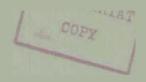
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REVIEW OF ECONOMIC ACTIVITY IN AFRICA 1950 to 1954

Supplement to World Economic Report, 053-54

DESIPANSPA REF. UNIT RM. DC 2-2005



UNITED NATIONS

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UNITED NATIONS

Department of Economic and Social Affairn New York, 1955 E/2738 ST/ECA/33

May 1955

<u>f UNITED NATIONS PUBLICATIONS</u> SALES NO.: 1955. IL C. 3

Price: \$L 50 (U. S. A.); 11/.. stg.; 6.00 Swiss francs (or equivalent in other currencies)

FOREWORD

This report has been prepared in the Bureau of Economic Affairs as a supplement to <u>World Economic Report</u>, 1953-54 (sales number 1955.II.C.1) in response to resolution 367 B (XIII) of the Economic and Social Council. It is issued as a companion volume to the <u>Scope and Structure of Money Economies in Tropical Africa (1955.II.C.)-i.</u>).

It reviews the growth of economic activity in Africa excluding Egypt, but including outlying islands in the Atlantic and Indian Oceans – in the five-year period 1950 to 1954, noting differences in the economic structure of the principal regions of Africa – northern, tropical and southern Africa – and the differing rates of development in each region.

LXPLANATION CF SYMBOLS

The following symbols have been used in the tables throughout the report:

Three dots (\ldots) 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 distinghish thousands and millions

A slash (/) indicates a crop year or fiscal year, e.g., 1952/53.

Use of a hyphen (-) between dates representing years, e.g., 1950-54, 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., 1950 to 1954 means 1950 to 1954, inclusive.

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

The term "billion" signifies a thousand million.

Details <u>ara</u> 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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<u>Chapter i</u> INTRODUCTION

In the five years 1950 to 1954, most parts of Africa experienced an increase in the level of economic activity. The total value of exports, the main source of money incomes in Africa, increased frcm \$3,280 million to \$4,680 million. At the same time expenditure on post-war development plans has been at a high level. These development expenditures have been financed in part - largely in French territories - by funds from external sources and have thus been additional to export earnings. There has also been considerable public foreign investment, particularly in central and southern Africa.

Agricultural production in Africa expanded by over 10 per cent from the 1948 to 1950 average to 1954, approximately the same rate of expansion as for the world as a whole; the rate of expansion in food production was slightly lower. Thus, in general, there has been a modest per capita increase in over-all food production though there have been local variations. The rate of increase in production of most minerals has been greater than that of agricultural production and in scme cases, for example, bauxite in French West Africa and iron ore production in Liberia, large increases have been recorded. The output of electric energy expanded 30 per cent between 1950 and 1953, most territories sharing in the increase. During this period the first phase of the large Owen Falls hydroelectric scheme in Uganda was completed and new hydroelectric plants commenced operation in northern Africa. However, the more industrialized Union of South Africa accounts for more than half the total electric power generated in Africa.

In the continent as a whole there has been a significant expansion of manufacturing activity since 1950, though the greater part of this expansion has taken place in the Union of South Africa and the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, where industrialization was already well established. In the less developed territories there has also been some growth of manufacturing industry, including particularly the manufacture of construction materials and textiles. A further indication of a rise in the general level of economic activity is provided by the fact that in most territories there has been a significant increase in the total number of wage earners.

This expansion in economic activity may be attributed primarily to two factors, generally well sustained demand for African exports and comparatively high level of investment, both public and private. Africa, with other primary producing areas benefited from the high prices associated with Korean hostilities in late 1950 and early 1951. In particular, the prices of minerals, wool, cotton and sisal increased sharply. Though the average prices of fibres were considerably lower in 1952 and 1953, those of minerals, with the exception of tin, zinc and lead, were well maintained. Prices of coffee, cocoa and sugar were relatively unaffected by the Korean crisis and remained at high levels, coffee and cocoa prices showing a marked upward trend in 1953 and 1954. Prices of vegetable oils, particularly palm oil, fell in

1952 and 1953. Since the volume of exports was maintained or increased, especially in regard to minerals, the value of African exports as a whole showed a small but steady increase throughout the period, although experience in individual territories varied according to the composition of their export trade.

Investment in both public and private sectors of the economy has shown continuing expansion, and in Belgian and British territories in particular there has been considerable investment from local funds. The high level of external trade has given rise to increases in government revenues and profits of private enterprise; this has enabled governments to increase expenditure, particularly on development projects, and private enterprise to reinvest part of its profits. In addition to local investment there has been a large inflow of both public and private capital from abroad, mainly from the metropolitan countries.

High export earnings coupled with the increasing pace of development expenditure resulted in increases in incomes of producers and wage earners; consequently there was a demand for consumer goods, both domestic and imported. However, in general, the increases in export incomes were greater in the early part of the period, and thus the effects of increases in consumers' incomes from their main source were somewhat diminished by comparison, after 1951. Although in most territories public expenditure was at a higher level in 1952 and 1953 it was generally insufficient to maintain increases in consumers' incomes at the same rate as in 1950 and 1951. In some cases there may have been a decline in consumers' incomes in 1953.

In tropical Africa, in so far as the increased consumer demand was directed towards demestic production it induced inflation since, in general, domestic production - particularly food production - is relatively inelastic. Since, in 1950, importers were unable to anticipate the sharp rise in export earnings, stocks on hand were insufficient to satisfy the increased demand without price increases. There is evidence that in some territories, because of inadequate port facilities and other reasons, there were difficulties in immediately increasing the volume of consumer goods imports. By 1952, however, increased imports of consumer goods were adequate to meet demands arising from the higher level of incomes and in consequence inflationary pressures diminished.

Among the longer-term considerations are the increasing expenditures of governments on education, health and other social services, and on other projects both within and outside official development plans. The significance of the expenditures in these directions lies in their ultimate effects on the structure of the economies and, although many of these expenditures have fairly immediate results in increasing economic production, a great many will achieve their full effects only after many years. For this as well as for other reasons, it is not possible to evaluate completely the effects of these developments.

Official development expenditures in northern Africa and tropical Africa have been largely directed towards projects for the improvement and extension of basic equipment and facilities, particularly in the fields of

transport and agriculture. As is shown in chapter 8 below, the rate of expenditure on these plans increased considerably between 1950 and 1954. Allowing for the effects of increases in prices and costs, increases in expenditure nevertheless reflect substantial acceleration in the execution of the programmes. Many projects, both large and small, were either completed within the period under review or were already partly in operation. Thus, for example, improvements in harbour facilities in many territories of tropical Africa have already begun to improve the efficiency of handling traffic and to make possible an increase in its volume; in the field of electric energy the Owen Falls scheme in Uganda, among others, was partly completed; in agriculture the large irrigation and resettlement project on the Niger in French West Africa is yielding results, and considerable progress has been made in the Belgian Congo in raising standards of indigenous agriculture through the paysannat indigene.

It has proved necessary to make changes in many of the regional plans not only because of increases in costs but also because of shortages of trained staff and the necessity of revising priority in the light of experience gained. Thus, for example, there has been a tendency in both British and French territories to increase the emphasis placed on projects likely to lead more directly to increases in economic production. All the governments concerned have explicitly recognized the need for further expansion of social services. At the same time many of the development projects themselve give rise to recurrent expenditures which will constitute a charge on general revenue. The need to provide for these essential expenditures gives added weight to the consideration in formulating development plans, that such plans should give high priority to projects which will widen and strengthen the economic structure of the territories.

In view of wide regional differences in the continent as a whole it is desirable to consider separately developments in the major regions, namely, northern Africa, tropical Africa and the Union of South Africa.

The Union of South Africa

The net geographical income or product of the Union of South Africa at current prices, rose from £1,019 million in 1949/50 to £1,392 million in 1952/53, or 36 per cent. Preliminary estimates for 1953/54 show a further increase to £1,521.3 million, about 9 per cent over the previous year. The largest annual gain took place from 1949/50 to 1950/51, when income rose by £215 million, or 21 per cent. This was in part attributable to the rise in incomes arising from agriculture (over £80 million) which in turn reflects the increase in the price of raw wool consequent upon the Korean crisis, and in part to expanded incomes arising from manufacturing (Z53 million). In the following year total net geographical income rose slightly, a decline in agricultural income of \pounds^1 6 million being offset by increases in income from manufacturing and, to a lesser extent, mining. In 1952/53 there was a rise in income from agriculture of about £40 million and this, together with increases in income from manufacturing and other sources, resulted in a gain in total net geographical income of about 10 per cent. The further 9 per cent rise in 1953/1954 was largely accounted for by a further increase in income from agriculture of £43 million, and lesser increases in income arising from manufacturing and from the activities of public authorities.

Income from manufacturing continued to increase during the period, and the percentage contribution of manufacturing industry to the total income rose from 22 per cent to 24 per cent.

Income arising from agriculture fluctuated widely, partly on account of wool prices and partly through natural factors, such as the effect of weather conditions on yields, while the contribution from mining, after increasing rapidly to 1950/52 in response to world demand for minerals, remained practically constant over the following two years. The principal changes are reflected in table 1. The volume of production also increased during the period, though not to the same extent as the value. Thus there was an increase in real income, which was continuous for all the major sectors of the economy except agriculture.

Table 1. Union of South Africa: Net Geographical Product by Type of Industry, 1949/50 to 1953/54

Year	Agriculture	_	Manufac- turing	Trade	Other	Total value
Value (milli	ons of South	African	pounds):	<u>_</u>		
1949/50	138.9	141.5	225.3	153. 6	359. 9	1, 019. 2
1950/51	220. 3	159. 8	277. 9	173. 3	403. 5	1, 234. 8
$195^{1}/_{5}2$	174. 4	174. 6	317. 7	165. 5	440.6	1, 272. 8
1952/53	215. 0	174. 2	346. 2	175. 3	480.8	1, 391. 5
1953/54	257. 7	178. 4	359. 9	201.5	523.8	1, 521 3
Percentage	of total:					
1949/50	13.6	13.9	22.1	15. 1	35. 3	
1950/51	17. 8	12. 9	22. 5	14. 0	32.8	
1951/52	13. 7	13. 7	25. 0	13. 0	34. 6	
1952/53	15. 4	12. 5	24. 9	12. 6	34. 6	
1953/54	16. 9	11. 7	23. 6	13. 2	34. 4	

Source: South African Reserve Bank, Quarterly Bulletin of Statistics (Pretoria)

December 1954.

Personal incomes increased steadily for most groups, with the exception of agricultural producers whose incomes were subject to considerable fluctuation. Direct taxes were increased during the period; government income from this source rose from £104 million in 1950 to £167 million in 1953 and largely accounts for the increase over the period in total government revenue.

The rise in personal incomes led to an increase in expenditure on consumers' goods; but these expenditures fluctuated much more than the changes in income. Thus in 1951 expenditure on consumer goods rose by £10 million over 1950 while incomes from work and property increased by £81 million; in 1952

expenditure on consumer goods rose by £143 million while income increased by Lig) million; in 1953 the increases were Z76 million and £167 million, respectively. The discrepancy between the increase in income and in expenditure on consumers' goods in 1951 is explained largely by a gain in personal saving of £60 million, which had its counterpart in an increase in inventories of £92 million. In 1952, on the other hand, personal saving declined and expenditure on consumers' goods increased, resulting in a heavy fall in inventories. Despite the large inventory buildup of the previous year, the supply position was not adequate to prevent a rise in prices in face of the greatly increased demand for consumer goods. Prices of both domestic and imported goods rose, the former by about 17 per cent and the latter by 10 per cent. In 1953 these inflationary pressures subsided, mainly because the increase in expenditure on consumers' goods was not maintained at the same rate. Personal saving increased by £64 million and expenditure on consumers' goods by £82 million. The combined price index of domestic and imported goods was stable at the level reached in 1952, a small increase in the price of domestic goods being offset by a fall in the price of imports. The net inflow of foreign private capital to the Union of South Africa was of the order of 2.55 million in 1950 and 1951 but declined to £26 million in 1953. Latest estimates suggest that in 1954, however, the net private capital inflow was again in the region of £55 million. The strong net inflow of capital in 1954 was accompanied by an appreciable decline in the deficit on current account from about £63 million in the first nine months of 1953 to £47 million in the corresponding period of 1954.

It would appear that in the Union of South Africa, there is adequate finance available for immediate development needs. On the other hand, as a result of increasing demands, the labour supply 'position is acute despite an increase of over half a million in the number employed in farming, mining, manufacturing, trade and transport between 1946 and 1953. 1/ Other restrictions arise from the inadequacy of certain basic facilities, notably electricity supply, transport and housing.

Gross capital formation increased from £231 million in 1950 to £399 million in 1951, fell to £294 million in 1952 and rose again to £377 million in 1953. The fluctuations in investment were entirely due to changes in inventories, investment in fixed capital rising at a steady rate of approximately £50 million annually.

The increase of investment in fixed capital in 1951 was chiefly accounted for by the private sector; in 1952 the public sector accounted for about 60 per cent, and in 1953 for more than 80 per cent, of the increase. In 1951 residential building accounted for a substantial part of 'private fixed investment. In 1953 investment in residential building increased by more than the total increase in fixed investment in the private sector offsetting declines in other directions. The increase in public investment in 1953 is very largely accounted for by increases in machinery plant and equipment, especially for the Electricity Supply Commission and the new oilfrem-coal plant (SASOL).

^{1/} South Africa Reserve Bank, <u>Quarterly Bulletin of Statistics</u>, <u>December</u> 1954.

North Africa

It would appear from the available evidence that progress in French North Africa during the period 1950 to 1954 has been at a slower rate than elsewhere. In particular, in Tunisia economic activity has been at a low level and, despite good harvests and an increasing level of mineral production to the end of 1952, the economy as a whole has been fairly stagnant since 1951. In Algeria there has been a greater increase in mineral and manufacturing output than in agricultural production, but since Algeria, in common with other French North African territories, is predominantly agricultural, such expansion is partially offset by the slow development of the agricultural economy. Only in French Morocco is the level of economic activity noticeably higher than in 1950.

Between 1950/51 and 1952/53 average agricultural production in Tunisia was below the pre-war level, and in Algeria it was only 5 per cent higher; in French Morocco, the average was 38 per cent above pre-war levels. Good harvests in all three territories in 1953/54, however, resulted in levels of output 59 per cent above pre-war in Morocco and 19 and 22 per cent above pre-war in Algeria and Tunisia, respectively.

