesia	1,918	2,128	2,300
Union of South Africa	25,496	26,473	26,632
Total	28,744	30,037	30,429
Diamonds: (thousands of metric carats) ^{i/}			
Angola	770	539	734
Belgian Congo	9,650	10,147	10,565
Gold Coast ^{a/}	963	932	1,632
Sierre Leone	494	655	475
Union of South Africa	1,265	1,732	2,229
French Equatorial Africa	123	111	148
French West Africa	95	125	101
South West Africa ^{a/}	280	488	380
Tanganyika ^{a/}	192	71	9
Total	13,832	14,800	16,273
Lignite:			
Tunisia	47	41	8
Petroleum (crude):			
Algeria	0.3	3.4	7.6
French Morocco	17.5	39.3	75.7
Total	17.8	42.7	83.3

Table II, continued

Commodity and country	1949	1950	1951
<u>Non-metallic minerals: (continued)</u>			
Phosphate rock:			
Algeria	648	685	769
French Morocco	3,626	4,022	4,599
Tunisia	1,442	1,530	1,742
Total	5,716	6,237	7,110

Footnotes to Table II

Source: United Nations, Statistical Yearbook, 1951; Angola, French Morocco and South West Africa: United States Department of Interior, Bureau of Mines, Mineral Yearbook (Preprints), 1950, (Washington, D.C.) and Mineral Trade Notes (Washington, D.C.) June 1952 and August 1952; Belgian Congo, l'Economie Belge en 1951 (Brussels, 1952); French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, Ministère de la France d'outre-mer, Bulletin Mensuel de Statistique d'outre mer, (Paris) September-October 1952; French Morocco, United States Department of Interior, Bureau of Mines, Mineral Yearbook (Preprints), 1950, (Washington, D.C.) and Mineral Trade Notes (Washington, D.C.) June 1952; Gold Coast, Ministry of Finance, A Survey of Some Economic Matters, February 1952 (Accra); Northern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia Economic and Statistical Bulletin, November 1952; Sierra Leone, United Kingdom Colonial Office, Digest of Colonial Statistics (London) November-December 1952; Standard Bank of South Africa, Ltd. Monthly Review (Cape Town), July 1952; Tanganyika, East Africa High Commission, East African Economic and Statistical Bulletin (Nairobi), June 1952; Union of South Africa, South African Reserve Bank, Quarterly Bulletin of Statistics (Pretoria), December 1952.

a/ Exports.

b/ Smelter production.

c/ Including Ruanda-Urundi

d/ Nickel content of platinum matte.

e/ Gold Coast, Nigeria, Sierra Leone.

f/ Cameroons (under French Administration), Egypt, French Morocco, French West Africa, Mozambique, Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia, South West Africa, Swaziland.

Footnotes to Table II (continued)

g/ Including Ruanda-Urundi except in 1951.

h/ The figures relate to anthracite and bituminous coal, including semi-bituminous, but exclude lignite and brown coal.

i/ Including industrial diamonds.

Table III. Dollar Value of Imports and Exports
by Principal Areas, 1948 to 1952
(Millions of United States dollars)

Area	1948	1949	1950	1951		1952
				Full year	First half	First half
<u>Africa, total: a/</u>						
Imports	4,750	4,750	4,020	5,580	2,590	3,360
Exports	33,280	3,360	3,520	4,620	2,380	2,410
Balance.	-1,470	-1,390	- 500	- 960	- 210	- 950
<u>French territories: b/</u>						
Imports	1,449	1,513	1,423	1,950	896	1,091
Exports	994	1,001	1,006	1,208	632	670
Balance.	- 455	- 512	- 417	- 742	- 264	- 421
<u>French North Africa: c/</u>						
Imports	1,050	981	911	1,208	557	682
Exports	660	606	636	736	370	406
Balance.	- 390	- 375	- 275	- 472	- 187	- 276
<u>French Tropical Africa: d/</u>						
Imports	280	410	387	562	261	315
Exports	256	308	274	364	212	215
Balance.	- 24	- 102	- 113	- 198	- 49	- 100
<u>Belgian Congo: e/</u>						
Imports	191	228	192	308	141	199
Exports	268	235	261	387	176	188
Balance.	77	7	69	79	35	- 11
<u>Portuguese territories: f/</u>						
Imports	120	119	115	147	65	76
Exports	99	106	112	155	63	57
Balance.	- 21	- 14	- 3	8	- 2	- 19

Table III, continued

Area				1951		1952
	1948	1949	1950	Full year	First half	First half
<u>British dependent territories^{g/}</u>						
Imports	697	831	678	919	403	536
Exports	824	885	859	1,210	664	685
Balance	127	55	181	291	261	149
<u>British West Africa:^{h/}</u>						
Imports	328	403	335	448	196	279
Exports	478	488	470	634	386	359
Balance	150	85	135	186	191	80
<u>British east and central Africa: i/ j/</u>						
Imports	323	381	303	424	188	230
Exports	301	351	355	524	260	311
Balance	-22	-31	52	100	72	81
<u>Southern Rhodesia:^{j/}</u>						
Imports	189	220	181	264	120	135
Exports	99	109	117	128	58	67
Balance	-90	-111	-64	-136	-61	-68
<u>Union of South Africa:^{j/}</u>						
Imports	1,567	1,314	945	1,447	706	710
Exports	551	566	707	961	503	472
Balance	-1,016	-748	-238	-486	-203	-238
<u>Anglo-Egyptian Sudan:</u>						
Imports	92	89	78	121	46	90
Exports	99	109	95	184	83	65
Balance	7	20	17	63	37	-25
<u>Ethiopia:^{k/}</u>						
Imports	45	36	30	38	21	24
Exports	34	29	27	44	31	26
Balance	-11	-7	-3	6	9	2

Table III, continued

Footnotes to Table III

Source: United Nations Statistical Yearbook and Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, February 1953.

Figures represent general trade in all British dependent territories, Southern Rhodesia, Union of South Africa and Ethiopia; special trade in all other territories. Exports exclude gold, except for French territories other than French Equatorial Africa; and except for the Union of South Africa which excludes gold bullion but includes gold ores; concentrates and semi-processed gold. All area totals include trade among the component territories.

- a/ Including entire continental land area of Africa, except Egypt, together with outlying islands in the Indian and Atlantic Oceans, of which the chief are Madagascar, Mauritius, Reunion and Zanzibar. Figures include estimates for countries and territories for which full data are not available.
- b/ Including French Somaliland and Comoro Islands, Madagascar and Reunion, in addition to the territories listed in footnotes c/ and d/.
- c/ Algeria, French Morocco and Tunisia
- d/ Cameroons under French administration, French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, Togoland under French administration.
- e/ Including Ruanda-Urundi
- f/ Angola and Mozambique
- g/ Including British Somaliland Mauritius, in addition to the territories listed in footnotes h/ and i/.
- h/ Gambia, Gold Coast, Nigeria and Sierra Leone
- i/ Kenya, Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland, Tanganyika and Uganda. Figures for British east and central Africa exclude trade and transfers between Kenya, Tanganyika and Uganda.
- j/ Imports of Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia and Union of South Africa reported f.o.b.; adjusted to arbitrary c.i.f. estimate (f.o.b. plus 10%).
- k/ Trade figures for Ethiopia are for years ending 10th September.

Table IV. Value of Imports and Exports of Selected Countries
in Local Currencies, 1948 to 1952

Area, country and monetary unit	1948	1949	1950	Full year	1951 First half	1952 First half
I M P O R T S						
<u>French North Africa</u> (millions of metro- politan francs):						
Algeria.....	92,866	129,356	151,994	203,637	92,698	114,393
French Morocco..	74,865	104,750	115,233	159,680	69,884	97,977
Tunisia.....	34,193	42,368	51,533	59,495	32,375	26,426
Total imports, metropolitan franc area.....	201,924	276,474	318,760	422,812	194,957	238,796
<u>French tropical Africa (millions of CFA francs):</u>						
Cameroons, French administration	4,888	8,776	10,562	16,496	7,851	9,976
French Equa- torial Africa	6,003	11,310	13,394	18,243	8,275	10,197
French West Africa.....	19,841	34,480	42,170	61,336	28,479	33,437
Togoland, French administration..	824	1,454	1,624	2,331	1,049	1,444
Total imports, French tropical Africa.....	31,556	56,020	67,750	98,406	45,654	55,054
<u>Other French terri- tories (millions of CFA francs):</u>						
Madagascar a/...	8,942	11,836	15,073	22,998	9,815	11,273
Reunion.....	2,874	3,499	4,579	5,808	2,634	3,371
Total imports, CFA franc area, as listed.....	43,372	71,355	87,402	127,212	58,103	69,698