Mining production experienced a significant expansion, particularly in 1951 when there was a large rise in production consequent upon the increased demand engendered by Korean hostilities. In Morocco and Tunisia the growth in the volume of mineral production between 1950 and 1954 was of the order of 50 and 25 per cent, respectively, while in Algeria production expanded by about 37 per cent. Whereas in Morocco and Algeria mineral production expanded continuously, in Tunisia there was a decline in 1953 and despite an increase in the following year, the level of mineral production in 1954 was more than 10 per cent lower than in 1952.

The index of the volume of industrial production including mining, rose by about 28 per cent in Algeria between 1950 and 1954, the main increases, apart from mining, occurring in construction materials, chemicals and textiles; both metal production and metal manufactures declined after rising in 1951 in response to increased demand. In Morocco there has been a rapid increase in certain sectors of manufacturing industry but in Tunisia the high cost of energy and inexperienced labour are deterrents to industrial expansion and further development of the market, though increased agricultural production will be needed before local industries can be satisfactorily established.

The second series of development plans covering the period 1954 to 1957 recognizes that the generally slow expansion of economic activity is in part due to insufficient investment in the productive sectors of the economy, and a greater propertion of total planned investment is devoted to the expansion of production, particularly in agriculture.

French North African exports were affected to a lesser extent by the Korean crisis and increased at a much slower rate than those of the rest of Africa; the percentage rise in the value of exports in 1951 Was only 17 per cent compared with 37 per cent in other African countries. Moreover, after a slight rise in 1952 French North African exports declined in 1953

to a level 22 per cent above that of 1950, whereas exports from other African territories continued to increase and in 1953 were 41 per cent greater in value than in 1950. French North African imports, although considerably in excess of exports, also increased at a slower rate than those in the rest of Africa and, in 1953 were 36 per cent above the 1950 level compared with 49 per cent for other African territories.

Since 1951 the course of Lfbya's exports, consisting mainly of barley, esparto grass, citrus fruits, olive oil, livestock, skins and sponges which were relatively unaffected by the price boom in primary products in late 1950 and early 1951, has been downwards. Imports, on the other hand, have been buoyant and the visible trade balance accordingly adverse – to the extent of about VT million annually. This deficit is offset by assistance from foreign governments in the form of budgetary grants, contributions to development schemes and expenditure on military projects. In addition, substantial amounts have been contributed for technical assistance programmes.

Tropical Africa

In tropical African territories, to a greater extent than in the Union of South Africa or French North Africa, the main source of money incomes is the export trade. The most important single factor in the five years 1950 to 1954 has accordingly been the outbreak of hostilities in Korea in 1950 with resultant enhanced raw material prices increasing the value of exports from Africa; this increase in export earnings gave rise to increased imports, which continued into 1952 and have since remained at a high level. Accordingly budget receipts, and in particular revenue derived from customs duties, rose. Combined with receipts of marketing boards, price stabilization funds and private savings, this gave rise to substantial sums of money which were adequate to meet increased recurrent charges and leave large amounts for development. The inflationary situation which threatened as a result of the fact that the marketing board accumulated considerable funds which were invested abroad, export income was in part alleviated by increases in export duties and higher taxation.

While tropical African exports as a whole were maintained in value during the period 1950 to 1954 those of individual countries varied according to the content of their export trade. In general, territories in whose exports minerals play an important role fared better than other countries, since the rise in prices of principal minerals exported from Africa was maintained into 1953. Prices of hides, sisal, cotton, wool and rubber were much lower in 1952 than in the previous year, and territories whose principal exports are among those listed experienced a reduction in exports. For example, the Sudan, in whose trade cotton plays a predominant part, experienced a reduction in the value of exports in 1952. Prices of coffee, sugar, cocoa and tobacco on the other hand have been buoyant and have helped to maintain the value of exports. Where the export trade is diversified, as in the Belgian Congo, the value of exports was maintained; where, however, the value of exports is dependent on one or two items, and where prices of those items declined, revenues contracted, leading in some cases - as, for example, in Tanganyika in 1953 - to a curtailment of expenditure.

The rate of expenditure on official development plans continued to rise to the end of 1952. Thereafter there was a decrease in the rate of expenditure in certain territories. With finance for the plans assured either from domestic revenues or from grants and loans from the metropolitan country, the chief obstacles to increased development have been shortages of trained personnel and restrictions on the supply of capital equipment. The latter of these obstacles was more significant in the earlier years when rearmament in Europe restricted the availability of finished and semi-manufactured steel. Beginning about mid-1952, however, there has been a marked improvement in the supply of capital goods, and shortage of administrative and technical staff has emerged as the main deterrent to public development in most dependent African territories.

The close of the period under review coincided with the termination of the first development plans in French territories and with the commencement of expenditure on new plans. In British territories, in view of the expiration of the current Colonial Development and Welfare Acts on 31 March 1956, new plans are being drawn up in most territories to make allowance for new grants and loans. In these and other territories periodic reviews of development Plans have taken place. In general, the main emphasis in planning before 1954 was on the expansion on basic facilities, such as communications, water and electric supply; in some territories such expenditure has not always been undertaken with an eye to its effects on production, and in new plans there is a switch in emphasis to research schemes and other projects designed to maximize production.

Available data on private investment in dependent territories suggest that it, too, has been buoyant. Private investment has arisen mainly from reinvestment of profits by firms already operating in the territories. There is also evidence of investment by new firms.

Inter-Governmental Co-operation

The Overseas Territories Committee of the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC) has provided a centre for co-operation in economic affairs among European colonial governments, and studies on aspects of colonial economies of common interest have been produced. Through this committee the possibilities of co-operation between member governments in their technical assistance programmes are examined. The Commission for Technical Co-operation in Africa (CCTA) and the Scientific Council for Africa South of the Sahara (CSA), whose membership comprises the governments of Belgium, France, Portugal, the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, the Union of South Africa and the United Kingdom, also assist consultation and co-operation among countries primarily interested in African development.

Under the auspices of CCTA a number of specialized bureaus and units have been established to meet particular needs for scientific and technical co-operation. In addition to maintaining close relations with CCTA, CSA communicates on scientific matters directly with territorial governments, institutes and agencies concerned with science in Africa and if desirable submits advice to them. It also communicates on scientific matters with such international agencies as the Food and Agriculture Organization of the

United Nations, the World Health Organization, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, the International Labour Organization and with some non-governmental agencies. The Council meets at least once a year to consider scientific co-operation within the region, initiate new projects, select priorities and generally review progress and decide on a programme for the ensuing year. Such matters as maps and surveys, geology, fauna, social studies, hydrobiology and inland fisheries have been raised at such meetings. When specific recommendations are made by the council, they are passed on to participating governments through the channel of CCTA. Specialist committees have also been set up to consider common problems such as nutrition, housing, statistics, indigenous production and power supplies.

Chapter 2

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

The rate of expansion in the volume of agricultural production in Africa since 1950 has been about the same as that for the world as a whole, increasing by over 10 per cent. Food production in Africa has risen at a slightly slower rate, suggesting that the main increase has been in nonfood agricultural items, the majority of which are produced for export. In per capita terms, food output in Africa has shown a slow but steady increase and the volume of production is now about one-third above the 1934-38 average.

Expansion of agricultural production continues to be one of the chief objects of development planning. By demonstrations, irrigation, distribution of new and improved plants and seeds, direct finance, education, mechanization, encouragement of co-operatives, and by other means, governments in Africa are showing an acute awareness of the main needs of their economies; the development of communications should also encourage increased output by linking production areas, often isolated and mainly devoted to subsistence needs, with the principal centres of demand both at home and abroad. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations estimates that total agricultural production and food output in Africa may expand by a further 10 to 12 per cent by 1956/57, exceeding pre-war production by 50 per cent.

Africa produces both food for local consumption and agriculturFO products for export. More than half the world's sisal production and two-thirds of all cocoa produced come from Africa, which is also producing a rising percentage of world coffee production; in tobacco, tea, wool, cotton, sugar and oil-seeds Africa makes significant contributions to world supplies. To the extent that these products can replace comparable items from the dollar area, their importance to the metropolitan Powers, the majority of which suffer in varying degrees from foreign exchange difficulties, is enhanced. Developing industrial production in North America and Europe will make heavier demands on African raw materials and the administering Powers, which have shown themselves fully aware of the problem, will need increasingly to ensure that agricultural production for export is not encouraged at the expense of food production for demestic consumption. Table 3 shows the importance of Africa in world production of selected agricultural products.

Table 2. Indices of Volume of Agricultural Production 1948/49 to 1956/57

(1934-38=100)

Year Tot	tal agricultural	production	Food produc	ction
World ^{2/}		Africa/	World-a./	Africa-
1948/49 to 1950/51 1951/52 1952/53 1955/54 c/ 195 ⁶ / ₅ 7 d/	108 113 117 119 134	124 134 136 157 152	109 113 117 120 134	123 132 134 134 150

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, State of Food and Agriculture for 1953 and 1954 (Rome).

- a/ Including estimates for the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, eastern Europe and China.
- b/ Excluding Egypt.
- c/ Preliminary.
- d/ Estimated.

Table 3. Share²jin WorldlliAgricultural Output, 1950 and 1953. (Percentages)

Crop 1950	1953	Crop 1950	1953
Barley 6.3	7.9	Palm oil 83.2	79.2
Maize 11.6 Millet and sorghum	11.9 21.323.0 c/	Palm kernels ⁸ A:5 ⁷ Sesame	1 ³ . ⁵ 0: ⁴ 3c/
Rice 1.6	1.6	Tea3.5	3.7
Wheat 2.3	2.3	Coffee 12.3	14.4
Cotton (lint) 5'7	5.3	Cocoa 65.7	63.7
Sisal 11.9.1	55.1	Wine9.4	9.0 c/
Wool 7.6	7.5	Citrus fruits5.3	4.9 c/
Coconut oil 3.9	2.8	Cane-sugar6.0	5.7
Copra 4 7	3.3 c/	Dates 33.7	31.7
Cotton-seed 6.2	5.2	Tobacco4.4	4.0
Ground-nuts 19.8	25.3	Rubber 2.9	4.4
Olive oil 13.3	12.5		

Source: Based on Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations,
Monthly Bulletin of Agricultural Economics and Statistics (Rome).

- a/ Of Africa, excluding Egypt.
- b/ Excluding the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.
- c/ 1952.

Diversification of production is one of the principal aims of most development plans in Africa. The tendency towards monoculture is, however, likely to be strong so long as the world demand and prices for the major items of export continue at high levels.

Development of Production

Table 4 shows the development of agricultural production in Africa as a whole during the period 1950 to 1953. Agricultural production is subject to climatic conditions and seasonal variations in yield which affect the output of olive oil and cereals particularly. The fairly constant growth over the entire period, however, leads to the conclusion that productive capacity has expanded between 1950 and 1953. The expansion has been significant both in the case of food for domestic consumption and in that of export commodities. The following paragraphs summarize the course of production in the main producing areas since 1950; more detailed statistics are provided in appendix table A.

Grains

Grain production, after remaining constant in 1950 and 1951, increased by over 10 per cent in total tonnage in the following year and by about 6 per cent in 1953. The greater part of this increase was due to output in the Union of South Africa where, as a result of both an increase in acreage and a higher yield, 1/maize output rose by about 70 per cent (1.3 million metric tons) from 1951 to 1952 and by a further 13 per cent (0.4 million metric tons) in 1953, and in French North Africa where barley production increased by 17 per cent (376,000 metric tons) and 11 per cent in 1952 and 1953, respectively, and wheat production by 13 per cent (643,000 metric tons) and 5 per cent in the same years (table 5). Rice production has expanded continuously since 1951 mainly on account of increased production in Madagascar and to a lesser extent in French West Africa and the Belgian Congo. The additional output appears to have been stored or consumed locally since there has been little increase in exports. In French North Africa production of barley increased by 376,000 tons and 273,000 tons in 1952 and 1953, respectively, although exports fell by 25,CCO tons and 83,CCO tons. Increases of 1.3 million and 420,000 tons respectively, in production of maize in the Union of South Africa in 1952 and 1953 were accompanied by decreases in exports of the order of 120,000 tons and 94,000 tons in these years.

^{1/} Acreage increased from 6.5 million to 7.5 million acres, and yields from 4.6 to 5.9 hundredweights per acre from ;951 to 1952.

Table 4. Production² lof Selected Agricultural Commodities, 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons)

				Percentage increase
<u>Crop</u> 1950	1951	1952	1953	1950 to 1953
Cereals:				
Barley 2,910	3,100	3,490	3,880	33.7
Maize 5,990	5,280	6,690	7,250	21.0
Millet and sorghum 10,670	11,480	11,780		• • •
Rice (paddy) 2,5C0	2,380	2,680	2,650	6.0
Wheat 3,280	3,200	3,660	3,840	17.1
Fibres:				
Cotton (lint)310	290	330	370	19.4
Sisal215	245	260	270	25.6
Wool70	70	70	75	7.1
Vegetable oils and seeds:				
Coconut oil11,CCO	7,C00	10,CCO	9,CCO	-18.2
Cotton-seed620	570	680	690	11.3
Ground-nuts 1,980	2,680	2,730	2,730	37.9
Olive oil80	100	80	140	75.0
Palm kernels 980	880	900	925	- 5.6
Palm oil 1,070	1,010	1,030	1,060	- 1.0
Sesame 270	150	180		• • •
Beverages:				
Cocoa 519	460	510	465	-10.4
Coffee 281	327	315	350	24.6
Tea20	21	20	22	10.0
Wine 1,840	1,730	1,600	2,300	25.0
Miscellaneous crops:				
Citrus fruits810	830	790		
Sugar-cane15,400	15,C00	16,C00	001	000
Dates b/	4c0	440	4c0	29.0
Tobacco	130	130	130	4.0
Rubber55,372	/3,152	13,660	77,978	40.8

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Monthly Bulletin of Agricultural Economics and Statistics.

a/ Excluding Egypt.

b/ Including Egypt (165,000 metric tons in 1949).

Table 5. Production of Cereals, 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons)

Item and country	1950	1951	1952	1953	
Barley French Morocco				4,300 1,806	
Maize Union of South Africa				7,050 3,580	
Millet and sorghum	1,463		11,780 2,614		
Rice (paddy) Madagascar		2,380			
Wheat French North Africa		3,200 2,031 698	3,660 2,674 543	3,840 2,793 576	

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Monthly Bulletin of Agricultural Economics and Statistics.

Fats and oils

The main items in fat and oil production in Africa are ground-nuts, which account for about one-quarter, and palm products which account for more than four-fifths, of world production. Ground-nuts are produced chiefly in French West Africa, Nigeria and the Union of South Africa, which together account for about 80 per cent of African output. The growth in these areas has been largely instrumental in increasing African production by over one-third between 1950 and 1953.

The principal producing areas for palm products are the Belgian Congo and Nigeria, the latter accounting for over 40 per cent of palm kernel output and about one-third of the palm oil. African production as a whole has shown a slight decline over the period 1950 to 1953, mainly owing to the fall in 1951 in Nigerian output, which, despite increases in 1952 and 1953, did not regain the 1950 level. A feature of Nigerian palm oil production in recent years has been the remarkable improvement in quality. Encouraged by the policy of the Nigerian Oil Palm Produce Marketing Board in paying premium prices for higher-grade oil, the percentage of "Plantation" and "Special Grade" oil (both edible qualities) in total purchases increased from 13 per cent in 1951 to 27 per cent in 1953 and 29 per cent in 1954. Palm oil production in the Belgian Congo increased by over 6 per cent from 1950 to 1951 but fell in the following year (table 6). Despite decreased output, however, palm oil exports maintained their upward trend and accounted for about one-quarter of world exports in 1952. The fall in the world market

price of palm oil late in 1951 affected exports from the Belgian Congo particularly, since the cost of transport to the port is higher than in other producing areas near the sea, and exports declined in 1953. Further improvement in the quality of palm oil is a major objective of oil producers in the Belgian Congo. In 1951 Congo-Palm was granted about 10 million francs by l'Institut pour 1'Encouragement de la Recherche Scientifique dans l'Industrie et l'Agriculture (IRSIA) for the purpose of conducting research in the processes of oil production with a view to reducing the free fatty acid content of the product.

Production of palm oil in French West Africa declined in 1951 by somewhat less than one-quarter compared with 1950, and a further slight decline was registered in 1952. Production in 1953, however, is expected to be at about the same level as in 1951. Several refineries have been established to improve the quality of oil for export and the Compagnie Gen6rale des Ol&gineux Tropicaux plans to extend palm cultivation over a wide area.

Table 6. Production of Palm Oil and Palm Kernels, 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons)

Item	1950	1951	1952	1953
Palm kernels . Nigeria Belgian Congo	850 417 128	770 353 137	770 380 110	790 4C9
Palm oil	350	840 300 191	830 330 170	840 350 158

Source: Foal and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Monthly Bulletin of Agricultural Economics and Statistics.

Production of cotton-seed was adversely affected by the fall in cotton production in 1951 but recovered in the following year to a level almost 10 per cent higher than in 1950 and showed a further slight increase in 1953. With large and small crops alternating, African production of olive oil rose by 25 per cent from 1950 to 1951 but fell to the earlier level in 1952, rising in 1953 to 140,000 tons, 75 per cent higher than in 1950. Production of olive oil was particularly high in Tunisia where, in 1953, it was more than double that recorded in the previous year. Sesame production declined heavily between 1950 and 1951 almost entirely on account of a large fall in production in the Sudan from 168,000 tons in 1950 to 38,000 tons in 1951. Production in other African areas remained fairly constant throughout the period under review and the increase in total output by 30,000 tons in 1953 was also due mainly to an increase in Sudanese production.

Fibres

Cotton: African cotton production, which amounted to 310,000 metric tons of lint in 1950 fell by 20,000 tons in the following year, mainly on account of a severe shortage of water in the Sudan which reduced Production by 38 per cent from the 1950 figures of $1CO_3COO$ metric tons. An increase in output of one-fifth in the Belgian Congo and of one-third in Mozambique in 1952, combined with a substantial (one-third) gain in Sudanese output led to a total of 330,000 metric tons in 1952; a further slight increase in production was recorded in 1953.

There has been a gradual increase in acreage under cotton in Africa in recent years; combined with fairly steady yields in most territories this has resulted in increased production. Figures for the years since 1952 are shown in table 7.

Table 7. Cotton Acreage and Yields Per Acre, 1952/53 to 1954/55

Country	Acreage			Yiel	d in pou	nds	
	1952/5	3 1953	/54 1954/55	$195^2/_{5}3$	1953/54	1954/5	5
Belgian Congo	. 898	908	910	117	124	123	
French Equatorial Afri	ca	854	850	850	73	73	76
Mozambique	. 207	150	250	150	135	130	
Sudan	. 615	651	650	299	294	294	
Uganda	1,468 1	,612	1,728	90	95	89	
Other countries	. 9671	,039	1,052			.00	
Total	5,700	5,860	6,120				

Source: International Cotton Advisory Committee, Quarterly Statistical Bulletin (Washington, D.C.), January 1955.

Wool: Almost 80 per cent of African wool production comes from the Union of South Africa; French North Africa accounts for a further 10 per cent of total African production. World wool production has been increasing continuously since 1948/49, and African production has followed the world trend, increased sheep populations in the Union of South Africa and in French Morocco (table 8) having been largely responsible for the increase in wool production.

Table 8. Sheep Population of Selected Countries, 1949/50 to 1952/53 (Millions)

Country	1949/50	1950/51	.1951/52	1952/53
Union of South Africa	31.9	31.4	34.8	35.5
French Morocco	9.1	10.4	11.0	13.0
Algeria	3.8	4.5	5.3	6.0

Source: United Nations, Statistical Yearbook, 1954; Commonwealth Economic Committee, Wool Intelligence (London).

The bulk (87 per cent) of the output of the Union of South Africa is of merinc quality, and the yield of this quality wool has increased slightly since 1950; in crossbred and karakul wools there has been a slight decline in yield. Production of raw wool is shown in table 9.

Table 9. Production of Raw Wool, 1950/51 to 1954/55 (Millions of pounds, greasy basis)

Country	1950/51	195 ¹ / ₅ 2 1952/	53 1953/54	1954/55/
French Morocco	31			
Union of South Africa'	240			
Other countries'	29			
		Tltal ² /		300

Source: Commonwealth Economic Committee, Wool Intelligence.

- a/ Provisional estimate.
- b/ Including Basutoland and South West Africa.
- c/ Excluding United Kingdom colonies in Africa where production is not significant.

<u>Sisal</u>: Production of sisal has shown a steady increase since 1950 (see table 10). Kenya and Tanganyika continue to be the major preducers, accounting for over three-quarters of total African production. The Portuguese territories of Angola and Mozambique account for about one-fifth of the total, the remainder originating in French West Africa and Madagascar, with comparatively small quantities from the Belgian Congo. With the

exception of Kenya, where production declined in 1952, there has been a steady increase since 1950. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations anticipates a continuation of this trend over the next few years. 2/

Table 10. Production of Sisal, 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons)

Country	1950	1951	1952	1953
Angola	21	23	25	22
Kenya	41	42	36	39
Madagascar and Ccmoro Islands	5	8	8	11
Mozambique'	18	19	19	22
Tanganyika	124	148	165	168 ² /
Other countries	б	5	7	8
Total	215	245	260	270

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations,

Monthly Bulletin of Agricultural Economics and Statistics,
May 1954.

a/ Preliminary figure.

Beverages

Cocoa: About two-thirds of world production of cocoa originates in West Africa; the main area of production is the Gold Coast, which normally accounts for one-half of the total output of the west coast. Indigenous cultivation dcminates in British West Africa, and Africans are also playing an increasingly important role as agents of the Marketing Boards in marketing the crop. The Boards have followed a policy of fixing a price - or prices, where better quality attracts a premium, as in Nigeria - for the season in advance of harvesting and in general this price has been lower than the world price for cocoa. Whether this factor will have any effect on production is impossible to estimate since other factors, especially the effect of the swollen shoot disease, cannot be accurately assessed, but it is possible that replanting, and therefore production, may have been discouraged by the policy followed by the Boards. Control of swollen shoot disease in the Gold Coast is being undertaken by a policy of cutting out diseased trees and paying compensation to the farmers. The main obstacle to the implementation of this policy has been shortage of experienced staff, but sufficient appointments have now been made to ensure more rapid progress.

^{2/} State of Food and Agriculture, 1953, page 74.

At the end of 1954 atotal of some 20 million diseased trees had been cut out. In Nigeria a policy of sealing off diseased areas is being pursued. Production of cocoa beans is shown in table 11.

Cocoa butter in manufactured on a small scale at Takoradi in the Gold Coast and in Ivory Coast. In 1953 the Societe Industrielle du Cacao set up a cocoa butter factory in the Cameroons under French administration.

Table 11. Production of Cbcoa Beans, 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons)

Country	1950	1951	1952	1953
Cameroons (French administration) and French Equatorial Africa	46	57	49	56
French West Africa	. 60	45	61	55
Gold Coast 91.	266	214	251	214
Nigeria/	112	109	111	99
Spanish Guinea	15	15	17	18
Other countries	20	20	21	23
Т				
otal	519	460	510	465

lood and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Monthly Bulletin of Agricultural Economics and Statistics.

<u>Coffee:</u> African output of coffee increased by 16 per cent from 1950 to 1951 but showed a slight fall in the following year; in 1953 production again rose by over 10 per cent. The net result was an increase in African production of about one-quarter from 1950 to 1953. In Angola, French West Africa and Madagascar production increased; in Ethiopia, the Belgian Congo and Uganda production fluctuated but the general level has remained unchanged since 1950; production declined in Tanganyika, and in Kenya since 1951.

a/ Including Togoland under British administration.

ID/ Including Cameroons under British administration.

Table 12. Production of Coffee, 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons)

Country	¹ 950	1951	1952	1953
Angola	. 46.6	55.0	55.0	64.0
Belgian Congo ² - ¹	. 34.3	35.6	31.1	34.7
Ethiopia	31.2	25.0	36.4	32.0
French West Africa	47.2	64.1	61.1	85.1
Kenya	9.9	16.3	12.4	11.5
Madagascar	. 30.7	26.1	41.3	43.5
Tanganyika	. 18.3	17.8	16.8	15.0
Uganda	. 39.0	42.3	37.2	
Other countries	23.8	L4.8	23.8	
Total	281.0	327.0	315.0	350.0

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Monthly Bulletin of Agricultural Economics and Statistics.

Including Ruanda-Urundi.

Tea: The main areas of tea cultivation in Africa are on the east coast. There has been little change in total production which, at 22,C00 tons, accounts for less than 4 per cent of world output. There has, however, been a decrease in production in Kenya; production in Uganda and Tanganyika has tended generally upward, while production in Mozambique has shown a large percentage increase and now approximates the level of production in Kenya.

Owing to consumption in French North Africa and southern Africa, the continent is, on balance, a net importer of tea. Imports into French Morocco have been increasing, amounting to over 13,000 metric tons in 1953 while imports into the Union of South Africa amounted to almost 12,000 tons.

Table 13. Production of Tea, 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons)

Country	1950	1951	1952	1953
Kenya	6.7	6.9	6.6	5.8
Mozambique	3.1	3.1	3.5	5.2
Nyasaland	7 . 0	7.1	6.1	
Tanganyika	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.3
Uganda	1.9	2.0	1.7	2.2
Other countries	0 . 3	0.8	1.0	
Total	20.0	21.0	20.0	22.0

<u>Source:</u> Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Natiolls, Monthly Bulletin of Agricultural Economics and Statistics.

Wine: Production of wine fell continuously from 1950 to 1952 but expanded considerably in 1953 mainly owing to increased production in French North Africa. Lack of demand in importing countries, in part because of high tariffs and competition from other beverages such as beer, has led to large carryovers, partly purchased at much lower prices, for the production of alcohol.

Table 14. Wine Production in Selected Countries, 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons)

Country	1950	1951	1952	1953
Algeria	. 1,430	1,374	1,232	1,829
French Morocco	71	102	59	120
Tunisia	78	65	67	66
Union of South Africa	251	189	253	288

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Monthly Bulletin of Agricultural Economics and Statistics.

Tobacco

The greater part of the tobacco produced in Africa originates in the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, the Union of South Africa and Algeria. Increased production in Algeria and the Federation has been partly offset by

declining production in the Union of South Africa. In the Rhodesias production of flue-cured tobacco is mainly in the hand of Europeans but Africans play a large part in producing fire-cured tobacco and burley. Other areas of Africa also produce tobacco, but mainly for local consumption; small quantities entering the local market may be blended with imported tobacco in local cigarette manufacture.

Table 15. Production of Raw Tobacco, 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons)

Country	1950	1951	1952	1953
Algeria	19.4	18.6	21.3	25.7
Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland	59.5	66.6	68.3	69.3
Madagascar	4 . 4	4.0	4.7	• • •
Union of South Africa .	24.2	20.2	17.2	18.2
Other countries	22.5	20.6	18.5	ogo
Total	130.0	130.0	130.0	130.0

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations,
Monthly Bulletin of Agricultural Economics and Statistics.

Sugar

African sugar production rose from 1950 to 1953. In the Union of South Africa the increase was about 6 per cent; in Mauritius, 12 per cent. Production in the Belgian Congo and in British East Africa also expanded. In Reundon exports showed a large increase from year to year and in 1953 were more than 60 per cent higher than in 1950. African consumption of sugar has also increased, reflecting rising cash incomes.

Sugar producers in Africa are affected by the Commonwealth Sugar Agreement, signed in December 1951, and the International Sugar Agreement signed in August 1953.

^{3/} The text of the agreement was reproduced as appendix C in the United Nations, Review of International Commodity Problems, 1953 (sales number 1954.II.D.3).

Table 16. Production of Cane Sugar, 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons)

Country	1950	1951	1952	1953
Angola: ⁹ j	52	49	50	50
MauritiusW	457	484	468	512
MozaMbiquel	92	83	90	93
ь	Reunion 106	130	158	171
Union of South Africa/—	622	484	608	658
Other countries	106	110	126	96
	Total 1,435	1,340	1,500	1,590

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

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Rubber

Production of raw rubber in Africa increased by 3bout one-third from 1950 to 1951 in response to increased demand at greatly enhanced prices consequent upon the Korea crisis, but has since shown little change. The world market price of rubber began to decline in the second quarter of 1951 and fell progressively until the second quarter of 1954, when it rose slightly. Since, however, trees mature only five to seven years after planting, production may expand in times of falling prices. By control of tapping it is possible to adapt output to varying demand in the short run, but medium-term supply tends to be inelastic.