Table IV, continued

Area, country and monetary unit	1948	1949	1950	Full year	1951 First half	1952 First half
I M P O R T S, continued						
<u>French Somaliland</u> (millions of Djibouti francs) ..	1,777	1,940	2,721	3,247	1,528	2,228
<u>Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi (mil- lions of CB francs)</u>	8,392	10,320	9,622	15,420	7,045	9,938
<u>Portuguese Africa</u> (millions of escudos):						
Angola.....	1,213	1,333	1,665	2,177	945	1,157
Mozambique.....	1,785	1,755	1,654	2,044	933	1,031
Total imports, Protuguense Africa, as listed.....	2,998	3,088	3,319	4,221	1,878	2,188
<u>British West Africa (thousands of pounds sterl- ing): b/</u>						
Gambia.....	2,296	2,206	2,922	3,997	1,950	1,900
Gold Coast.....	31,654	44,424	47,979	63,322	27,829	33,932
Nigeria.....	42,511	58,235	61,868	84,552	36,415	58,684
Sierra Leone....	4,979	5,941	6,746	8,207	3,718	5,045
Total imports, British West Africa.....	81,440	110,806	119,515	160,078	69,912	99,561

Table IV, continued

Area, country and monetary unit	1948	1949	1950	1951		1952
				Full year	First half	First half
<hr/>						
British east Africa ^{c/} (thousands of pounds sterling):b/	I M P O R T S, continued					
Kenya d/.....	29,520	37,266	31,706	53,817	23,812	27,750
Tanganyika d/.....	20,045	25,522	24,170	28,113	11,514	17,764
Uganda d/.....	9,000	12,317	15,358	22,122	10,162	12,389
Total imports, British east Africa.....	58,565	75,105	71,233	104,052	45,488	57,903
<hr/>						
British central Africa (thousands of pounds sterl- ing):e/						
Northern						
Rhodesia d/f/..	17,327	23,393	29,380	39,914	18,408	20,237
Nyasaland d/....	4,340	5,592	7,543	7,293	3,408	4,027
Southern						
Rhodesia d/f/..	46,791	59,938	64,636	94,197	42,765	48,298
Total imports, British cen- tral Africa....	68,458	88,923	101,559	141,404	64,581	72,562
<hr/>						
Other British territories (thousands of pounds sterling):						
British						
Somaliland....	1,046	852	1,217	1,636	728	949
Mauritius.....	10,317	11,486	13,185	15,229	6,031	8,702
Total imports, sterling terri- tories, as listed.....	219,866	287,172	306,709	422,399	186,740	239,677

Table IV, continued

Area, country and monetary unit	1948	1949	1950	1951		1952
				Full year	First half	First half
<hr/>						
I M P O R T S, continued						
<u>Anglo-Egyptian</u> <u>Sudan (thousands</u> <u>of Egyptian pounds)</u>	22,153	23,474	27,038	41,986	15,966	31,384
<u>Ethiopia^{g/} (thousands</u> <u>of Ethiopian</u> <u>dollars)</u>	112,055	90,475	74,433	95,264	52,614	60,293
<u>Union of South</u> <u>Africa f/ (thousands</u> <u>of South African</u> <u>pounds)</u>	388,879	346,755	337,583	516,856	252,009	253,497
E X P O R T S						
<u>French North Africa</u> <u>(millions of metro-</u> <u>politan francs):</u>						
Algeria.....	90,121	94,330	116,596	134,102	64,089	72,760
French Morocco...	38,212	54,448	66,403	88,159	42,930	53,019
Tunisia.....	12,690	27,249	39,553	35,212	22,541	16,161
Total exports, metropolitan franc area.....	141,023	176,027	222,552	257,473	129,560	141,940
<u>French tropical</u> <u>Africa (millions</u> <u>of CFA francs):</u>						
Cameroons (French administration)	4,283	6,741	8,191	11,372	7,144	6,561
French Equa- torial Africa...	6,177	6,501	7,254	10,996	3,485	3,569
French West Africa.....	18,472	27,401	30,965	38,704	25,012	26,230
Togoland (French administration).	1,168	845	1,528	2,699	1,501	1,229
Total exports, French tropical Africa.....	30,100	41,488	47,938	63,771	37,142	37,589

Table IV, continued

Area, country and monetary unit	1948	1949	1950	Full year	1951 First half	1952 First half
E X P O R T S, continued						
<u>Other French terri- tories (millions of CFA francs):</u>						
Madagascar a/...	6,111	7,607	12,432	13,487	5,611	5,384
Reunion.....	2,248	3,282	3,321	4,475	2,142	2,460
Total exports, CFA franc area, as listed.....	38,459	52,377	63,691	81,733	44,895	45,433
<u>French Somaliland (millions of Djibouti francs)...</u>	1,018	1,490	1,384	1,241 ^{h/}	1,188 ^{h/}	1,078
<u>Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi (millions of CB francs).....</u>	11,756	10,636	13,033	19,350	8,782	9,417
<u>Portuguese Africa (millions of escudos):</u>						
Angola.....	1,489	1,793	2,169	3,189	1,319	1,102
Mozambique.....	992	967	1,064	1,255	495	532
Total exports, Portuguese Africa, as listed.....	2,481	2,760	3,233	4,444	1,814	1,634
<u>British West Africa (thousands of pounds sterling): b/</u>						
Gambia.....	2,239	2,534	2,286	3,369	2,337	3,940
Gold Coast.....	49,866	43,160	67,667	82,687	57,811	50,350
Nigeria.....	62,532	81,068	90,922	130,373	73,267	68,375
Sierra Leone.....	3,904	4,681	6,930	10,045	4,591	5,520
Total exports, British West Africa.....	118,541	131,443	167,805	226,474	138,006	128,185

Table IV, continued

Area, country and monetary unit	1948	1949	1950	Full year	1951 First half	1952 First half
E X P O R T S, continued						
<u>British east Africa^{c/}</u> <u>(thousands of pounds</u> <u>sterling) b/:</u>						
Kenya d/.....	12,100	13,007	19,359	27,049	13,814	18,016
Tanganyika d/....	15,756	19,786	23,450	39,521	17,450	23,303
Uganda d/.....	13,920	23,527	20,872	47,440	26,899	26,510
Total exports, British east Africa.....	41,746	56,320	71,680	114,011	58,163	67,829
<u>British central Africa (thousands of pounds sterl- ing): e/</u>						
Northern						
Rhodesia d/...	28,623	33,282	50,068	67,086	32,126	40,433
Nyasaland d/....	4,212	4,730	5,052	5,899	2,725	2,895
Southern						
Rhodesia d/....	24,673	29,166	41,765	45,683	20,872	23,874
Total exports, British central Africa.....	57,508	67,178	96,885	118,668	55,723	67,202
<u>Other British terri- tories (thousands of pounds sterling):</u>						
British Somali- land.....						
	450	565	731	899	332	376
Mauritius.....	10,991	12,634	11,538	17,875	5,671	4,984
Total exports, sterling terri- tories, as listed.....	229,234	268,140	348,639	477,927	257,895	268,576

Table IV, continued

Area, country and monetary unit	1948	1949	1950	Full year	<u>1951</u> First half	<u>1952</u> First half
E X P O R T S, continued						
<u>Anglo-Egyptian Sudan</u> (thousands of Egyptian pounds)...	23,874	27,429	33,112	63,899	28,976	22,632
<u>Ethiopia ^{g/}</u> (thousands of Ethiopian dollars).....	85,655	71,176	66,470	110,447	75,796	65,776
<u>Union of South Africa^{i/}</u> (thousands of South African pounds)....	136,834	156,841	252,348	343,220	179,551	168,416

Footnotes to Table IV.

Source: United Nations Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, February 1953.

General trade in all British dependent territories, Southern Rhodesia, Union of South Africa and Ethiopia; special trade in all other territories. Exports exclude gold, except for French territories other than French Equatorial Africa (see footnote i/).

- a/ Including Comoro Islands.
- b/ The local currency in west Africa is the west African pound, in east Africa it is the east African pound. Both are issued by currency boards in London, and backed 100 per cent by sterling.
- c/ Excluding trade and transfers between Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika.
- d/ Excluding specie prior to 2 October 1951.
- e/ Local currency circulating in British central Africa is the Southern Rhodesian pound, issued by the Southern Rhodesian Currency Board in Salisbury and maintained at par with sterling.
- f/ Imports of Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia and Union of South Africa adjusted to arbitrary c.i.f. (f.o.b. plus 10%).
- g/ Years ending 10 September.
- h/ Excluding ship stores and bunkers (1,286 million Djibouti francs in 1951).
- i/ Export figures for the Union of South Africa exclude gold bullion, but include gold ores, concentrates and semi-processed gold.