The principal area of expansion has been the Belgian Congo, where production increased by 120 per cent between 1950 and 1953 despite a decrease in the area under cultivation which fell from 77,500 hectares in 1950 to 76,700 hectares in 1953. The greater part of production is from estates controlled by Europeans. In Nigeria, on the other hand, rubber production is mainly in the hands of Africans. In Nigeria and in Liberia, production has remained fairly steady since 1951.

Table 17 shows net exports of rubber from Africa. Since there is little processing of rubber in Africa, the figures reflect commercialized production.

Table 17. Net Exports of Rubber, 1950 to 1955 (Long tons)

Country	1950	1951	195	2 1955
Belgian Congo 8,	,087	1,975	16,544	17,794
Cameroons (French administration	n) 1,585	2,112	2,440	2,664
French Equatorial Africa	180	163	101	102
French West Africa	. 16	961	219	14
Gold Coast	261	329	296	334
T/ and a district of a	100	220	1.4.6	4.5
Kenya and Uganda		229	146	45
Liberia 31,	,121 3	4,799	35,295	54,315
Nigeria13,	, 409	21,233	18,128	21,618
Other countries	483	610	139	114
Total 55	5,250	72,500	73,250	77,000

Source: International Rubber Study Group, Rubber Statistical Bulletin, January 1955 (London).

Fish

As an alternative to expensive and often uncertain meat supplies in Africa, increasing emphasis is being placed on the desirability of expanding, the supply of fish. The means employed have been mainly twofold—the introduction of power-fishing methods in marine fishing, and the encouragement and development of fish farming.

Prospecting for new fishing grounds and experiments in improved methods of fishing are normally undertaken on a regional basis, as, for example, by the West African Fisheries Research Institute in Sierra Leone, which has surveyed fishing grounds from the Cameroons to the Gambia with a view to the development of trawling. In French territories the organizations responsible for marine fisheries research are the division of Marine Biology of the French African Institute and the Office for Overseas Scientific Research both of which are concerned with pure research, the application of the research being undertaken by the Animal Husbandry Service, and by local fisheries research centres. Research in oceanography, marine biology and the preparation of inventories of fish stocks is being undertaken in French Equatorial Africa and Madagascar. In French West Africa improvement is being effected in indigenous fishing techniques and the mechanization of craft. These researches are already proving their worth, and with expanded facilities larger catches are reported.

Fish farming is increasingly encouraged. In the Belgian Congo, for example, the number of ponds increased from 15,00° in 1950 to 60,747 in 1953. In the Gold Coast experiments in the stocking of reservoirs with fish are proving successful, and the Volta River scheme offers prospects of greatly expanded inland fisheries. In Morocco, the fish farming station at Azrou has introduced and cultivated a number of new species. Improvement in catches is also reported from the inland lakes, Albert, Kyoga and Victoria.

Increasing yields from marine and inland fisheries call for improved distribution facilities and these are being met by fish preservation. The Uganda Fish Marketing Corporation purchases fish from indigenous fishermen and preserves, or processes, and distributes it. Canning is carried out in many areas and improved methods of drying and salting are employed. In the Gold Coast an edible dehydrated fish powder high in nutritive value was produced for the first time in pilot scale quantities in 1952 and is proving popular.

These measures have combined to increase fish production in Africa. They are, as yet, to a large extent in the preliminary stage, and any major contribution from fisheries towards filling the animal protein shortage cannot be expected for some time. Table 18 shows fish landings in selected countries between 1950 and 1953.

Table 18. Fish Landings in Selected Countries, 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons)

Country	1950	1951	1952	1953
Angola 1	35.7	176.5	156.8	222.4
Belgian Congo	42.5	37.3	48.2	• • •
French Morocco	23.2	90.9	122.1	128.0
Tunisia	11.7	15.3	13.1	11.5
Union of South Africa 2	74.7	347.0	413.8	374.0

Source: United Nations, Statistical Yearbook, 1954.

Livestock

Arpendix tables C and D suggest that production of both cattle and sheep in Africa has tended upwards in recent years; there has also been an upward trend in meat production in the territories for which data are available (see table 19).

Table 19. Meat Production in Selected Countries, 1948-50 and 1951 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons)

Country	1948-50 average	1951	1952	1953
Algeria ^{2./}	37 _p	47	49	52
French Morocco	1C8/—	127	128	• •
Kenya' E'	15	17	12	1 4
Madagascar	5 ^{61/}	53	51	
South West Africaa	33	27	29	• • •
Southern Rhodesia / 2 /	39 ,	49	51	52 [£] /
Swaziland	14E/	18	16	
Tanganyika	86E	94	114	117
Union of South Africa- / 12/	408	392	418	441

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Monthly
Bulletin of Agricultural Economics and Statistics, December
1954.

- a/ Commercial production.
- b/ 1949 and 1950 average.
- C! Excluding village slaughterings.
- d/ Estimated.
- e/ Inspected.
- f/ Twelve months ending 30 September.
- 8/ 1950.
- h/ Including meat from imported live animals.

On the other hand, the population of the area has expended, and it seems likely that, except in particular instances, there has been little or no improvement in per capita meat production. In both French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa the production and export of live animals has increased and this is also true of Bechuanaland and Swaziland.

The problems involved in expanding livestock herds in Africa are numerous; social, economic and natural factors deter satisfactory livestock development. Tribal customs often stress the importance of numbers of cattle rather than quality and this leads to overstocking of poor quality cattle and overgrazing. Poor pasturage, shortage of water and diseases such as trypanosomiasis and rinderpest are important obstacles r,o progress, and production areas are often separated from the main areas of consumption by tsetse infested country and inadequate means of communication. A great

deal is being done by the governments concerned through education, demonstration and research, not only to foster livestock production for food, but also as a means to increased agricultural production through mixed farming. Ranching is encouraged where conditions are favourable; in Bechuanaland, for example, the Colonial Development Corporation has established abattoirs and cold storage facilities at Ldbatsicapable of handling 70,000 head of cattle annually. In the Belgian Congo two new enterprises have been established for raising cattle on marginal lands, and it is hoped that each scheme will care for acme 30,000 cattle. Facilities for drying or canning are found in several territories but are, ofnecessity, on a small scale except whore cattle populations are comparatively large. Research into diseases affecting cattle is carried on throughout Africa, often on a regional basis, and local strains of cattle are being improved. These processes are long term in character and it may be some time before their effects are fully recognizable. Meanwhile European immigration and increasing urbanization are resulting in large increases in demand.

Forest products

The estimated forest area of Africa is some 8CO million hectares of which about 35 per cent is considered accessible. Almost all forests are of the hardwood species, less than one per cent of the productive area being occupied by conifers.

Forests play an important role in the eccnomies of most African territories. They are the main single source of fuel, about 80 per cent of total fellings being for use as fuel wood or for the production of charcoal, and they provide indispensable protective cover for the land against soil erosion. In many territories the practice of shifting cultivation, combined with large demands for fuel wood, has reduced the forest area so that forest conservation rather than exploitation is the greater need. Where the forest cover is such that planned extraction of timber can be undertaken, the forest policies of most territories demand intensive exploitation of individual blocks of forest, the block being handed back to the Forestry Department for regeneration before work is commenced on the next block.

The limited availability of softwoods from Scandinavia combined with the necessity of providing dollars for Canadian and United States timbers, has led the metropolitan countries to examine the possibilities of meeting part of their timber requirements by imports of hardwoods from Africa. The construction of access roads to the forests and the introduction of sawmills have led to an increase in African exports of timber in recent years. In some territories, plywood and veneers are produced from local timbers; the output of sawn logs, veneer logs and legs for sleepers increased by 38 per cent from 1950 to 1953. Table 20 shows the growth in felling of timber in Africa since 1950.

Table 20. Amount of Timber Felled, 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of cubic metres of round wood)

Item	1950 1	951	1952	1953
Saw and veneer logs and logs for sleepers	3,900			
Pulp-wood and pit props	1,200			
Other industrial wood	1,500			
		Total ind	ustrial w	ood .6,600
Wood for charcoal and fuel 58	,000	63,200	73,900	75,500
Total 64,60	0.0	68,800	79,900	81,800

Source: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Yearbook of Forest Products Statistics, 1952, 1953, 1954 (Rome).

Consumption of Agricultural Requisites

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations has estimated that the number of tractors in use in Africa increased from 95,C00 in 1950 to 135,000 in 1953, an increase of over 40 per cent. Figures are not available for the Union of South Africa subsequent to 1950, when the number of tractors (including garden tractors) was over 48,000, but expanding production combined with imports of tractors must have resulted in a considerable expansion in the number in use. In French North Africa the number of tractors in use rose from over 25,000 in 1950 to almost 33,000 in 1952 - an increase of almost 30 per cent. In Tunisia, the only territory for which a comparable 1953 figure is available, a further expansion of more than 10 per cent over the 1952 level was recorded. In other African territories there has also been greater mechanization of agriculture. Among the more important increases in the number of tractors is that in the Belgian Congo where the number rose from 546 in 1950 to 952 in 1953; in Madagascar an increase from 575 in 1950 to 1,053 in 1953 was recorded; in Northern Rhcdesia, from 949 in 1950 to 1,612 in 1953 and in Tanganyika from 2,154 to 2,470.

There has been little change in African consumption of chemical fertilizers. Consumption of commercial potash fertilizers remained fairly constant at the 1948/49 to 1950/51 average of 30,000 metric tons (K20 content), commercial nitrogenous fertilizer consumption rose from 36,000 metric tons of nitrogen in 1948/49 to 1950/51 to 44,000 tons in 1951/52, but declined in the following year to 39,000 tons, while consumption of commercial phosphoric acid fell from 174,000 metric tons (P_2O_5 content) to 153,000 tons in 1951 to 1953. most of these fertilizers are used in agriculture supervised by Europeans.

Chapter 3

MINING AND MINERAL PRODUCTION

Mineral production in Africa makes a substantial contribution to total world output. More than half of the world production of gold, about 98 per cent of the diamond output, four-fifths of the cobalt and over one-third of world production of the chrome and manganese are derived from Africa. The contribution of the region to world mineral production increased substantially in 1953, compared with 1950, in respect of bauxite, copper, lead and zinc, but declined in respect of antimony, chrome, manganese and phosphate rock. The relative contribution in respect of gold, iron, tin, asbestos, coal and diamonds remained virtually unchanged. The continent's share in world production of a selected list of principal minerals is set out in table 21.

Major Producers of Principal Minerals

The Union of South Africa, South West Africa, the Belgian Congo, Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia are the major mineral producing areas of Africa. French North Africa and British West Africa are also important producers of certain minerals.

In 1953, the Union of South Africa accounted for about 87 per cent of the continent's output of gold, 86 per cent of the coal, 70 per cent of the magnesite, 60 per cent of the chrome ore, 54 per cent of the antimony, $1_1.11$. per cent of the asbestos, 32 per cent of the nickel, 20 per cent of the iron, 14 per cent of the diamonds and virtually all the nickel. The Belgian Congo produced 86 per cent of the cobalt, 60 per cent of the tin, 64 per cent of the diamonds, about 53 per cent of tungsten and zinc ores, 51 per cent of the silver (in 1952), and 34 per cent of the copper.

Northern Rhodesia accounted for 58 per cent of the African copper output in 1953. Southern Rhodesia produced over 40 per cent of the asbestos, and about 38 per cent of the chrome. South West Africa provided over 30 per cent of the lead and virtually all the vanadium in that year.

Manganese and bauxite production in the Gold Coast accounted for 37 per cent and 26 per cent, respectively, of total output in Africa in 1953, while its diamonds represented 11 per cent of the total. Nigerian tin mining yielded 32 per cent of the region's production and Sierra Leone's iron production represented 14 per cent of the total.

French \test Africa provided 74 per cent of the bauxite in 1953. In French North Africa 64 per cent of the continent's phosphate rock and 43 per cent of the lead were produced in Morocco, while 38 per cent of the antimony and 28 per cent of the iron were produced in Algeria. Tunisia also accounted for 27 per cent of the phosphate rock in that year.

Table 21. Share in World Production of Selected Minerals, 1950 to 1953

(Percentage of world output)

Commodity	1950	1951	1952	1953
Aetallic mineral ores (metal content)	•			
Antimony 28	3.8	36.8	28.7	22.9
Bauxite1	. 7	1.3	1.7	3.7
Chrome 52	2.4	45.1	37.4	38.3
Cobalt86	5.6	85.2	84.2	80.0
Copper	2.1	23.3	23.8	25.9
Gold55	5.6	56.1	55.6	56.7
Iron	1.2	4.0	5.0	5.0
Lead	7.6	9.6	11.0	11.0
Manganese 49	0.2	45.5	43.3	37.6
Nickel).7	0.8	0.8	1.0
Silver	1.4	4.3	5.0	3.6
Tin concentrates	3.8	14.0	13.8	14.5
Zinc6	5.3	7.0	7.4	8.9
Non-metallic minerals:				
Asbestos	. 4	16.8	19.6	17.0
Coal 2	. 5	2.4	2.7	2.8
Diamonds9	8.2	97.5	98.4	98.4
Phosphate rock3	1.3	34.6	32.6	28.7

Source: United Nations, Statistical Yearbook, 1954.

Data for Africa are exclusive of Egypt; world production is exclusive of that of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and minor producing countries; production has been measured by weight.

An agreement was entered into at the end of 1950 between the Governments of the Union of South Africa, the United Kingdem and the United States, as a result of which a total of twenty-three gold mines in the Union of South Africa are expected eventually to extract uranium from the residue slimes of their gold production plants; at the end of 1954, seven of the twenty-three projected plants were in production. In the first nine months of 1954, the earnings of the Union of South Africa from uranium exports amounted to ESA 9 million. Eventual revenue from uranium production when the 1/programme is in full swing, has been officially forecast at ESA 30 million.—

The Belgian Congo is also known to be a major producer of uranium ore, but no esticaates of output or of exports are available.

Production Trends

Production of most minerals in Africa showed a considerable increase in 1953 over the 1950 level, but fluctuations in output during this period have in some cases been very wide. The levels of output and the rate of change from year to year are set out in table 22. Significant increases are found in the production of bauxite, cobalt, copper ore, iron ore, tungsten ore and diamonds. The region's output of nickel, though relatively small, has also shown a substantial increase.

Gold

Gold has been the most valuable mineral produced in Africa, and has played an important role in the export trade of the continent. In more recent years its relative contribution to the value of total exports has declined, owing to the fact that while physical output of gold has shown little change and the price, apart from premium sales, has remained fixed, there has been a marked increase in the volume and price of merchandise exports. The Union of South Africa accounts for over 85 per cent of African gold output. In the other producin areas – the Gold Coast, Soui, hern Rhodesia and the Belgian Congo – there has been virtually no increase in production between 1950 and 1953.

Diamonds

Output of diamonds, including industrial diamonds, increased by about 5 million metric carats, or about 33 per cent, between 1950 and 1953, and is far greater than pre-war and immediate post-war production. The increase in output is largely accounted for by new discoveries in the Union of South Africa and the Belgian Congo; production has been considerably increased in the Gold Coast, where it is largely under indigenous entrepreneurship, and in Angola and South West Africa.

^{1/} Statement by the Prime Ninister of the Union of South Africa, South Africa Reports (New York) 31 December 1953.

Table 22. Production'Elof Principal Minerals and Metals, 1950 to 1953

	Commodity	Commodity Thousands of metric tons				Percentage change from preceding year			
		1950	1951	1952	1953	1950/51	1951/52	1952/53	
	etallic mineral ores metal content):	-							
%)] rv	Antimony Bauxite Chrome Cobalt Copper Gold b/ Iron Lead Vagnetite Manganese Nickel c/ Silver Tin concentrates Tungsten Vanadium Zinc	10,745 130 488 6,238 502 417,649 3,961 119 20 836 1 241 23,292 469 182 133	18,551 135 478 7,073 552 411,939 4 ₀ 504 150 34 95° 1 231 23,854 736 480 158	9,911 199 467 8,416 574 421,529 5,463 181 35 1,038 1,038 1,038 1,192 667 181	5,035 458 536 9,605 631 426,147 6,153 189 33 1,052 2 25,880 1,437 541 222	73 4 - 2 13 10 - 1 14 26 65 14 36 2 57 164 18	-47 47 - 2 19 4 2 21 21 5 9 15 25 1 62 39 15	-49 131 15 14 10 1 13 4 -8 1 31 8 21 - 19 22	
<u> </u>	Non-metallic minerals	<u>;</u>							
	Asbestos Coal Diamonds d/ Petroleum Phosphate rock es.	175 30,037 14,832 43	201 30,435 16,533 83 7,172	231 32,350 18,408 147 6,921	194 33,132 19,776 188 6,419	15 1 11 94 18	15 6 11 77 - 3	- 16 2 7 27 -	

Source: United Nations, Statistical Yearbook. 1954.

a/ Excludinr; that of Egypt.

b/ In kilogrammes.
c/ Nickel content of platinum matte.

a/ In thousands of metric carats.

The relative importance of the major diamond producing areas in Africa in total world output differs considerably, depending on whether the volume or the value of output is used as a criterion. Thus, the Belgian Congo, which accounted for over 60 per cent of the volume of output in 1953, contributed only about 13 per cent of the value of world production, whereas the Union of South Africa and South West Africa, which produced only 14 per cent and 3 per cent respectively, of physical output in 1953, accounted for 32 per cent and 28 per cent of the value. This reflects differences in the ratios of gem to industrial diamonds.

Antimony

African production of antimony gained momentum during the Second World War with the expansion of the industry in the Union of South Africa. Output expanded continuously until the peak was reached in 1951 with a production of over 18.5 million metric tons. In that year the continent's output accounted for about 37 per cent of world production. Since 1951 world output has declined considerably but African output has declined at a greater rate. In 1953 African production had dropped to 5 million metric tons, or about 18 per cent of world output. The fluctuations in African production are chiefly accounted for by the Union of South Africa. Algeria, though a relatively mall producer, increased its output significantly.

Asbestos

The production of asbestos in Africa has experienced a considerable increase since the Second World War, and has maintained its share of about 17 per cent of world output. The Union of South Africa and Southern Rhodesia have always been the continent's leading producers, with the latter leading until 1950, when the former country emerged as the principal producer. Swaziland also produces an appreciable quantity.

Bauxite

French West Africa and the Gold Coast have been the only bauxite producers of consequence in the region. In 1953, 117,000 metric tons were produced in the Gold Coast. This was much less than the 1949 output of 147,000 tons which made it a ninth among world producers of the mineral. French West Africa, which in 1950 and 1951 produced negligible quantities of bauxite, had become by 1953 the largest producer in Africa with an output of 338,000 tons, or over 70 per cent of African output. This spectacular increase is the result of the development of deposits on the island of Kassa off the coast of French Guinea. Ore is exported from both French West Africa and the Gold Coast. In the latter, however, the projected development of the Volta River scheme is expected to result in the manufacture of aluminium, thus reducing the volume of ore exports.

Chrome ore

Southern Rhodesia and the Union of South Africa have been the principal producers of chrome ore in Africa; Sierra Leone also produces a small amount. Output in recent years, though recovering gradually from the setback immediately following the war, has not equalled the peak level of 670,000 metric tons attained in 1949 when Africa accounted for as much as 84 per cent of world production. In 1953, with an output of 536,000 metric tons, the region only accounted for about 38 per cent of the world total. This sharp decline in the share of world production between 1949 and 1953 is not only due to the slight fall in African output, but is also attributable to significant increases in production in other parts of the world, especially Turkey.

Cobalt

African production of cobalt increased from about 6.2 million metric tons in 1950 to 9.6 million metric tons in 1953 – an increase of approximately 54 per cent. This 1953 level of output is 93 per cent higher than the 1948 and 1949 levels and 224 per cent above production in 1937. The spectacular increase is due to increasing oversea demara for cobalt.

Africa has accounted for more than 80 per cent of worldproduction, most of this being supplied by the Belgian Congo, where there has been an increase of more than 60 per cent since 1950; the 1953 output is about 5.5 times the pre-war level. French Morocco and Northern Rhodesia also produce cobalt, but in much smaller amounts.

Copper

Operations in the Belgian Congo and Northern Rhodesia have accounted for the bulk of the copper production in Africa. Increased output in these countries has not only been largely responsible for the rise in African production from about 500,000 metric tons in 1953 - an increase of 26 per cent - but has also improved Africa's position as a major world producer. In 1950 Africa produced 22 per cent of world total, and by 1953 its share was almost 26 per cent.

Copper mining in Northern Rhodesia has undergone rapid expansion in recent years. The 1953 output of 368,C00 metric tons represents an increase of 26 per cent over 1950 production or 153 and 223 per cent over pre-war (1937) and immediate post-war (1947) levels, respectively. In the Belgian Congo, production has risen considerably, though not as much as in Northern Rhodesia, The 1953 output of 214,000 metric tons was about 22 Der cent higher than that of 1950 and 42 per cent higher than the 1947 level. The Union of South Africa also produces a significant quantity of copper; there has been little change in the output of that country in recent years. Like most other ores produced in Africa, the bulk of the produce is exported, though some - an estimated 4 per cent of African output in 1948 - is consumed locally.

Iron ore

The production of iron ore in the region suffered a serious setback during the Second World War. It was not until 1948 that the pre-war (1937) output of nearly 6 million metric tons was again attained; this was exceeded the following year. Algeria, the leading African producer and exporter, did not reach its pre-war output of nearly 2.5 million metric tons until 1949. In 1950 production fell to a new low of 1.4 million metric tons but began to rise again in subsequent years until the 1953 output amounted to 1.8 million metric tons. This represented a 29 per cent increase over production in 1950, but only about 70 per cent of both 1949 and 1937 levels.

During the period following the Second World War, large-scale programme for the development of iron ore deposits was undertaken in Liberia. Available data indicate a jump from exports of 118,000 metric tons in 1951 to 893,000 metric tons in 1953, representing more than a sixfold rise within the two-year period. Other major producers in the region have also increased their output between 1950 and 1953. There was an increase from 717,000 metric tons to 1,228,000 metric tons, or 71 per cent, in the Union of South Africa; from 711,000 metric tons to 848,coo, or 19 per cent, in Sierra Leone; and from 583,000 to 603,CCO metric tons, or 3 per cent in Spanish Morocco.

For the region as a whole, 1953 production exceeded the previous year by 13 per cent, and the 1950 and 1937 levels by 55 per cent and 3 per cent, respectively. Africa's share in world output remained relatively unchanged from 1950 to 1953 - about 4 per cent in 1950 and 5 per cent in 1953.

With the exception of the Union of South Africa and, to a lesser extent, Southern Rhodesia, where domestic industrialization programmes absorb the iron ore output, African production of iron ore has been entirely for export.

Lead and zinc ores

Output of lead ore has been much higher in recent years than in the immediate post-war period. Substantial increases have occurred in such major producing areas as French Morocco and South West Africa. In Morocco the 1953 output of 80,CCO metric tons was 67 per cent higher than in 1950 and more than five times that of 1937. In South West Africa output was about 59,CCO metric tons in 1953, an 84 per cent increase over production in 1950 and approximately six times that of 1937. The net effect of increased production in the principal producing areas was a rise in African output from 52,CCO metric tons in 1937 to 118,000 metric tons in 1950 and to almost 190,000 metric tons in 1953, with a resultant steady rise in Africa's share in world production. Thus, in 1937 Africa accounted for only 3 per cent of world total; by 1947 its share had increased to 5 per cent; it was 8 per cent in 1950 and 11 per cent in 1953.

Similar spectacular increases occurred with respect to zinc ore production. There was a rise from the 1937 level of 37,CCO metric tons to 133,CCO metric tons in 1950 and to 232,000 metric tons in 1953 - a 74 per cent increase over the 1950 level and more than six times that of the pre-war period. Most of this increase is attributable to mines in the

Belgian Congo. Africa accounted for only 2 per cent of world zinc production in 1937, but contributed more than 6 per cent in 1950 and more than 9 per cent in 1953.

Manganese

The outbreak of the Second World War was accomp.nied by a decline in the volume of African output of manganese from the 1937 peak level of 592,000 metric tons (metal content). It was not until 1949 that this pre-war level was exceeded with the output of 774,000 metric tons. In subsequent years, output has increased steadily reaching over one million metric tons in 1952 and 1953. The high level of output in 1949 is largely the result or a sharp increase in the output of the Union of South Africa, from 116,000 tons in 1948 to 275,000 tons. In the following year the output of that country rose to 332,000 tons and it has since fluctuated around that level.

Output in other African countries has been consistently higher than in 1950. The most noteworthy increase occurred in the Belgian Congo, which has emerged as a major producer with an increase from 8,500 tons in 1950 to 108,300 tons in 1953. Production in the Gold Coast rose from 376,000 tons in 1950 to 425,000 tons in 1951, but subsequently fell to 393,000 tons in 1953. In all other producing areas, with the exception of French Morocco, where production fell from 172,000 tons in 1952 to 166,000 tons in 1953, growth in output has been continuous since 1950.

Phosphate rock

African production of phosphate rock is mainly centred in Algeria, French Morocco and Tunisia. In the pre-war period, most of it came from French Morocco and Tunisia which accounted for 36 per cent and 47 per cent of the total, respectively. The war caused a marked decline in production between 1940 and 1945. After the war, production expanded in all three areas, with French Morocco emerging as the most important producer. Thus, in both 1950 and 1953, French Morocco accounted for about 64 per cent of African production, and almost 20 per cent of world output.

In the post-war period African production rose from the 1937 level of 3.8 million metric tons - and the still lower war-time output of 1.2 million metric tons in 1943 - to 6.1 million metric tons in 1950 and to the peak level of 7.2 million metric tons in 1951. These increases are largely the result of gains in French Morocco. In 1952 and 1953, however, African production fell slightly - to 6.9 million metric tons in 1952 and 6.4 million metric tons in 1953.

Africa has generally accounted for a substantial part of world production of phosphate rock. In 1937, it contributed about 36 per cent of the world total, and in 1951 and 1953 its share was about 35 per cent and 30 per cent, respectively. The relatively lower contribution in 1953 is the net result of a slight decline in African production and a simultaneous increase in the output of other producing areas, especially the United States.

' Chapter 4

FUEL AND POWER AND SECONDARY INDUSTRIES

Energy Resources

Africa is in general deficient in developed energy resources and in local supplies of fuel, especially petroleum. In many African countries there is an abundance of timber and it is used as fuel in rail and water transport and in small undertakings. It is, however, difficult to transport and its availability is limited by policies of natural forest conservation and development. Extensive coal deposits are known to exist in many parts of Africa, but production is comparatively small. The lack of combustible fuels is to some extent compensated by considerable hydroelectric potential, some of which is in process of development in tropical Africa and French North Africa.

Coal

The Union of South Africa, with an output of about 28 million tons in 1953, and Southern Rhodesia, with an output of about 2.6 million tons, between them accounted for more than 90 per cent of the total output of the continent. Nigeria produced 700,000 metric tons of low-grade coal, part of which was exported to the Gold Coast; Tete in Mozambique, about 160,000 metric tons of bituminous coal; the Luena and Kisulu mines of the Belgian Congo about 300,000 metric tons; French Morocco produced 565,000 tons of anthracite and Algeria 295,000 tons. While these are the principal producing regions, coal has been discovered elsewhere in Africa, sometimes in appreciable quantities. In Tanganyika, for example, eight coal-fields are known to exist in or near the Nyasa-Rukwa Valley, the principal field, in the Ruhuhu River basin, has an estimated reserve of 216 million tons of coal. Northern Rhodesia has several coal-fields of which that at Luano, with estimated reserves of 22 million tons, is one of the most important, while in Nyasaland the Sumbu field, one of three known deposits, has reserves estimated at 45 million tons. Large reserves are thought to exist in Bechuanaland. All these coal-fields are, however, fairly remote frcm railways and it has not so far been considered economical to work them. Increasing demand from the copper-mines may lead to the opening up of new coalfields in Northern Rhodesia, and the development of Tanganyikan resources is under consideration. 1/ The development of coal resources since 1950 is summarized in table 23, which shows an over-all increase to 1953 of about 10 per cent, mainly due to developments in Southern Rhodesia, Nigeria and French Morocco.

^{1/} Tanganyika, Department of Mines, Annual Report, 1953 (Dar es Salaam).

Table 23. Coal Production in Selected Countries, 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons)

Country	1950	1951	1952	1953	Percentage increase 1950 to
				1953	
Algeria	258	247			
Belgian Congo .	160	218	269	295	14
French Morocco	268	394	253	315	97
Madagascar • • •	2	6	460	565	54
			4	5	150
Mozambique	56	78			189
Nigeria	592	560	150	162	20
Southern Rhodesia	2,128	2,300	590	711	23
Union of South	_,	,	2,559	2,618	
Africa	26,473	26,632	_,000	- , · - 0	8
			28,065	28,461	

Source: United Nations, Statistical Yearbook, 1954.