Table V. Imports of Principal Commodities by Selected Areas, 1950 and 1951
(Value in national currencies)

A. French North Africa (millions of metropolitan francs)

Commodity	<u>Algeria</u>		<u>Morocco</u>		<u>Tunisia</u>	
	1950	1951	1950	1951	1950	1951
Total imports	151,994	201,125 ^a	115,233	159,698 ^a	51,533	59,495
Foodstuffs:						
Butter and vegetable fats	3,100	6,480	1,712	2,764	215	382
Sugar	9,076	10,085	13,975	15,671	3,045	4,187
Tea	553	885	4,311	4,870	1,184	2,008
Wheat	1,733	4,952	1,335	2,100
Other cereals	368	344	220	114	45	488
Non-food products:						
Cement, etc.	900	737	1,394	3,044	169	379
Chemicals	1,859	2,552	770	1,039	677	817
Coal	1,645	1,685	407	401	602	902
Fertilizers	1,532	1,787	385	579	60	59
Petroleum products	7,887	9,165	6,287	8,719	3,123	3,951
Manufactured products:						
Agricultural machinery	1,621	1,435	995	1,188	774	729
Clothing	1,851	2,246	1,713	2,061	765	673
Cotton fabrics	7,806	7,641	6,617	8,643	4,102	3,679
Iron and steel	5,190	6,938	4,920	8,710	2,037	1,966
Paper and products	3,294	5,874	1,579	2,919	866	1,505
Vehicles and spare parts	7,851	10,624	6,716	10,849	2,176	2,447
Wood and products	3,720	5,853	1,882	3,732	1,112	1,373

Table V, continued

B. French Tropical Africa (millions of CFA francs)

Commodity	French West Africa		Togoland		French Equatorial Africa		Cameroon	
	1950	1951	1950	1951	1950	1951	1950	1951
Total imports	42,170	61,336	1,624	2,331	13,394	18,243	10,562	16,496
Foodstuffs:								
Beverages and wines	1,496	2,022	153	213	605	771	402	604
Flour	1,160	1,685	19	42	185	244	194	329
Rice	1,490	1,819	...	23	56	108	8	5
Sugar	1,788	2,145	75	117	232	472	68	148
Non-food products:								
Cement, etc.	711	1,502	53	79	547	877	240	521
Petroleum products	1,564	2,478	56	107	973	1,521	508	614
Manufactured products:								
Cotton textiles	6,806	9,744	191	265	1,099	1,329	1,074	1,269
Electrical Equipment	1,359	1,974	24	32	524	697	350	556
Iron and steel	1,417	2,064	44	33	745	587	351	597
Machinery	3,453	3,855	29	82	1,482	1,810	1,020	1,266
Metal manufactures	1,775	2,631	...	81	639	778	444	900
Tools and hardware	1,000	1,678	35	60	329	524	319	546
Vehicles	2,357	3,980	67	208	666	1,345	698	1,269

Table V, continued

C. Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi (millions of CB francs)

Commodity	1950	1951
Total imports	9,634	15,420
Foodstuffs, total	953	1,297
Fish	235	339
Meat	91	158
Salt	52	46
Wheat flour	81	112
Non-food products, total	726	1,109
Coal	106	123
Cement, etc.	111	200
Mineral oils	348	547
Manufactured products, total	7,723	12,975
Clothing	291	650
Machines	1,797	2,789
Metal manufactures	1,045	2,019
Textile fabrics	846	1,571
Vehicles and spare parts	1,477	2,224

Table V (continued)

D. British West Africa (thousands of pounds sterling)

Commodity	Sierra Leone		Gold Coast		Nigeria	
	1950	1951	1950	1951	1950	1951
Total imports	6,746	8,207	44,276 ^a	63,326	61,868	84,552
Food, beverages and tobacco:						
Food, total	690	922	6,047	9,884	4,114	7,135
Flour	143	170	1,172	1,541	672	811
Meat and fish	67	105	1,726	2,617	718	2,049
Salt	35	81	797	1,455
Sugar	125	136	812	1,139	665	833
Beverages	245	373	1,409	2,090	1,139	2,169
Tobacco	366	362	1,135	1,509	1,885	1,731
Non-food products:						
Cement, etc.	117	226	1,151	2,200	1,098	2,562
Petroleum products	281	320	2,560	3,259	3,469	5,022
Manufactured products:						
Artificial silk piece goods	131	243	1,133	1,795	2,560	4,791
Cotton piece goods	1,577	1,644	8,536	10,787	14,148	14,898
Iron and steel	241	331	2,646	4,260	2,420	4,329
Machinery	350	431	3,072	3,240	2,735	4,088
Metal manufactures	471	612	1,164	1,728	5,060	6,635
Vehicles and bicycles	370	442	4,582	4,768	7,820	8,344

Table V (continued)

E. British East Africa (thousands of pounds sterling)

Commodity	Kenya		Uganda		Tanganyika	
	1950	1951	1950	1951	1950	1951
Total imports	31,706	53,275 ^{a/}	15,358	22,420 ^{a/}	24,170	28,010 ^{a/}
Food, beverages and tobacco	2,327	3,433	743	1,475	1,259	1,540
Non-food products:						
Chemical products	1,506	2,214	363	619	714	1,049
Fuels and lubricants	4,282	7,080	831	1,029	1,921	1,977
Non-metal minerals	1,731	2,246	665	1,218	1,391	1,855
Manufactured products:						
Clothing	2,099	4,089	931	1,511	893	1,594
Machinery and vehicles	8,464	12,248	4,219	5,119	7,946	6,828
Metal goods	4,635	7,991	2,189	3,058	3,601	3,907
Textiles	3,311	8,176	3,971	5,924	4,539	6,606

Table V (continued)

F. British Central Africa (thousands of pounds sterling)

Commodity	Nyasaland		Northern Rhodesia		Southern Rhodesia	
	1950	1951	1950	1951	1950	1951
Total imports . . .	7,543	7,293	26,710 ^{b/}	35,377 ^{b/}	58,761 ^{b/}	85,634 ^{b/}
Food, beverages and tobacco:						
Total food	1,158	401	1,956	3,143	5,290	9,054
Wheat	819 ^{c/}	(45 ^{c/})	188	453	1,023	1,139
Maize			14	451	1,023	2,725
Sugar	134	72	285	394	700	1,347
Beverages	77	80	497	368	510	545
Non-food products:						
Chemicals, fertilizer, etc. .	237	259	649	893	1,779	2,571
Non-metal minerals	333	256	1,424	1,868	1,484	2,478
Oils, waxes, resins, paints, etc.	1,382	2,023
Petrol, lubricating and fuel oils	296	279	1,686	1,982
Manufactured products:						
Clothing	165	219	1,370	2,100	3,822	4,963
Cotton piece-goods	1,298	1,389	1,240	1,800	3,000	5,000
Machinery	585	485	6,100	6,900	8,000	10,000
Metal manufactures	771	794	4,967	5,447	10,553	15,182
Railway materials	235	267	2,521	1,540
Vehicles, motor	839	968	1,195	1,960	3,687	5,387

Table V (continued)

G. Union of South Africa (thousands of South African pounds)

Commodity	1950	1951
Total imports . . .	307,376 ^{b/} a/	469,869 ^{b/}
Food, beverages and tobacco:		
Total food	19,786	19,397
Cocoa	361	1,071
Coffee	4,868	4,052
Tea	4,277	4,623
Wheat	6,247	3,710
Beverages	360	568
Tobacco	956	1,261
Non-food products:		
Diamonds, rough	7,367	6,065
Fertilizer	2,296	2,414
Glycerine	438	1,322
Mineral oils	25,007	28,539
Paper	7,386	16,443
Rubber, unmanufactured	4,430	10,745
Wood, unmanufactured	7,055	11,386
Manufactured products:		
Agricultural machinery and implements	5,810	12,142
Cotton, rayon and woollen piece goods	40,902	75,599
Electric dynamos, generators, motors and supplies	6,426	8,010
Engines and parts	1,038	1,682
Industrial steam boilers	1,722	3,693
Iron, zinc, copper, lead, aluminium, tin bars, rods, sheets, plates, pipes, etc.	15,718	26,998
Machine tools	1,487	2,232
Motor vehicles and parts	16,432	28,059
Wire	1,897	4,141

Footnotes to Table V.

Source: United Kingdom Colonial Office, Information on Nyasaland, transmitted under Article 73 (e) of the United Nations Charter; Ministère de la France d'Outre-mer et Institut national de la statistique et des études économiques, Bulletin mensuel de statistique d'Outre-mer (Paris), September-October, 1952; Bank of the Belgian Congo, Bulletin mensuel d'informations générales et revue des marchés de la Banque du Congo belge (Brussels, April 1952; East Africa High Commission Statistical Department, East African Economic and Statistical Bulletin, (Nairobi) June 1952; Gold Coast; Economic and Statistical Bulletin of the Gold Coast (Accra), August 1952; The External Trade of the Gold Coast (Accra); Ministry of Finance, A Survey of some Economic Matters (Accra), February 1952; Nigeria; Trade Report for 1950 (Lagos); Department of Statistics, Nigeria Trade Summary (Lagos), December 1951; Department of Commerce and Industries, Handbook of Commerce and Industries, 1952 (Lagos); The External Trade of Nyasaland; Northern Rhodesia, Central African Office of Statistics, Economic and Statistical Bulletin, February 1952; Southern Rhodesia, Central African Statistical Office, Economic and Statistical Bulletin of Southern Rhodesia, (Causeway), February 1952; Sierra Leone, Trade Report for 1951, (Freetown); Union of South Africa, Department of Customs and Excise, Monthly Abstract of Trade Statistics (Pretoria), January-December 1951.

a// Total differs slightly from revised total in Table IV.

b/ Values reported f.o.b.

c/ Grain and flour.