Petroleum

Petroleum has been discovered in Morocco, where annual production in 1954 was of the order of 120,000 metric tons compared with under 40,000 tons in 1950. This is the only African territory at present producing petroleum in any quantity. Small amounts - 74,000 metric tons in 1954 - have been found in Algeria; prospecting in Gabon in French Equatorial Africa has resulted in definite signs of the presence of oil and drilling has been undertaken in Nigeria and in Somaliland under Italian administration. In Mozambique prospecting is being carried on by the Mozambique Gulf Oil Company, and in the Belgian Congo geological surveys are being undertaken and experiments being made to ascertain whether oil can be distilled from shale deposits. 2/ Drilling for oil was commenced in 1954 on Mafia Island, Tanganyika.

Although petroleum has not been discovered in the Union of South Africa, a plant has been established to produce petroleum from coal seams in the Orange Free State which, though thick and relatively near the surface, are generally poor in quality. The Plant, which is under construction by the South African Coal, Oil and Gas Corporation (SASOL) within a few miles of the industrial developments of the Vereeniging area, will have an estimated annual output of 76 million gallons of liquid fuel, mainly petroleum – about one-eighth of the country's present requirements.

Organisation for European Economic Cc-operation, Energy in Overseas Territories (Paris, 1953).

Electric energy

With increasing urbanization and the demand for some measure of industrialization there has been a continued expansion of electric power throughout Africa (table 24); the over-all increase in output from 1950 to 1953 was of the order of 30 per cent.

The Union of South Africa is the major producer of electric energy, accounting for over two-thirds of total African production; the Belgian Congo, French Morocco and the Federation of Rhodesia and nyasaland together account for a fifth. The increase in production from 1950 to 1953 in all these countries together accounted for almost 80 per cent of the total increase in Africa. The largest percentage increase was recorded in Uganda, where electricity output in 1953 was 250 per cent higher than in 1950 and 50 per cent higher than in the previous year, as a result of opening the Owen Falls project. Liberia and French Equatorial Africa both increased their production of electricity between 1950 and 1953 by over 100 per cent, and in eight other countries the increase ranged from 49 per cent in Nigeria to 80 per cent in Southern Rhodesia.

African production of electricity is still predominantly thermal. Despite an increase of 50 per cent between 1950 and 1953 in hydroelectric output, this form of electricity still accounts for only one-tenth of the total. Even if South Africa, where output is almost exclusively thermal, is excluded, hydroelectric production still accounts for only about one-quarter of the remainder; it is, however, important in individual territories. For example, the entire Mauritian output of electricity, over 95 per cent of Belgian Congo output and about 90 per cent of Madagascar's production is hydroelectric; three-quarters of the electricity generated in Spanish Morocco and Tanganyika, and about one-third of Algerian and French Moroccan output, are similarly derived. Hydroelectric potential is, however, considerable in certain areas, particularly in French North Africa where development is planned, and in the countries watered by the Zambesi - Angola, the Rhodesias and Mozambique - where the creation of an International Zambesi Authority was recommended by the Northern and Southern Rhodesian Inter-territorial Hydroelectric Commission in 1951. In Uganda, the Owen Falls hydroelectric scheme is already in partial operation, and output is expected to increase from 60 million kilowatt hours in 1953 to 4c6 million in 1962, thus not only replacing existing thermal output in Uganda but providing a surplus for export to Kenya. The harnessing of the Konkoure in French West Africa is linked with the processing of bauxite, whilst the Sanaga Falls scheme in the Camerocas under French administration should assist the development of processing and chemical industries in the Douala-Edea districts. The Volta River scheme in the Gold Coast would make possible the manufacture of aluminium from local bauxite deposits at present exported as ore.

Consumption of energy in Africa measured in terms of coal equivalents is estimated to have increased by 20 per cent from 1950 to 1953 (table 25). Consumption in Nigeria, the Rhodesias and French North Africa has increased by between 30 and 35 per cent; in the Belgian Congo the increase is of the order of 58 per cent and in Kenya and Uganda 75 per cent. In the Union of South Africa, consumption was already at a high level, and the percentage increase has been smaller - of the order of 16 per cent. In Northern Rhodesia, the main consumer is the mining industry; in Southern Rhodesia this is also true, but other industrial

Table 24. Production of Electricity in Selected Countries, 1950 to 1953 (Millions of kilowatt-hours)

Country	1950	1951	1952	1953In	crease	, 1950to (per cent)	1953
•••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••							
••••••		Northern I Nyasa	Rhodesia	Nigeria 832 2	117	142 866 3	
Southern Rhodesia a/ Spanish Morocco a/ Spanish Morocco a/ Sudan a/ French administration Tunisia a/ Spanish Morocco a/ Sudan a/ Togoland, French administration Tunisia a/ Tuni	497 ::: 20 ::: 41 20 141	6 44433 1444433 144 1544423 144 154422 154	7 0 1 4 7 0 2 7 7 0 2 7 1 6 2 7 1 6 3	896 · 32 180 · 32 180		80 d/ 25 d/ 25 d/ 25	
	16 10,867	29 11,664	40 1 16;867	60 -6 29 13,345		275 23	
Hganda a/							

Trian of South Africa •• .

b/ Consumption.

c/ Public sales.

d/ Increase from 1950 to 1952. Source: United Nations, Statistical Yearbook, 1954. a/ Public supply only. In the Gold Coast this is about one-sixth of the amount generated by the mining companies.

b/ Consumption. G/ Public sales d/ Increase from 1950 to 1952.

Sierra Leone a/ 6 7 9 9 54 Somaliland, Italian

• 5 7 7 140

Table 25. Estimated Consumption of Energy, 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons of ccal equivalent)

Country	_	otal		Per c	apita
1950	1951	1952	1955	1950	1953
Total, Africa a/		<i>'</i>	48,900	0.21	0.24
Algeria 1,412	1,583		1,664	0.16 0.02	0.18 0.03 b/
Angola			1,518	0.02	0.12 -
administration 86	84	129	101	0.03	0.03
Ethiopia	48	55	98	0.00	0.01
French Equatorial Africa .112 French Morocco 1,122	104	136 1,535	119 1,777	0.03	0.03
French West Africa 347	456	532	± , / / /	0.02	0.22 0.03 b/
Gold Coast 366	407	419	433	0.09	0.11 -
Kenya and Uganda 553	796	878	969	0.05	0.09
Liberia	26	28	171	0.02	0.02 b/
Madagascar	143 65	181 86	Ι/Ι	0.03	0.04 - 0.17 b/
1viauritius	0.5	00		0.11	0.17 .07
Mozambique348	356	475		0.06	0.08
Nigeria c/	996	1,035	1,091	0.04	0.03
Northern Rhodesia771 Sierra Leone 49	935 51	958 58	1,032	0.41 0.03	0.51
Southern Rhodesia 1,469		.1,779		0.03	0.04
Sudan 234	307	349	360	0.03	0.04
Tanganyika 217	218	265	297	0.03	0.04
Tunisia	599 0230,00	677 530 . 10°	627	0.15 1.89	0.17 2.05
_		230,10		1.07	2100

Source: Uniti-d Nations, Statistical Yearbook for 1953 and 1954. The figures refer to gross inland consumption of commercial fuels (excluding fuel wood) and water power.

a/ Including Egypt.

b/ 1952.

c/ Including the Cameroons under British administration.

d/ Including Basutoland, Bechuanaland, Swaziland and South West Africa.

consumption has also been expanding and in 1953/54 accounted for 20 per cent of total consumption compared with 7 per cent in 1950/51. 3/

Metals and Manufactures

The Union of South Africa is the major producer of iron and steel in Africa and the most important consumer, with consumption exceeding that of the remainder of the continent, exclusive of Egypt. Iron and steel production of the Union of South Africa is mainly in the hands of the Iron and Steel Industrial Corporation (ISCOR), which has an annual capacity of the order of 1.2 million tons, equivalent to about 850,000 tons of finished steel products. Other producers are the African Metals Corporation, Limited (AMCOR) and the United Steel Corporation, Limited (USCOR), in both of which ISCCR holds controlling interests. Production of pig-iron expanded continuously, from 733,000 metric tons in 1950 to 1,223,000 in 1953; steel production during the same period expanded from 816,000 metric tons to 1,298,000, an increase of almost 00 per cent (table 26). Apparent consumption of steel in the Union of South Africa (production plus imports minus exports) increased from 1,250,000 metric tons in 1950 to 1,736,000 in 1952 but fell to 1,689,000 in 1953.

Southern Rhodesian production has also expanded and in 1953, though less than in the previous year, exceeded that in 1950. Production of pig-iron and steel, which in 1950 amounted to 34,000 and 23,000 metric tons, respectively, rose to 39,000 and 36,000 metric tons in 1952, declining to 36,000 and 25,000 in 1953. The Rhodesian Iron and Steel Commission (RISCCM) installed a small blast furnace in April 1954, and an open hearth furnace with a capacity of 75 tons has since been added. It is estimated that these additions will increase production of pig-iron to 80,000 tons per annum and that of ingot steel to about 65,000 tons per annum. Since the Southern Rhodesian demand for steel was estimated in 1952 at 1C9,000 tons of rolled products, expanding within a few years to 150,000 tons a year, further expansion of the iron and teel industry is to be expected. Algerian production of iron and of steel castings amounted to 5,879 and 580 metric tons, respectively, in 1953, production in 1950 having been 5,963 metric tons of iron and 812 tons of steel. Production is capable of expansion to two or three times its present level. 4/ In French Morocco current steel production is of the order of 2,000 metric tons and production of pig-iron 6,500 metric tons.

On the basis of present knowledge, it seems unlikely that African production of iron and steel will expand appreciably except as indicated above. Although iron ore deposits occur frequently in Africa and production is increasing in several territories, known deposits of coking coal are few. Application of the Krupp-Renn technique for smelting iron without the use of coke is planned by the Dominion Iron and Steel Corporation in the eastern Transvaal and will enable the Union of South Africa to utilize non-coking coal in steel production, but it is too early to speculate on the possibility of extending this method of production to other areas of Africa.

^{3/} United Kingdom Board of Trade, Overseas Economic Survey of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland (London, 1953).

^{4/} alcyclapedie Mensnelle d'Outre-er, 1954: Algerie 54 (Paris), page 151.

Table 26. Production of Pig-Iron and Steel in Selected Countries, 1950 to 1953

(Thousands of metric tons)

Country Pig-iron	Steel	1950 Pig-iron		19 -iron	0 -	19 Pig-iro	02
Algeria	000		1 2 28	7 39	1 36	6 7 36	1 2 25
Africa733	816	805	1,C07	1,129	1,258	1,223	1,298

Source: United Nations, Statistical Yearbook; Ministry For Overseas France,
Bulletin Mensuel de Statistique d'Outre-Mer (Paris); Morocco:

Commissariat General au plan de Modernisation et d'Equipement,
Cinq ans de realisation du programme d'equipement, 1949-53 (Paris).

Table 27. Consumption of Crude Steel in Selected Countries, 1950 to 1953

(Thousands of metric tons)

CnTintry 1	950 1951	L 1952	1953	
Algeria	22 186 24 129	253 135		
British West Africa c/ French West Africa d7	89 123 83 105	157 118	142 71	
Morocco 2/	130 106 71 58		165 64	

Source: United Nations, Statistical Yearbook, 1954. Data refer to apparent consumption of crude steel (production plus imports minus exports) and do not take into account changes in stocks (see source for further details).

- 2/ Including Ruanda-Urundi.
- b/ Kenya, Pemba, Somaliland under British administration, Tanganyika, Uganda and Zanzibar.
- c/ Gold Coast, Nigeria and Sierra Leone.

Including Togoland under French administration.

e/ French and Spanish Morocco and Tangiers.

The apparent consumption of crude steel in 4u2rica increased by about 40 per cent between 1950 and 1952, but fell about 10 per cent in the following year; the growth, illustrated in table 27, has been particularly significant in the Union of South Africa, the Rhodesias, the Belgian Congo and British West Africa. Since the data make no allowance for changes in stocks, but relate only to production plus imports minus exports, the decline in consumption in 1953 shown in the table may be more apparent than real. It is known, for example, that in some countries stocks were increased in 1952 and 1953 to avoid delays in development programmes arising from material shortages.

In countries with smelting facilities, attention is increasingly being directed towards the possibility of producing non-ferrous metals and ferroalloys instead of exporting ore. In the Union of South Africa, for example, production by the African Metals Corporation, Limited, of ferroalloys, currently running at about 35,000 tons annually, will be expanded to 44,000 tons - including possibly 17,000 tons for export - by the installation of a new electric furnace. In Southern Rhodesia a pilot plant with an annual capacity of 5,000 to 7,000 tons of ferrochrome is in production at Gwelo. In Algeria 300 to 400 tons of non-ferrous castings are produced annually, and the industry is capable of expansion.

With the manufacture of iron and steel, there has developed some metal manufacturing. Increasing quantities of mining and other machinery are being produced in the Union of South Africa and, on a smaller scale, in Southern Rhodesia. In Algeria, agricultural machinery, cable and electric accumulators are being made; and in French Morocco, though large metal operations are not at present feasible because coal is not abundant nor of the right quality, a small electric foundry has been established, and agricultural implements, electric cables and batteries are manufactured. These, however, account for only a small part of Africa's requirements for metal manufactures, the greater purt of which will need to be net by imports for many years to come.

Secondary Industries

Except in the Union of South Africa, the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, the Belgian Congo and French North Africa, the great part of industrialization in Africa arises from the primary processing of agricultural raw materials. If the product is exported, the loss in weight resulting from processing – for example, extracting palm oil, sawing timber, processing sugarcane – offers an advantage in transport costs decisively favouring local manufacture.

In the case of mining where it would clearly be more economical to export the metal than the ore to reduce the weight and bulk of the product, such local processing is generally economical only if fuel is available together with the ore, as in the Belgian Congo, the Rhode sias and the Union of South Africa; in other countries, for example Nigeria and the Gold Coast, the ore is exported. The lack of fuel resources in many African countries makes large measure of industrialization unlikely in the immediate future unless this handicap can be overcome by large-scale electrification, such as, for example, is envisaged in the Volta scheme, which is expected to result in increasing industrialization.