Table VI. Exports of Principal Commodities by Selected Areas, 1950 and 1951
(Volume in thousands of metric tons; value in national currencies)

Country and Commodity	Volume		Value			
	1950	1951	1950	1951	1950	1951
			Per cent	Per cent	Amount of total	Amount of total
A. French North Africa (Millions of metropolitan francs)						
Algeria, total			116,596	100	121,430 ^{a/}	100
Animal and vegetal products:						
Alfalfa	133.4	169.2	1,381	1	4,720	4
Cereals, excluding wheat	253.3	204.6	4,814	4	5,673	5
Citrus	164.8	191.4	5,051	4	4,794	4
Cork	48.5	57.3	2,124	2	3,713	3
Flour	112.5	144.4	5,900	5	7,854	6
Hides and skins	4.0	5.7	1,330	1	2,562	2
Olive oil	7.8	8.7	1,294	--	2,001	1
Potatoes	91.3	133.3	2,818	2	2,677	2
Tobacco	15.3	18.8	2,648	2	3,621	3
Vegetables, excluding potatoes	167.8	148.8	6,191	5	4,727	4
Wine	1,221.4	996.4	52,497	45	37,525	31
Minerals:						
Iron ore	2,483.2	2,722.4	4,141	4	5,557	5
Phosphates	592.2	695.4	1,487	1	2,113	2
Morocco, total			66,403	100	86,172 ^{a/}	100
Animal and vegetal products:						
Citrus	137.8	111.9	3,912	6	3,656	4
Cork	25.5	31.2	643	1	1,367	2
Fibres	56.3	60.1	1,250	2	1,531	2
Leather	1.4	2.6	996	1	2,039	2
Maize and barley . . .	333.4	370.2	5,577	8	9,778	11
Preserved fish	57.6	40.0	8,983	14	7,551	9
Vegetables	141.1	126.5	4,437	7	4,833	6
Minerals:						
Cobalt	--	7.0	--	--	567	1
Iron ore	289.7	545.0	300	--	681	1
Lead ore	58.9	53.5	2,177	3	2,804	3
Manganese ore	267.3	353.4	2,399	4	3,915	5
Phosphates	4,142.3	4,450.2	12,777	19	16,878	20

Table VI (continued)

Country and Commodity	Volume		Value		1951	
	1950	1951	1950 Amount	Per cent of total	Amount	Per cent of total
<u>Tunisia, total</u>			39,826 ^{a/}	100	35,212	100
<u>Animal and vegetal products:</u>						
Alfalfa	141.0	164.9	1,767	4	5,278	15
Barley	189.0	62.9	3,799	10	1,502	4
Citrus	14.4	11.5	430	1	360	1
Olive oil	73.9	12.8	11,550	29	3,674	10
Vegetables	53.6	13.1	1,330	3	437	1
Wheat	143.9	44.9	2,539	6	1,480	4
Wine	36.5	39.9	1,518	4	1,541	4
<u>Minerals:</u>						
Iron Ore	701.3	882.8	1,231	3	1,929	5
Lead ore	21.4	22.9	2,038	5	3,124	9
Phosphates	1,688.4	2,091.8	4,216	11	5,745	16
Zinc	5.9	7.7	141	--	308	1
B. French Tropical Africa (millions of CFA francs)						
<u>French West Africa, total</u>			30,965	100	38,698 ^{a/}	100
Bananas	68.7	70.0	1,007	3	1,128	3
Cocoa	61.8	55.5	4,714	15	6,152	16
Coffee	57.7	62.9	7,143	23	9,683	25
Ground-nut oil	71.4	53.4	5,241	17	5,349	14
Ground-nuts, shelled.	200.3	166.7	5,781	19	6,319	16
Palm kernels	84.5	75.3	2,233	7	2,596	7
Palm oil	11.8	14.5	469	2	945	2
Timber	109.9	131.0	643	2	1,057	3
<u>Togoland, total</u>			1,528	100	2,699	100
Cocoa	4.2	5.3	415	27	641	24
Coffee	1.2	3.4	142	9	550	20
Copra	4.5	6.2	149	9	289	11
Cotton and cotton-seed	0.5	2.2	59	4	370	14
Ground-nuts, shelled.	2.1	3.5	65	4	145	5
Palm kernels	12.7	7.5	343	22	266	10

Table VI (continued)

Country and Commodity	Volume		Value			
	1950	1951	1950	Per cent Amount of total	1951	Per cent Amount of total
B. French Tropical Africa (millions of CFA francs) (continued)						
<u>French Equatorial Africa,</u>						
Total			7,926 ^{b/a/}	100	11,405 ^{b/a/}	100
<u>Vegetal products:</u>						
Cocoa	2.4	2.2	110	1	244	2
Coffee	4.7	4.2	575	7	646	6
Cotton and cotton- seed	24.0	27.0	3,427	43	4,929	43
Wood	258.3	282.7	1,974	25	3,174	28
<u>Minerals:</u>						
Diamonds	135.6 ^{c/}	147.5 ^{c/}	223	3	245	2
Gold	1.4 ^{d/}	1.6 ^{d/}	323	4	309	3
<u>Cameroons, total</u>			8,191	100	11,372	100
Bananas	48.0	55.1	1,023	12	1,012	9
Cocoa	43.7	48.8	3,977	49	5,842	51
Coffee	7.7	8.7	1,083	13	1,497	13
Palm kernels	28.8	27.2	785	10	1,077	9
Wood	77.3	78.7	410	5	558	5
C. Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi (millions of CB francs)						
Total			13,378 ^{b/}	100	19,877 ^{b/}	100
<u>Vegetal products: total.</u>						
Oleagenous products			2,070	15	3,931	20
Coffee	33.4	35.4	1,279	10	1,710	9
Cotton	51.0	41.2	1,781	13	2,105	11
Oil cakes	13.9	27.2	31	--	80	--
Palm kernels	85.8	87.5	587	4	842	4
Palm oil	132.0	132.0	1,333	10	2,430	12
Rubber	8.2	12.2	187	1	694	3
Wood	104.4	129.9	175	1	238	1
<u>Minerals: total</u>						
Cassiterite	16.4	14.0	1,012	8	1,406	7
Cobalt ores	9.0	9.8	727	5	994	5
Copper	166.9	183.9	3,189	24	4,750	24
Crude zinc concentrates	129.6	168.6	228	2	646	3
Diamonds	9.7 ^{e/}	10.3 ^{e/}	496	4	582	3
Gold	10.7 ^{d/}	11.4 ^{d/}	598	4	766	4
Manganese ore	14.2	65.7	13	--	71	--
Tin	4.0	2.7	337	3	387	2

Table VI (continued)

Country and Commodity	Volume		Value			
	1950	1951	1950	Per cent of total	1951	Per cent of total
			Amount		Amount	
D. British West Africa (thousands of pounds sterling)						
<u>Gambia</u> , total			2,286	100	3,369	100
Ground-nuts	41.8	38.3	2,107	92	2,679	80
<u>Sierra Leone</u> , total			6,661 ^{f/}	100	9,855 ^{f/}	100
<u>Vegetal products:</u>						
Cocoa	1.6	1.8	117	2	526	5
Ginger	2.3	3.3	564	8	772	8
Ground-nuts	3.5	3.7	100	2	189	2
Kola nuts	1.1	1.5	106	2	182	2
Palm kernels	72.4	76.3	2,278	34	4,550	46
Palm oil	1.9	3.2	105	2	261	3
Piassava fibre	5.4	6.2	273	4	283	3
<u>Minerals:</u>						
Chrome ore	14.1	12.1	94	1	116	1
Diamonds	638.0 ^{c/}	477.0 ^{c/}
Iron ore	1,160.9	1,203.7
<u>Gold Coast</u> , total			75,216 ^{f/}	100	89,268 ^{f/}	100
<u>Vegetal products:</u>						
Cocoa	271.7	229.6	54,604	73	60,310	68
Timber	207.0	200.6	3,885	5	5,022	6
<u>Minerals:</u>						
Bauxite	117.0	143.3	223		247	
Diamonds	932.4 ^{c/}	1,632.0 ^{c/}	1,837	2	5,703	6
Gold	705.0 ^{g/}	692.0 ^{g/}	8,719	12	8,564	10
Manganese ore	722.4	845.0	5,008	7	7,416	8
<u>Nigeria</u> , total			88,487 ^{f/}	100	126,907 ^{f/}	100
<u>Animal and vegetal products:</u>						
Bananas	57.9	73.0	1,746	2	2,203	2
Cocoa	101.8	123.4	18,984	21	36,565	29
Cotton, raw and lint.	12.8	15.6	2,975	3	5,316	4
Ground-nuts	322.0	143.6	15,237	17	10,144	8
Hides and skins	14.0	14.2	6,380	7	7,914	6
Palm kernels.	423.1	352.6	16,694	19	21,890	17
Palm oil	175.8	152.1	12,072	14	14,143	11
Rubber	13.6	21.2	2,834	3	8,154	6
Timber.	198.1	361.7	2,499	3	5,575	4

Table VI (continued)

Country and Commodity	Volume		Value			
	1950	1951	1950	1951	1950	1951
			Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
			Amount	of total	Amount	of total
<u>Minerals:</u>						
Tin ore	11.6	11.9	6,020	7	8,974	7
E. British East Africa (thousands of pounds sterling)						
<u>Kenya</u> , total			17,182 ^{f/}	100	24,068 ^{f/}	100
<u>Animal and vegetal products:</u>						
Coffee	10.4	10.1	3,549	21	4,096	17
Cotton, raw	1.3	1.8	228	1	986	4
Hides and skins	5.9	4.8	1,939	11	2,156	9
Maize	31.5	20.3	720	4	667	3
Sisal fibre and tow	36.6	39.6	4,061	24	6,948	29
Tea	4.2	4.2	1,334	8	1,397	6
Wattle extract	24.5	22.6	979	6	1,264	5
Wood and timber	19.3	30.5	510	3	857	4
<u>Minerals:</u>						
Sodium Carbonate	102.6	126.0	861	5	1,184	5
<u>Uganda</u> , total			28,669 ^{f/}	100	47,197 ^{f/}	100
Animal feed	16.2	22.3	276	1	415	1
Beans and peas	7.1	6.1	203	1	226	--
Coffee	32.4	44.4	8,332	29	13,654	29
Cotton, raw	63.2	62.8	16,698	58	28,742	61
Hides and skins	2.1	2.2	737	3	1,184	2
Oil-seeds and nuts	54.9	36.6	1,106	4	1,121	2
Sisal	1.0	1.0	107	--	194	--
Tea	1.0	0.9	244	1	265	1
<u>Tanganyika</u> , total			23,763 ^{f/}	100	39,343 ^{f/}	100
<u>Animal and vegetal products:</u>						
Beans and peas	9.1	11.2	322	1	472	1
Coffee	15.2	16.8	3,471	15	4,503	12
Cotton	7.1	8.4	1,443	6	2,767	7
Hides and skins	5.5	4.1	1,378	6	1,674	4
Oil-seeds and nuts	20.3	22.4	675	3	1,540	4
Sisal	120.9	144.3	11,846	51	23,689	60
Wood and timber	13.2	16.3	342	1	490	1
<u>Minerals:</u>						
Gold	65 ^{h/}	66 ^{h/}	808	4	820	2

Table VI (continued)

Country and Commodity	Volume		Value			
	1950	1951	1950 Amount	Per cent of total	1951 Amount	Per cent of total
F. British Central Africa (thousands of pounds sterling)						
Nyasaland, total			4,980 ^{f/i/}	100	5,769 ^{f/i/}	100
Cotton lint	1.6	1.1	335	7	330	6
Hides and skins	0.1	0.2	6	--	45	1
Maize	13.5	...	--	360	6
Shooks for packing cases.	1.7	1.2	32	1	24	--
Soya beans.	0.2	0.4	6	--	21	--
Tea	6.9	7.1	1,691	34	2,029	35
Tobacco	11.0	12.4	2,767	56	2,733	47
Tung oil.	0.3	0.2	46	1	64	1
Northern Rhodesia, total			49,400 ^{f/}	100	66,396 ^{f/}	100
Animal and vegetal products:						
Hides, cattle.	2.1	2.1	340	1	419	1
Tobacco (unmanufactured)	2.9	4.7	1,004	2	1,639	2
Minerals:						
Cobalt alloy	1.8	1.7	530	1	515	1
Copper, blister.	221.0	189.9	31,588	64	35,005	53
Copper, electrolytic, cathode form.	9.2	35.0	1,453	3	6,528	10
Copper, electrolytic, wire bars.	63.4	70.4	9,589	19	13,725	21
Lead, bar ingot and pig	12.6	11.8	1,334	3	1,926	3
Zinc ingots.	23.0	22.6	2,631	5	5,699	9
Southern Rhodesia, total			40,754 ^{f/}	100	42,015 ^{f/}	100
Animal and vegetal products:						
Hides, cattle.	7.2	8.4	1,424	3	2,391	6
Meat, preserved.	1.1	1.7	225	--	413	1
Tobacco (unmanufactured)	40.5	30.6	17,266	42	13,584	32
Minerals:						
Asbestos, raw.	66.9	62.0	5,190	13	5,101	12
Chrome ore	241.8	305.4	1,661	4	2,182	5
Coal	797.1	891.9	417	1	527	1
Gold	6,489	16	6,108	14
Manufactured products:						
Apparel.		1/	1,951	5	2,827	7
Cotton piece goods	2,250.7	3,676.8 ^{j/}	197	--	334	1
Cigarettes	0.5	0.6 ^{k/}	498	1	652	2
Footwear	896.6	1,072.2 ^{k/}	242	1	339	1
Machinery.			158	--	272	1

Table VI (continued)

Country and Commodity	Volume		Value			
	1950	1951	1950	1951	1950	1951
			Per cent		Per cent	
			Amount of total		Amount of total	
G. Union of South Africa (thousands of South African pounds)						
	Total		228,740 ^{1/}	100	309,762 ^{1/}	100
<u>Animal and vegetal products:</u>						
Fish.	11.1	12.0	2,089	1	2,384	1
Fruit, citrus	147.3	143.6	6,517)	6	3,911)	4
Fruit, other.	82.9	86.1	5,989)		7,288)	
Hides and skins	31.5	23.6	9,250	4	10,293	3
Jams.	10.6	22.1	786	--	1,751	1
Maize	19.6	166.8	378	--	5,287	2
Sugar	63.1	61.6	2,101	1	1,810	1
Wattle bark and bark extract.	133.6	126.8	4,370	2	6,007	2
Wool, greasy and scoured.	89.8	87.7	62,226	28	74,707	24
<u>Minerals:</u>						
Antimony concentrates	12.3	21.7	810	...	2,962	1
Asbestos.	92.1	114.4	5,102	2	6,985	2
Chrome ore.	491.7	515.3	1,451	1	1,587	1
Coal, cargo and bunker	2,945.6	1,956.2	5,543	2	3,715	1
Copper blocks and ingots.	34.5 ^{c/}	29.6 ^{c/}	5,503	2	7,219	2
Diamonds, cut	114 ^{c/}	117 ^{c/}	8,119)		9,832)	
Diamonds, rough.	2,920 ^{c/}	4,483 ^{c/}	12,015)	9	15,379)	8
Gold, semi processed.	29,874	13	44,655	15
Manganese ore	696.1	585.8	3,187	1	3,155	1
<u>Manufactured products:</u>						
Apparel, outer garments.	2,180	1	3,161	1
Footwear.	1,279 ^{k/}	1,512 ^{k/}	1,240	1	1,731	1
Gold and silver plate and plated ware.	3,918	2	20,634	7
Machinery and parts	3,593	2	5,088	2
Motor cars and trucks	4,308 ^{m/}	6,148 ^{m/}	2,335	1	3,646	1
Tires and tubes	7.2	7.3	2,923	1	4,336	1

Source: See table V.

- a/ Total differs slightly from revised total shown in table IV.
b/ Including gold.
c/ Thousands of carats.
d/ Thousands of kilogrammes.
e/ Millions of carats.
f/ Domestic exports including gold.
g/ Thousands of fine ounces.

- h/ Thousands of troy ounces.
i/ Excluding gold bullion.
j/ Thousands of yards
k/ Thousands of pairs
l/ Domestic exports, including gold concentrates, ores and semi-processed gold, but excluding gold bullion.
m/ Number.