The products of domestic industries enjoy an appreciable advantage over imported goods with respect to cost, to the extent that transport costs are included in the price of imports in local markets. In the case of cement and of beer or mineral waters, for example, freight forms a large element in the c.i.f. price. If there is little difference in weight between the manufactured item and the raw material, the importance of transport costs is, of course, of less significance, but the local manufacturer may still benefit if competing manufactures from abroad are produced from imported raw materials; for example, in the case of cigarettes and soap.

While transport costs are an important item in determining the possibility of establishing secondary industries producing for domestic consumption, a major consideration is the size of the domestic market in relation to the minimum size at which production can be carried on economically. Owing to the low levels of income, and consequently the narrow scope of demand, the feasibility of replacing imported manufactures effectively by local production is limited. The extension of the money economy and the growth of wealth arising from increased productivity should eventually produce conditions favourable to the expansion of local secondary industries.

A further factor which at present retards development of secondary industries is the lack of finance. In order to overcome this, many governments make loans on favourable terms to aid applicants in establishing secondary The Northern Rhodesian Industrial Loans Board, for example, lent industries. over £0.5 million between 1951 and 1953 to form new concerns or further the operations of established firms, in Nigeria, oil extraction plants were established by the Regional Production Development Board and subsequently turned over to approved operators. Where funds are not readily available locally they may be forthcoming from abroad if conditions in the country appear conducive to such investment; most African countries attemM to create suitable conditions for foreigh investment. Whether the finance is provided locally or from abroad, the difficulties of the initial period in the establishment of an industry, during which risks are highest, are often met by the grant of selective income tax concessions or by exemptions from taxation for a stated period.

Union of South Africa

In the Union of South Africa, where industrialization is most advanced, manufacturing industry in $195^2/_53$ accounted for 25 per cent of total geographic income compared with 23 per cent in 1950/51 and 18 per cent in $193^8/_39$, and provided employment for about 10 per cent more persons in 1953 than in 1950. The rapid growth of secondary industries has been large_y due to Government participation in basic industries. The South African Iron and Steel Industrial Corporation (ISCOR) has aided the establishment of many engineering and metal-working concerns, while the Industrial Development Corporation (IC) has fostered others, notably in textiles. The production of petroleum products from coal by the South African Coal, Oil and Gas Corporation, Limited (SASOL) is expected to result in a number of important by-products, which will serve as a foundation for chemical industries and provide raw materials for numerous other new industries. It is anticipated that a new coal gasification plant will produce 9,000 tons of liquid ammonia annually, in addition to 12,000 tons of law

tempertaure tar and 6,000 tons of tar acids, to be used in plastics and synthetic fibres. The petrol synthesis process is expected to produce a number of organic solvent materials, such as alcohols, aldehydes and ketones, while other potential by-products are aliphatic petroleum chemicals used in the production of solvents and the manufacture of synthetic rubber.

The preliminary report on the thirty-fifth industrial census (ending 1951/52) shows a rapid growth in industrialization in recent years. The number of establishments (excluding mining and quarrying), for example, increased from 14,361 in 1948/49 to .15,604 in 1950/51 but declined somewhat in the following year, to 15,564. The gross value of output increased from £675 million in 1948/49 to £952 million in 1950/51 and £1,095 in 1951/52. Table 28 shows the wide range of industries under private enterprise, which was responsible for 94 per cent of the gross value of output in 1951/52. Although full census data since 1950/51 are not available, information regarding production in selected industries indicates a steady growth in industrial activity since that date.

Table 28. Union of South Africa: Industrial Census of Private Industries, 1950/51 and 1951/52-

				2110405111109	1930/31 41	10 1751/52					
I tern		umber of	build mac	of land, ings and hinery nds of South unds 1951752	17751	Number of e	mployees Female 1755,751 1951/37	and (Thousand	salaries wages s of Sout otuids) 1951/52	ou h (Thousan	value of utput ds of South anunds
	1/33/31	1931/3	T90QT0T	1931/34	1//51	/ /31//	1/30,/31 1331/3/	1930/31	1931/32	1930	1951 34
Industrial group:											
Food Beverages Tobacco Textiles Clothing and footwear Wood	2,164 293 44 113 1,338 680	2,110 283 43 133 1,297 669	37,407 10,783 3,186 12,454 14,590 6,790	42,734 11,818 4,048 14,437 15,906 7,586	9,187 4,37° 17,870 30,045	68,453 9,174 14,346 18,863 30,918 28,125	14,325 15,028 436 446 1,977 1,926 4,017 4,484 40,079 39,043 438 684	15,622 2,357 1,642 4,579 18,775 4,221	17,582 2,604 1,798 5,285 20,245 4,864	167,105 11,639 12,888 28,073 78,301 18,413	187,366 19,474 13,848 30,005 79,420 21,784
Furniture Paper Printing Leather Rubber	536 93 455 98 102	516 99 466 99 109	7,082 7,009 10,515 1,838 3,721	7,372 8,823 11,553 .2,041 4,543	7,678 11,660 4,959	18,374 8,529 12,052 4,959 7,652	859 845 2,430 2,345 4,296 4,363 439 414 459	5,921 3,231 7,564 1,500 2,482	6,627 3,806 8,582 1,675 2,890	19,579 18,299 9,781 26,077	22,222 22,522 20,318 10,032 24,750
Chemicals	301	292	19,038	23,571	28,174	28,475	3,398 3,531	8,606	9,582	72,924	78,689
Petroleum and coal products Non-metallic mineral	32	32	4,805	4,487	3,630	3,587	50 53	821	883	5,635	7,384
products	730	710	23,156	28,846	50,960	54,096	651 732	8,600	10,037	29,894	35,948
Basic metals	93	97	32,151	31,397		26,843	486 511	7,348	10,579	28,106	41,480
Metal products	951	970	23,380	26,382	83,231	87,814	1,621 1,781	23,582	27,291	81,304	99,394
Machinery, excluding electrical Electrical machinery • Transport equipment Miscellaneous Construction	370 662 3,065 482	378 656 3,088 469	11,037 6,938 20,790 5,319	12,573 7,445 24,447 6,192 8,538	15,867 44,100 8,370	24,701 18,169 47,344 8,954 101,231.	744 765 1,359 1,457 2,104 2,149 1,175 1,221 843 882	7,841 5,707 13,392 3,134 21,174	9,964 7,053 15,500 3,704 26,577	25,530	34,184 24,725 53,372 55,112 56,43 66,063
Electricity, gas	112	113	71,384	90,514	12 267	12,867	325 367	3,711	3,635		15,224
and steam Personal services	527	526	4,916	5,153	•	10,381	3,409 3,628	2,471	2,729		5,397
TOTAL .	15,125	15,087	345,981	396,409	593,760	-	85,865 87,049	174,282	203,496	883,760	1,022,993
Geographic distribution:											
Cape	5,047	5,069	84,804	98,648	154,008	161,329	43,463 44,091	49,429	55,829		262,891
Natal	1,983	1,947	57,348	66,164	100,829	103,982	6,743 7,069	24,837	27,794		155,873
Orange Free State .	1,338	1,353	9,879	11,601	29,876	30,684	1,700 1,654	6,925	7,895		31,831
Transvaal	6,757	6,718	193,950	219,996	309,047	332,862	33,960 34,235	93,091	111,977		433,164

Source: Bureau of Census and Statistics, thirty-fourth and thirty-fifth industrial censuses, for 1950-51 and 1951-52 (preliminary reports; Pretoria, April and December 1954).

Southern Rhodesia

The census of industrial production for Southern Rhodesia shows a large expansion in industrial activity from 1949 to 1950, followed by continued steady growth to the end of 1952, the latest year for which figures are available (see table 29).

Table 29, Southern Rhodesia: Census of Manufacturing Industries, 1949 to 1952

(Thousands of pounds sterling)

Year		er of shments		Number of employees European Indigenous	Salaries and wages	Gross output
1950 1951 1952		681	7,258 8,845 9,441 9,935	52,595 56,748	6,680 8,964 10,680 11,962	31,076 42,414 51,011 55,557

Source: Central African Statistical Office, <u>Twelfth Report on the Census</u> of Industrial Production (Salisbury, March 1954).

The analysis in table 30 shows that industries in the fields of food, transport equipment, metal working, textiles and non-metallic minerals employ the greater part of labour in private manufacturing, while of those listed, construction is the largest single employer of labour.

Belgian Congo

The index of industrial production in the Belgian Congo (19)47/49 = 100) increased from 147.4 in 1950 to 301.2 in 1953, the greatest annual increase occurring between 1952 and 1953, when output rose by 45 per ceat (table 31). The rise was due in part to new industries, and in part to the expansion of existing ones. Of the increase of 733 firms from 1952 to 1953, the majority were in Leopoldville province. All branches of industry contributed to the general increase; the expansion in chemical production of 75 per cent from 1952 to 1953 is particularly noteworthy.

Table 30. Southern Rhodesia: Census of Industries, by Industrial Group, 1952

(Thousands of pounds sterling)

Industrial group	Number estab		Number of European		Total salariesG and wages	ross output
Food	 parel	1C0 25 37 80 38	940 229 471 568 328	7,381 1,237 8,573 9,516 4,686	1,260 251 795 1,114 533	16,483 2,514 4,G99 7,076 1,972
Wood Furniture Paper and printing Rubber Chemicals Non-metallic min Metal manufacture Transport equipm Miscellaneous	ng erals es ent .	30 25 8 20 77 132 132	165 937 23 341 462 2,069 3,282 120	1,812 884 204 1,464 9,146 7,471 4,774 892	297 813 39 386 914 2,338 3,050 171	1,156 2,337 373 2,984 3,908 6,895 4,534 1,226
Total, manufactindustries Construction Electricity and Total, all		724 437 10	9,935 7,606 1,011	58,040 _a / 45,017 4,047	11,962 9,097 1,068	55,557 26,220 4,520
industr	ies .	1,171	18,552	107,104	22,127	86,297

Source: Central African Statistical Office, <u>Twelfth Report on the</u>
2-1 <u>Census of Industrial Production</u> (Salisbury, March 1954).

Including 759 non-indigenous non-European employees.

Table 31. Belgian Congo: Indices of Industrial Production, 1950 to 1953

1950 to 1953
(1947-49 100)

Year

	Fo	od Textil	es Chemica materials	als Building	Miscellaneous	Total
1950	 123.5	160.1	144.6	201.2	146.6	147.4
1951	 146.4	327.4	153.7	244.3	175.0	179.4
1952	 158.3	390.2	196.1	283.3	218.0	206.9
1953	 185.7	442.6	344.8	463.8	267.2	301.2

Source: Ministry for the Colonies, La situation economique du Congo Beige en 1953 (Brussels, 1954).

The increase from 1952 to 1953 in the palm kernel oil (99 per cent), ground-nut cent) contributed to the rise in the index were gains of 14 per cent and 40 per cent, mineral water.

output of ground-nut oil (69 per cent), cake (48 per cent) and palm cake (39 per cent) of food production (table 32). There respectively, in the output of beer and

The rise of 13 per cent in the index for textiles was small in comparison with the expansion in other sectors of industry. Sack production, which rose 43 per cent between 1952 and 1953, was sufficient to meet the territory's demands. Production of cotton piece goods rose by 6 per cent in this period; further expansion was expected in this field in 1954 with the establishment of a new factory and a large increase in existing facilities.

Expansion in chemical production from 1952 to 1953 occurred in paints and varnishes (162 per cent increase), explosives (32 per cent) and soap (more than per cent). Further expansion of sulphuric acid production is being undertaken.

Production of building materials increased by over 3 per cent from 1952 to 1953, largely as a result of the opening of a new factory at Jadotville, which produced 15,560 tons of cement in 1953; since its rate of production reached 2,700 per month towards the end of 1953, a further expansion in output was expected in 1954. Brick production in 1953 was up by 7 per cent and lime production by over 13 per cent, compared with 1952.

Table 32. Belgian Congo: Production of Selected

Item and unit	1950	1951	1952	1953
Food:				
Beer (hectolitres)	369,199 8,321 5,903 86,181 17,855 14,675 12,896	478,501 12,453 8,263 115,870 19,685 17,563 14,165	648,576 9,157 5,7C0 135,557 12,990 12,435 15,413	738,764 13,512 9,621 189,313 18,008 24,800 16,458
Manufacture	s, 1950 t	.o 1953		
Sacks (thousands) Textiles (thousands of metres) 43,			3,400 37,642	
Chemicals and manufactures:				
Explosives (metric tons) Soap (metric tons) Sulphuric acid (metric tons)	15,528		1,690 14,976 54,250	2,234 16,070 60,600
Construction materials:				
Bricks (millions)	73,857	204,921	394 239,922 83,137	422 248,270 94,332
Leather manufactures: Leather shoes (thousands of pair	rs) .595	825	1,027	1,267

Source: La situation 6conomique du Congo Beige, 1951 et 1953.

French Morocco

Industrial production in French Morocco has also shown signs of expansion since 1950. Wagon repairs have been undertaken, and agricultural implements, electric cables and batteries have been manufactured. In the chemical field, oxygen, acetylene and sulphuric acid have been produced, among the food products sugar, beer, wine and canned fish have risen inimportance.

Table 33 shows production in certain industries for the years 1948, 1951 and 1953.

Table 33.	French Morocco:	Industrial	1948,
	1951	and 1953	

Item and unit	1948	1951	¹ 955	
Batteries (thousands)	12	17 150 376 90 4 40 7 u 610	25 144 610 100 8 50 9 25 720 19	
Steel (thousands of metric tons) Sugar, refined (thousands of metric tons) Sulphuric acid (thousands of metric tons) Superphosphates (thousands of metric tons) Tiles (thousands of metric tons)	1 123 20 55 9	2 137 32 82 11	2 190 28 77 13	

Source: Ministry of Commerce and Merchant Marine, <u>Cinq ans de</u> realisation du programme d'equipement (Casablanca, 1954).

Algeria

The Bureau d'Organization et d'Ensembles Industriels Africain (3IA) was established in 1952 in order to extendindustrialization in French North Africa. It was estimated that in its preliminary work of exploring possibilities of industrialization the bureau would require a billion francs during the period October 1953 to December 1954, and that thereafter its expenditure would be at the rate of 2 billion to 3 billion francs annually.

Industrial enterprise, other than mining and the manufacture of construction materials, failed to rise after a rapid expansion between 1950 and 1951; output in 1953 was generally below the 1951 level (table 3)4).