Table VII. Trade of Selected Countries with their
Metropolitan Powers, 1950 and 1951

(Values in national currencies)

Country, unit and year	Trade with the metropolitan Power					Balance of trade with rest of world
	Imports	Exports	Balance	Imports as percentage of area total	Exports as percentage of area total	
<u>French North Africa (millions of metropolitan francs)</u>						
<u>Algeria:</u>						
1950.....	123,341	85,145	-38,196	81.1	73.0	2,799
1951.....	151,778	80,266	-71,512	75.5	66.1	-8,183
<u>Morocco:</u>						
1950.....	69,902	24,274	-45,628	60.7	36.6	-3,202
1951.....	90,904	35,575	-55,329	56.9	41.3	-18,197
<u>Tunisia:</u>						
1950.....	40,218	18,382	-21,836	78.1	46.2	10,129
1951.....	45,063	15,907	-29,156	75.8	45.2	4,873
<u>Total trade with France:</u>						
1950.....	233,461	127,801	-105,660	73.2	57.4	9,726
1951.....	287,745	131,748	-155,997	68.5	54.3	-21,507
<u>French tropical Africa (millions of CFA francs)</u>						
<u>Cameroons:</u>						
1950.....	7,246	4,747	-2,499	68.5	58.0	128
1951.....	11,622	6,857	-4,765	70.5	60.3	-359
<u>French Equatorial Africa:</u>						
1950.....	8,540	5,110	-3,430	63.8	64.5	-2,038
1951.....	11,347	8,267	-3,080	62.2	72.5	-3,758
<u>French West Africa:</u>						
1950.....	28,510	21,870	-6,640	67.6	70.6	-4,565
1951.....	45,067	27,564	-17,503	73.5	71.2	-5,135
<u>Togoland:</u>						
1950.....	942	828	-114	58.0	54.2	18
1951.....	1,267	1,974	707	54.4	73.1	-339
<u>Total trade with France:</u>						
1950.....	45,238	32,555	-12,683	66.8	67.0	-6,457
1951.....	69,303	44,662	-24,641	70.4	69.6	-9,591

Table VII (continued)

Country, unit and year	Trade with the metropolitan Power					Balance of trade with rest of world
	Imports	Exports	Balance	Imports as percentage of area total	Exports as percentage of area total	

Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi (Millions of CB francs)

Total trade with Belgium and Luxembourg:

1950.....	3,779	7,966 ^{a/}	4,187	39.2	58.4	-190
1951.....	6,181	11,450 ^{a/}	5,269	40.1	56.9	-573

British West Africa (thousands of pounds sterling)

Gambia:

1950.....	1,749	2,200	451	59.9	55.0	-1,087
1951.....	2,399	3,074	675	95.3	91.2	-1,303

Gold Coast:

1950.....	26,912	30,651	3,739	56.1	40.1	24,668
1951.....	33,504	37,839	4,335	52.9	41.5	23,623

Nigeria:

1950.....	37,024	71,455	34,431	59.8	79.2	-6,076
1951.....	43,467	97,411	53,944	52.2	74.7	-7,987

Sierre Leone:

1950.....	4,310	5,541	1,231	63.9	79.7	-1,028
1951.....	5,154	8,414	3,260	62.8	83.6	-1,398

Total trade with United

Kingdom:

1950.....	68,246	107,647	39,401	58.5	62.0	17,564
1951.....	82,125	143,664	61,539	52.7	62.0	14,238

British East Africa (thousands of pounds sterling)

Kenya:

1950.....	19,605	7,290	-12,315	57.5	35.2	-1,026
1951.....	22,322	7,539	-14,783	41.9	27.6	-11,178

Tanganyika:

1950.....	13,405	10,160 ^{b/}	-3,245	55.9	41.7	3,601 ^{b/}
1951.....	12,521	16,251	3,730	44.7	40.3	8,598

Table VII (continued)

Country, unit and year	Trade with the metropolitan Power					Balance of trade with rest of world
	Imports	Exports	Balance	Imports as percentage of area total	Exports as percentage of area total	
<u>Uganda:</u>						
1950.....	8,182	8,209	27	53.1	28.4	13,450
1951.....	10,268	14,223	3,955	45.8	30.0	21,052
<u>Total trade with United Kingdom:</u>						
1950.....	41,192	25,659	-15,533	56.1	34.7	16,025
1951.....	45,111	38,013	-7,098	43.5	33.0	18,472
<u>British Central Africa^{c/} (thousands of pounds sterling)</u>						
<u>Northern Rhodesia:</u>						
1950.....	10,613 ^{d/}	23,869	13,256	39.8	47.7	10,102
1951.....	12,342 ^{d/}	38,893	26,551	34.9	58.0	5,158
<u>Nyasaland:</u>						
1950.....	3,648	3,300	-348	50.4	65.3	-1,843
1951.....	3,548	3,923	375	48.6	66.5	-1,770
<u>Southern Rhodesia:</u>						
1950.....	27,661 ^{d/}	22,592	-5,069	47.0	46.8	-5,552
1951.....	37,046 ^{d/}	20,059	-16,987	43.2	38.7	-16,974
<u>Total trade with United Kingdom:</u>						
1950.....	41,922	49,761	7,839	45.2	48.1	2,709
1951.....	52,936	62,875	9,939	41.2	50.4	-13,585

Footnotes to table VII

Source: Bulletin Mensuel d'Informations Generalset Revue des Marches de la Banque du Congo Belge (Brussels) April 1952; Bulletin Mensuel de Statistique d'outre-Mer, (Paris) September-October 1952; East African Economic and Statistical Bulletin, No. 16, (Nairobi) June 1952; Economic and Statistical Bulletin of the Gold Coast, No. 24 (Accra), August 1952; Nigeria Trade Summary vol. 36, (Lagos) December 1951; Nigeria Department of Statistics, Trade Report for the Year 1950; Nigeria Department of Commerce and Industries, Handbook of Commerce and Industries, (Lagos) 1952; Central African Statistical Office, The Trade of Northern Rhodesia, 1951, (Lusaka), 1952; Northern Rhodesia Economic and Statistical Bulletin,

Footnotes to table VII (continued)

vol. IV, No. 11, (Lusaka) February 1952; Colonial Report on Norther Rhodesia, 1951, page 108; Nyasaland, United Nations, Information transmitted by the United Kingdom in accordance with Article 73 (e) of the Charter, 1951; Sierra Leone Trade Report (Freetown) 1951; Central African Statistical Office, Economic and Statistical Bulletin of Southern Rhodesia, vol. XIX, No. 22, 21 February 1951; Gambia, Trade Report for the Year 1951 (Bathurst), 1952.

Exports include re-exports and gold. Totals may differ slightly from revised totals in table IV.

- a/ Including goods destined for Benelux, temporarily held at the ports of Beira and Lobito.
- b/ Excluding £698,000 in gold, silver and diamonds exported in 1949, but included in 1950 trade report.
- c/ Including the non-dependent territory of Southern Rhodesia.
- d/ Imports reported f.o.b.

Table VIII. Trade with the United States

(Values in national currencies)

Country and year	Value			Trade with United States as percentage of country's total	
	Imports from United States	Exports to United States	Balance of trade	Imports	Exports
<u>French North Africa (millions of metropolitan francs)</u>					
<u>Algeria:</u>					
1950.....	6,967	1,456	-5,511	4.6	1.2
1951.....	9,537	2,289	-7,248	4.7	1.9
<u>Morocco:</u>					
1950.....	9,448	1,083	-8,365	8.2	1.6
1951.....	13,220	2,199	-11,021	8.3	2.6
<u>Tunisia:</u>					
1950.....	2,879	962	-1,917	5.6	2.4
1951.....	2,343	483	-1,860	3.9	1.4
<u>French Tropical Africa (millions of CFA francs)</u>					
<u>Cameroons:</u>					
1950.....	967	229	-738	9.2	2.8
1951.....	1,047	608	-439	6.3	5.3
<u>French Equatorial Africa:</u>					
1950.....	1,727	11	-1,716	13.0	0.1
1951.....	1,944	27	-1,917	10.7	0.2
<u>French West Africa:</u>					
1950.....	3,924	657	-3,267	9.3	2.1
1951.....	3,099	654	-2,445	5.1	1.7
<u>Togoland:</u>					
1950.....	114	-	-114	7.0	-
1951.....	88	-	-88	3.8	-
<u>Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi (millions of CB francs)</u>					
1950.....	2,391	1,755 ^{a/}	-636	24.8	12.9
1951.....	3,445	2,601 ^{a/}	-844	22.3	12.9

Table VIII (continued)

Country and year	Value			Trade with United States as percentage of country's total	
	Imports from United States	Exports to United States	Balance of trade	Imports	Exports
<u>British West Africa (thousands of pounds sterling)</u>					
<u>Gambia:</u>					
1950.....	79	-	-79	3	-
1951.....	151	3	-148	4	-
<u>Gold Coast:</u>					
1950.....	2,683	23,022	20,339	5.6	30.1
1951.....	3,432	28,465	25,033	5.4	31.2
<u>Nigeria:</u>					
1950.....	2,502	13,211	10,709	4.0	14.6
1951.....	3,716	18,343	14,627	4.5	14.1
<u>Sierra Leone:</u>					
1950.....	132	511	379	2.0	7.3
1951.....	254	626	372	3.1	6.2
<u>British East Africa (thousands of pounds sterling)</u>					
<u>Kenya:</u>					
1950.....	1,607	2,309	702	4.7	11.1
1951.....	1,490	2,697	1,207	2.8	9.9
<u>Tanganyika:</u>					
1950.....	1,528	2,216	688	6.4	9.1
1951.....	1,001	7,023	6,022	3.6	17.4
<u>Uganda:</u>					
1950.....	688	2,642	1,954	4.5	9.1
1951.....	807	2,380	1,573	3.6	5.0
<u>British Central Africa (thousands of pounds sterling)</u>					
<u>Northern Rhodesia:</u>					
1950.....	1,959 ^{b/}	10,822	8,863	7.3	21.3
1951.....	2,071 ^{b/}	6,460	4,389	5.9	9.6

Table VIII (continued)

Country and year	Value			Trade with United States as percentage of country's total	
	Imports from United States	Exports to United States	Balance of trade	Imports	Exports
<u>Nyasaland:</u>					
1950.....	605	151	-454	7.7	3.0
1951.....	164	71	-93	2.3	1.2
<u>Southern Rhodesia:</u>					
1950.....	2,886 ^{b/}	2,478	-408	4.9	5.1
1951.....	4,235 ^{b/}	2,185	-2,050	4.9	4.2
<u>Union of South Africa (thousands of South African pounds)</u>					
1950.....	49,237 ^{b/}	21,211 ^{c/}	-28,026	16.0	8.7
1951.....	90,920 ^{b/}	35,325 ^{c/}	-55,595	19.4	10.5

Source: See table VII; also Union of South Africa, Department of Customs and Excise, Monthly Abstract of Trade Statistics (Pretoria) January-December 1951.

Exports include re-exports and gold.

- a/ Including goods destined for the United States, held temporarily in the ports of Beira and Lobito.
- b/ Imports f.o.b.
- c/ Excluding ship stores, specie and gold bullion.

Table IX. Union of South Africa: Trade with African Territories,
1950 and 1951

(Thousands of South African pounds)

Territory	1950			1951		
	Imports a/	Exports	Balance	Imports a/	Exports	Balance
British territories:						
British West Africa.	836	880	44	2,619	1,140	- 1,479
Kenya.....	590	1,796	1,206	900	2,385	1,485
Mauritius.....	6	490	484	11	691	- 680
Northern Rhodesia...	4,665	7,500	2,835	9,253	10,718	1,465
Nyasaland.....	123	450	327	218	547	329
St. Helena.....	-	26	26	-	41	- 41
Southern Rhodesia...	4,681	19,867	15,186	6,799	30,743	23,944
South West Africa...	4,721	10,574	5,853	5,534	14,069	8,535
Tanganyika.....	881	762	- 119	1,109	891	- 218
Uganda.....	1,335	108	- 1,227	1,408	256	- 1,152
Zanzibar.....	30	103	73	43	73	30
Total, British territories...	17,868	42,556	24,688	27,894	61,554	33,660
Per cent of total trade of Union of South Africa.....	5.8	17.4		5.9	18.3	
Other African territories:						
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	31	175	144	25	355	330
Angola.....	1,034	84	- 950	914	160	- 754
Belgian Congo.....	6,214	2,014	- 4,200	6,594	3,085	- 3,509
Morocco.....	1,292	550	- 742	1,339	353	- 986
Mozambique.....	1,503	2,371	868	1,930	3,381	1,451
Total, other African territories	10,074	5,194	- 4,880	10,802	7,334	- 3,468
Per cent of total trade of Union of South Africa.....	3.3	2.1		2.3	2.2	
All African territories	27,942	47,750	19,808	38,696	68,888	30,192
Per cent of total trade of Union of South Africa.....	9.1	19.5		8.2	20.5	

Source: Union of South Africa, Department of Customs and Excise
Monthly Abstract of Trade Statistics, (Pretoria), January-December 1951.

a/ Imports f.o.b.

Table X. Union of South Africa: International Transactions
1949, 1950 and 1951

(Millions of South African pounds)

Item	1949	1950	1951
<u>Current transactions:</u>			
Exports f.o.b.....	140	209	276
Imports f.o.b.....	-314	-305	-467
Trade balance.....	-174	- 96	-191
Non-monetary gold (net).....	114	147	148
Investment income (net payments -)...	- 31	- 35	- 42
Private donations (net receipts).....	...	2	3
Other services.....	- 23	- 18	- 27
Net current transactions.....	-114	---	-109
<u>Net movement of capital and monetary gold:</u>			
Private capital, including net errors and omissions.....	50	553	65
Official and banking institutions:			
Long-term.....	83	17	5
Short-term (increase -).....	-26	-45	37
Monetary gold (increase -).....	7	-25	2
Net movement of capital and monetary gold	114	---	109

Source: International Monetary Fund, Balance of Payments Yearbook (Washington, D.C.), vol. 3, 1949/50 and vol. 4, 1950/51.

Table XI. Union of South Africa: Financing of International Transactions, by Areas, 1949, 1950 and 1951
(Millions of South African pounds)

Item	Sterling area			Non-sterling areas						Unallocated		
	1949 1950 1951			Dollar area			Other non-sterling areas			1949 1950 1951		
	1949	1950	1951	1949	1950	1951	1949	1950	1951	1949	1950	1951
<u>Transactions:</u>												
Exports	63	97	136	21	38	51	54	71	89	2	-1	...
Imports	-156	-159	-218	-114	-77	-130	-42	-69	-119	-2
Trade balance	-93	-62	-82	-93	-39	-79	12	2	-30	-	-1	...
Non-monetary gold movement (net)	114	147	148
Services, private donations and capital movements including net errors and omissions	23	26	28	-12	-1	-17	-17	-19	-12	4
Deficit (-) or surplus	-70	-36	-54	-105	-40	-96	-5	-17	-42	116	146	148
<u>Special official financing</u>	4 ^{a/}	-	-	-
<u>Compensatory official financing:</u>												
Multilateral settlements	-45	-15	-44	41	7	3	4	8	41			
Gold loan to United Kingdom repaid	80
New borrowing and credits	3	10	4	5	...	3
Use of International Monetary Fund, resources (net)	-4
Other short-term liabilities	1	-2	1	...
Short-term assets (- increase)	-25	-33	31	1	-13	9	-4	-114	-147	-148
Monetary gold (- increase)	57	74	66	63	42	79	1	6	5	-116	-146	-148
Total	70	36	54	105	40	96	5	17	42			

Source: International Monetary Fund, Balance of Payments Yearbook, vol. 3 and vol. 4.

a/ Loan by International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

Table XII. Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi:
Budgetary Credits Allocated for Execution of Ten-Year Plan, 1948 to 1952
(Millions of Belgian Congo francs)

Item	Total estimated cost of original plan	Budgetary credits					Total, 1948 to 1952
		1948	1949	1950	1951	1952 estimate	
<u>Colony and FBFI: ^{a/}</u>							
Annual allocations:							
Colony		--	--	488	349	386	1,224
	2,408						
FBFI		--	12 ^{b/}	41 ^{b/}	45 ^{b/}	78	175
Three-year allocations:							
Colony		45	240	6,312	1,375	2,394	10,366
	16,128.5						
FBFI		--	113 ^{b/}	127 ^{b/}	129 ^{b/}	91	460
Total Colony		45	240	6,800	1,724	2,780	11,589
Total FBFI	18,536.5	--	124 ^{b/}	168 ^{b/}	174 ^{b/}	168	634
<u>OTRACO: ^{c/}</u>							
Authorized commitments . .	--	--	2,941	199	1,443	4,291	8,874
Supplementary credits . . .	--	--	344	72	--	--	416
Total OTRACO	3,161.8	--	3,285	271	1,443	4,291	9,290
REGIDESO ^{d/}	1,616.5	--	251	319	180	326	1,076
African Housing Office. . . .	2,244	--	--	188	--	--	188
Total cost	25,558.8	45	3,900	7,746	3,521	7,565	22,777

Source: Bulletin de la Banque Centrale du Congo Belge et du Ruanda-Urundi (Brussels), July 1952.

a/ African Welfare Fund (Fonds de Bien-être Indigène).

b/ Sums committed.

c/ Colonial Transport Office (Office d'exploitation de Transports Coloniaux).

d/ Water and Electricity Authority (Régie de Distribution d'eau et d'électricité du Congo belge et du Ruanda-Urundi).

Table XIII. Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi: Credits, Commitments and Payments
under Ten-Year Plan, 31 December 1950 and 1951
(Millions of Belgian Congo francs)

Budget	Anticipated credits to 31 December 1951	Sums committed		Payments	
		to 31 De- cember 1950	to 31 De- cember 1951 ^{a/}	to 31 De- cember 1950 ^{a/}	to 31 De- cember 1951 ^{a/}
Belgian Congo budget	8,806	827	3,711	372	1,667
OTRACO ^{b/} budget	4,999	1,600 ^{a/}	3,434	934	2,140
REGIDESO ^{c/} budget	750	218 ^{a/}	488	194 ^{a/}	425
African Welfare Fund budget . . .	466 ^{d/}	292	466	180	375
African Housing Office budget . .	188	96	147	52	83
Total	15,209	3,033	8,246	1,732	4,690

Source: Bulletin de la Banque Centrale du Congo Belge et du Ruanda-Urundi, July 1952.

- a/ Estimated.
b/ Colonial Transport Office (Office d'exploitation de Transports Coloniaux).
c/ Water and Electricity Authority (Régie de Distribution d'eau et d'électricité du Congo belge et du Ruanda-Urundi).
d/ Sums committed.

Table XIV. Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi: Credits, Commitments and Payments under
 Ten-Year Plan, by Principal Categories, 1950 and 1951
 (Millions of Belgian Congo francs)

Category	Credits 1950 and 1951	Sums committed		Payments	
		to 31 December 1950	1951	to 31 December 1950	1951
Railways	25.3	--	--	--	--
Roads	2,116.9	149.1	470.0	10.1	143.2
Waterways	778.9	39.5	111.6	13.7	53.9
Air transport	774.5	16.1	325.2	12.8	16.8
Urban developments	1,935.6	150.8	1,035.2	34.0	442.0
Silos	137.0	--	0.6	--	0.1
Cartography and geodesy	39.3	--	16.8	--	4.0
Geological surveys	24.1	9.4	11.5	2.4	7.5
Meteorology	42.3	13.2	22.5	1.8	9.3
Telecommunications	98.9	17.2	46.7	3.0	25.8
Electricity	500.0	42.0	122.0	24.0	116.0
Teaching	644.2	77.8	122.2	59.2	83.8
Medical services	802.3	52.2	204.3	16.0	53.8
Immigration	200.0	--	199.0	--	199.0
Soil conservation	143.5	25.8	52.2	7.8	20.2
Forest conservation	21.4	4.5	5.8	3.2	4.5
Fishing	29.1	4.3	12.4	0.6	5.0
Processing of agricultural products	66.2	0.2	40.6	--	32.9
Animal husbandry	16.2	0.1	2.7	--	0.6
INEACA/	155.8	61.8	42.8	33.3	34.3
Total	8,521.5	664.0	2,844.1	221.9	1,252.7

Source: Bulletin de la Banque Centrale du Congo Belge et du Ruanda-Urundi, July 1952.

a/ National Institute for agronomic studies in the Belgian Congo (Institut National pour l'étude agronomique du Congo belge).

Table XV. British Territories: Approved Development Plans, 31 March 1952
(Thousands of pounds sterling)

Territory	Total	Colonial Development and Welfare Fund	Loan funds	Local resources	Total loan funds and local resources
British Somaliland . . .	750	750	--	--	--
Gambia	2,130	1,500	200	430	630
Gold Coast	74,791	3,000	23,000	48,791	71,791
Kenya	35,490	3,500	16,500	15,490	31,990
Mauritius	8,052	1,838	4,538	1,676	6,214
Nigeria	52,245	23,739	15,267	13,239	28,506
Northern Rhodesia . . .	33,278	2,778	9,000	21,500	30,500
Nyasaland	12,292	2,974	3,000	6,318	9,318
Sierra Leone	10,695	2,900	5,000	2,795	7,795
Tanganyika	24,450	5,349	9,000	10,101	19,101
Uganda	28,500	2,500	2,000	24,000	26,000
Zanzibar	1,430	900	--	530	530

Source: United Kingdom, The Colonial Territories, 1951-1952 Cmd.8553 (London).

Table XVI. French North Africa: Expenditures under Development Plan, 1951 and 1952
(Millions of Metropolitan francs)

Item	1951				1952			
	Algeria	Tunisia	Morocco	Total	Algeria	Tunisia	Morocco	Total
Economic development:								
Agriculture and soil rehabilitation. . .	3,699	2,032	4,424	10,155	5,075	2,450	4,403	11,928
Hydraulics . . .	8,266	5,251	7,582	21,099	11,653	6,528	4,935	23,116
Electricity and gas.	17,725	1,670	14,406	33,801	16,322	2,312	9,236	27,870
Coal . . .	275	--	3,837	4,112	224	--	575	799
Mineral surveys. . .	2,590	2,370	1,923	6,883	2,255	2,510	4,437	9,202
Industrial Equipment	1,078	100	--	1,178	1,720	50	289	2,059
Highways . . .	3,466	928	1,961	6,355	3,507	450	1,730	5,687
Seaports . . .	1,148	1,092	2,320	4,560	1,800	625	4,595	7,020
Airfields. . .	702	5	227	934	300	20	200	520
Railways . . .	4,600	1,350	2,960	8,910	5,760	1,400	1,890	9,050
Telecommunications .	1,237	433	2,770	4,440	1,985	350	2,041	4,376
Miscellaneous. . .	96	50	433	579	--	--	1,085	1,085
Total	44,882	15,281	42,843	103,006	50,601	16,695	35,416	102,712
Cultural and social development:								
Education. . .	4,867	1,111	4,307	10,285	6,446	1,100	3,773	11,319 ²
Public health. . .	2,084	448	2,017	4,549	3,200	500	2,200	5,900
Housing. . .	5,814	350	5,068	11,232	7,900	1,150	9,500	18,550
Miscellaneous. . .					--	--	305	305
Total	12,765	1,909	11,392	26,066	17,546	2,750	15,778	36,074
Administration. . .	2,267	568	1,568	4,403	3,079	750	1,437	5,266
Reconstruction. . .	--	2,205	--	2,205	--	3,100	--	3,100
Grand Total	59,914	19,963	55,803	135,680	71,226	23,295	52,631	147,152

Source: Commissariat général du plan de modernisation et d'équipement, Cinq ans d'exécution du plan de modernisation et d'équipement de l'Union Française (Paris) 1952.

Table XVII. French North Africa: Budgetary and Extra-Budgetary Expenditures under Development Plans, 1949 to 1952

(Thousand millions of metropolitan francs)

Country and type	1949	1950	1951	1952 estimates
<u>Algeria:</u>				
Regular budget. . .	32.6	38.9	44.2	53.8
Extra budget. . . .	7.5	13.6	15.7	17.4
Total	40.1	52.5	59.9	71.2
<u>Tunisia:</u>				
Regular budget. . .	11.2	14.1	14.6	18.5
Extra budget. . . .	3.9	10.7	5.3	4.8
Total	15.1	24.8	19.3	23.3
<u>Morocco:</u>				
Regular budget. . .	19.2	25.7	34.5	31.4
Extra budget. . . .	17.8	18.2	21.3	21.2
Total	37.0	43.9	55.8	52.6
<u>Total:</u>				
In current prices .	92.2	121.2	135.0	147.1
In prices at end of 1951.	147.0	182.0	162.0	147.1

Source: Cinq ans d'exécution du plan de modernisation et d'équipement de l'Union Française, 1952.

Table XVIII. French Territories South of the Sahara; Commitments, Expenditures and Disbursements under Development Plans, 1950 to 1952
(Cumulative totals, in millions of metropolitan francs)

Item and territory	C u m u l a t i v e t o t a l			
	To 30 June 1950	To 30 June 1951	To 31 December 1951	To 30 June 1952
Authorized commitments:				
Cameroons, French administration. . .	17,207.5	25,245.9	26,403.9	32,771.7
Comoro Islands.	518.7	646.7	1,366.7	1,430.7
French Equatorial Africa.	23,538.4	33,048.8	33,062.8	36,133.2
French Somaliland.	3,011.1	4,025.9	4,508.4	4,508.4
French West Africa.	77,149.8	93,417.1	93,417.1	101,934.1
Madagascar.	19,355.1	23,747.3	23,763.9	23,763.9
Togoland, French administration. . .	3,168.2	4,454.2	5,142.2	4,975.4
Total	143,948.8	184,585.9	187,665.0	205,517.4
General allocation ^{a/}	14,705.9	22,218.8	28,348.6	31,689.2
Grand Total	158,654.7	206,804.7	216,013.6	237,206.6
Anticipated expenditures:				
Cameroons, French administration. . .	11,711.5	18,140.9	18,962.9	23,708.7
Comoro Islands.	433.9	433.9	826.9	886.9
French Equatorial Africa.	9,546.8	23,601.8	23,601.8	29,241.8
French Somaliland.	1,804.7	2,703.0	3,632.9	3,632.9
French West Africa.	40,464.4	60,849.1	60,849.1	72,531.0
Madagascar.	9,947.5	11,645.1	12,845.1	15,772.0
Togoland, French administration. . .	1,930.0	2,843.5	3,560.1	3,590.1
Total	75,838.8	120,217.3	124,278.8	149,363.4
General allocation ^{a/}	11,964.1	20,693.9	26,102.8	29,730.7
Grand Total	87,802.9	140,911.2	150,381.6	179,094.1

Table XVIII. French Territories South of the Sahara; Commitments, Expenditures and Disbursements under Development Plans, 1950 to 1952
(Cumulative totals, in millions of metropolitan francs)
(continued)

Item and territory	C u m u l a t i v e t o t a l		
	To 30 June 1950	To 31 December 1951	To 30 June 1952
Actual disbursements:			
Cameroons, French administration. . .	4,700.9	10,374.3	18,111.4
Comoro Islands.	77.2	138.9	441.8
French Equatorial Africa.	4,574.4	13,038.0	22,228.1
French Somaliland.	1,090.4	2,032.4	3,145.7
French West Africa.	4,574.4	34,205.2	48,146.6
Madagascar.	4,515.9	7,628.8	12,670.1
Togoland.	1,043.1	2,010.2	2,478.9
Total	37,936.3	69,427.8	111,191.6
General allocation ^{a/}	8,313.6	15,609.4	24,274.5
Grand Total	46,249.9	85,037.2	135,466.1

Source: Ministère de la France d'Outre-mer, Bulletin mensuel de statistique d'Outre-mer (Paris).
a/ A small part of this amount is allocated to territories outside Africa.