Table 34, Algeria: Indices of Industrial Production, 1951 to 1953 (1950 = 100)

Item	1951	1952	1953	
Mining	113	123	137	
Metals	109	80	73	
Metal manufactures	122	119	104	
Chemicals	131	112	122	
Tobacco and matches		112	113	
Fats and soap	99	93	100	
Carpets	94	116	117	
Paper and cardboard	171	131	166	
Construction materials	126	132	134	

Source: Government Statistical Office, Annuaire Statistique de l'Algerie, 1953 (Algiers, 195)4).

Chapter 5

LABOUR

For most African countries statistics relating to labour and employment are so incomplete that it is impossible to obtain from them anything more than a fragmentary picture of trends in employment, wages and levels of living during thr five-year period. Data are available only for tropical Africa and the Union of South Africa.

Tropical Africa

In tropical Africatheproportion of the total population dependent on wage earning for part or the whole of income varies greatly from country to country. This proportion tends to be smaller—where exports are based largely on output of small farm holdings, and larger where the proceeds of plantation agriculture and mining are significant. In all territories, however, the proportion of wage earners in the total population tends to increase as cash earning activities increase. Official estimates of the total number of wage earners in several countries for the years 1949 to 1953 are set out in table 35.

Table 35. Estimated Number of Wage Earners, 19i. to 53 (Thousands)

Country	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953
Belgian Congo a/ Gold Coast Kenya	156 a/ 430 —	562 184 a/ 461 —	1,031 222 453 303 a/	1,078 221 476 309 a/	1,110 499
Southern Rhodesia . Tanganyika Uganda	. 46c	504	53': 455 a/ 2C0	 202 a/ —	Northern Rhodesia 448 a/ 215 Z/

Source: See appendix table E.

The estimates in table 35 emit certain categories of workers or are based on incomplete reporting. In some cases the most recent estimates of the total number of wage earners are derived from population censuses taken several years ago.

a/ Indigenous wage earners only; complete estimates including nen-indigenous wage earners are not available.

However, inesmuch cs the totals are comparable from year to year within each territory they may indicate a trend.

In all the figures given, there appears to have been a marked and generally steady increase in the number of wage earners, varying from an average annual rate of about 8 per cent in Uganda to about 6 per cent in Kenya. Thus the increase in the number of wage-earners is considerably greater than the probable rate of increase in population, which is not likely to have exceeded 2 per cent per annum in any instance.

Figures on the distribution of wage earners by industrial groups are available to a limited extent for most territories, but while figures for certain categories, for instance mine workers, are unambiguous and fairly complete, such categories as commerce, transport and manufacturing are often ambiguous and incomplete. The broad classifications in which occupational and industrial breakdowns are available do not lend themselves to detailed analysis. Moreover, the classifications are not strictly comparable among different territories, and therefore, only very broad and limited conclusions may be drawn from them.

Available data on the industrial distribution of wage earners, given in appendix table E, indicate that the number of wage earners in mining has shown no tendency to increase during the period under review in the major mineral producing territories, with the exception of Northern Rhodesia, where new mining developments have been considerable. Even here, however, the annual increase has been less than 3 per cent during the five-year period. In the Belgian Congo and Southern Rhodesia there has been a slight decline in mining employment. Nevertheless, mining output has increased considerably in these three countries, the average annual increase being close to 10 per cent in Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia, and close to 20 per cent in the Belgian Congo. These figures evidence notable increases in labour productivity, arising in Tart from more highly mechanized methods of production and more efficient use of labour.

In the countries for which figures are available, employment in public administration shows very marked increases, indicating growing activities of Government arising partly from the implementation of development plans and partly from the normal growth of administrative machinery. Such is the case in Kenya, Northern Rhodesia and Uganda and it is reasonable to assume a similar trend in other territories.

Increases in construction employment in most cases have been at a higher rate than the average for all employment. This too reflects the effects of development plans as well as of private investment. Increases in employment in manufacturing are noteworthy in the Belgian Congo, Kenya, Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia. Commerce and transport show a similar trend.

Statistics of wage rates and the cost of living are no less fragmentary than those of employment; and provide for the most part only indications of the direction of wage and price movements. Wage rates are often quoted in the form nf minimum and maximum rates for specific classes of workers, without indication of actual wages earned. Moreover, these minima and maxima are sometimes given as daily, sometimes as weekly and sometimes as monthly rates so that it is often impossible, especially in the conditions of migrant labour common in tropical Africa, to estimate actual individual earnings.

Available cost of living indices are set out in table 36. The coverage of these indices is very narrow in most of the territories, but some cases, local studies of budgets and costs of living throw additional light on wages and living levels.

Table 36. Indices of Cost of Living, 1949 to 1954 (1948 m 100)

Place and year	All items	Food
Belgian Congo (Leopo	ldville):	
Europeans :2	2/	
1949 1950 1951 1952 1953	107 117 128 127	109 109 118 124 122 122
Indigenous government	workers:	
1914.9 1950 1(51 1952 1953	112 129 134 129	116 b/ 116 T/ 136 T/ 140 T/ 334 T/
French Equatorial Africa	(Brazzaville): ² / /	
1949 1950 1951 1952 1953	168 207 236 239	147 167 196 213 211
French West Africa (Da	ka <u>r</u>):/ ^C /	
1949 1950 1951 1952 1953 1954	131 150 164 171	133 151 166 171
T) J T		

Table 36. Indices of Cost of Living, 1949 to 19'54 (continued) (1948 = 100)

Place and year	All items	Food
Kenya (Nairobi):Ei	_	
1949	101 109 118 128 135 140	113 119 133 145 148
1949	- 105	106
1950	108 114 121 125 129	111 119 130 137 145
Southern Rhodesia:/	_	
1949	106 115 122 133 136 137	106 121 132 149 155 153
Tanganyika (Dar es Salaam): 2 / c/f/	_	
1949	126 g/ 123 — 135 143	116 g/ 126 — 146 159
Uganda (Kampala):-a/ E/h/	_	
1944	000 127 i/ 133 — 143 149 j/	.o. 000 133 149 163 171 j/

Source: United Nations, Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, March 1955; Bureau of Economic Studies, La Situation Economique du Congo Beige en 1955 (Brussels). Figures represent annual averages.

- a/ Data excluding rents.
- b/ November.
- c/ Europeans.
- d/ Mainly Europeans.
- e/ Non-indigenous.
- f/ December 1948 = 100.
- g/ June to December average.
- h/June 1948 = 100.
- 1/ December.

October.

In the Belgian Congo, separate studies covering the European population on the one hand and indigenous government workers on the other, show that the cost of living has risen by 27 per cent for the former group between 1948 and 1953 and by 29 per cent for the latter. In Kenya, the cost of living of Europeans in Nairobi has increased by about 40 per cent over the same period. In French West Africa (Dakar) and French Equatorial Africa (Brazzaville), cost of living for Europeans has risen by 71 per cent and 139 per cent, respectively. In Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia, Tanganyika (Dar es Salaam) and Uganda (Kampala), increases in the cost of living during the period under consideration have been in the order of 29 to 43 per cent.

Information on cash wages of indigenous workers, available only for Northern Rhodesia and Uganda is set out in tables 37 and 38. The information on Northern Rhodesia covers only mineworkers.

Table 37. Northern Rhodesia: Average Monthly Cash Wages of Mine Employees, 1948 to 1953

	Europe	ean	Indigenous		
Year	Value (shillings)	Index (1948 = 100)			
1948	1,210	lco	55	100	
1949	1,360	112	60	109	
1950	1,650	136	66	120	
1951	1,810	150	81	147	
1952	1,920	159	92	167	
1953	2,010	166	126	229	

Source: Economic and Statistical Bulletin (Lusaka), February 1954, page 20.

Data represent averages for surface and underground workers.

It is apparent that there has been a considerable increase in the wage rates for mine workers in Northern Rhodesia. Comparison with the cost of living indices for Northern Rhodesia shown in table 36 suggests that wages earned in this category of employment at least have kept race with prices. It should be borne in mind, however, that the figures in the two tables are not quite comparable; they serve the purpose, nevertheless, of indicating trends in wages and prices.

In the absence of actual wage rates for Uganda, official estimates of the wage bills of different industries have been divided by the number of indigenous inhabitants employed in these industries to arrive at an estimate of annual wages per worker for the years 1951 through 1954. These data are summarized in table 38.

Table 38. Uganda: Wages of Indigenous Inhabitants, 1951 to 1954

		nated an Thousand			Estimated	l annual v	wage per w	worker In		nnual w = 100)	age
Branch Source: East			1953 istical		1951 ment, Quart			1954 Statistic	1952 cal Bulle	1953 etin (Na	1954 airobi),
	cember										
Agriculturecandi forestry a/. b/ Weighte Mining and	. 973	1,082	1,170	1,201	15.0	18.7	20.1	21.4	125	134	143
quarrying.	. 99	124	110	163	10.7	15.5	15.7	20.6	145	147	193
Building and construction					28.0	33.6	36.6	37.7	120	131	135
Manufacturing.	. 566	752	813	911	24.0	29.0	33.9	37.3	121	141	155
Commerce	. 134	176	219	286	30.1	38.3	42.c	46.1	127	143	153
•	. C)Z										
Transportation	,	377	391	456	41.1	53.9	55.1	60.0	131	134	146
Public administration	n 776	1,172	1,306	1,453	17.4	24.8	27.9	30.0	143	160	172
Educational, medical and oth services		665	1 053	1 400	30 5	40.8	44.2	49.1	134	145	161
	. 150	000	1,000	1,100	50.5	10.0	17.2		T 2 T	113	TOT
All in- dustries	4,371	5,6c.,0	6,834	7,586	21.1!?-	27.5L/	31.0 ¹² /	33.7L [/]	130	147	160

From the estimates thus obtained, the general level of wage rates per worker appear considerably higher in industries which usually have a higher proportion of skilled workers and technicians than in those where such skills and training are less important. Building and construction, manufacturing, commerce, transportation and services are in the former category, while agriculture, mining and quarrying, Ind public administration typify the latter. However, the gap between wages in public administration and industries in the first category seems to have narrowed more rapidly than the gap between agriculture and mining during the four-year period, 1951 to 1954.

In all industries, average wages per worker have risen from about £21 in 1951 to about Z34 in 1954, an increase of about CO per cent. Comparison of table 38 with table 36 indicates that wages have not only kept pace with the upward trend in prices, but have risen more rapidly than prices.

In the other tropical African countries, wage increases have also taken place and have generally approximated or exceeded the rise in prices. In the Gold Coast, for example, average wages of indigenous inhabitants in all industries in December 1952 were approximately 17 per cent higher than in December 1951, 1/ indicating an improvement in real wages over the period if taken in conjunction with the limited data on retail prices for Accra. However, conclusions concerning real wages in tropical Africa should be made with extreme caution in view of the absence of adequate statistical data.

Union of South Africa

In the Union of South Africa, the expansion of the economy has continued steadily since the immediate post-war period; and there has also been a continuous increase in the number of wage earners. Most of this increase is accounted for by a marked drift of the indigenous working population from farming into other occupations, especially in manufacturing.

In the absence of complete data on the industrial distribution of the labour force, estimates for major industries based on available employment indices are set out in table 39. There has been a marked increase in employment during the period frcm 1948 to 1953, with the greatest rise in manufacturing, building, and production and distribution of electric power. Employment in mining and transportation has risen, but at a slower rate than the over-all increase.

Wages also appear to have risen considerably, as indicated by table 40, which is based on minimum wage rates and allowances per week. Although the table suffers from serious limitations as a true measure of the trend in actual wages, which are frequently higher than the minimum under the law and wage agreements, it nevertheless gives an indication of the trend in wage scales for skilled European workers in these industries, and for indigenous employees in mining.

^{1/} Annual Report of the Labour Department for the Year 1952-53 (Accra) Page 4.

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Table 39. Union of South Africa: Employment, by Industries, 1948 to 1953 (Thousands)

Industry	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953
Mining	442.2	472.9	492.6	494.2	507.1	494.5
Manufacturing .	517.0	553.2	584.2	615.2	625.6	635.9
Electricity, production and distribution.	19.0	20.0	20.7	21.7	22.6	23.4
Building and Construction.	• • 93.6	97.3	102.0	114.2	122.6	112.3
Transportation.	188.1	191.9	185.8	188.1	197.8	204.4
Total	1,259.9	¹ ,335.3	1,385.3	1,433.4	1,475.7	1,470.5

<u>ScLrce:</u> Bureau of Census and Statistics, <u>Mcrtbly Bulletin of Statistics</u> (Pretoria), August to December, 1953, and ugust 1954; South African Reserve Bank, <u>Quarterly Bulletin of Statistics</u> (Pretoria), December 1954.

Table 4o. Union of South Africa: Minimum Weekly Wage Scales and Allowances, 1948 to 1953

Industry and	<u>Cape Pe</u> Value	ni nsul a Index	Durba Value	an Index	Witwat Value	erorand Index
			(shillings)		Valac	1110.022
(shillings)(1	948=100)					
Baking and confectionery:						
1948	134. 8 138. 8 138. 8 154. 8 170. 8 189. 5	l oo 10 103 115 127 141	148. 0 152. 0 172. 0 191. 0 203. 3 214. 5	100 10 116 12r, 137 145	161. 0 165. 0 165. 0 185. 0 213. 0 225. 5	100 10 10 115 134 140
Printing and bookbinding						
1948 1949 1950 1951 1952	197.0 208.0 210.8 210.8 210.8 260.4	100 106 107 107 107 132	213.3 224.3 227.1 227.1 227.1 276.7	100 105 106 106 106 130	218.7 229.7 232.4 232.4 232.4 282.1	100 105 106 106 106 129
Engineering an metal works						
1948 1949 1950 1951 1952	210.5 217.0 243.0 . 268.5	100 102 105 118 130 136	205.8 210.5 217.0 243.0 268.5 279.6	100 102 105 118 130 136	205.8 210.5 217.0 243.0 268.5 272.6	100 102 118 130
Building:						
1948	. 168.3 .181.7 .195.0 . 226.7	100 100 108 116 135 142	199. 5 217. 0 222. 1 233. 3 250. 0 270. 0	100 109 111 117 125 135	225.8 227.5 235.8 250.0 268.3 283.3	100 101 104 111 119 120

Table $L.\,0.$ Union of South Africa: Minimum Weekly Wage Scales and Allowances, 1948 to 1953 (continued)

Industry		Cape P	eninsula	D	urban	Wity	watersrand
and		Value	Index	Value	Index	Value	Index
year	((shi1l1ngs)	(1948:100)	(shillings)(194	8:100) (s	hillings)(1	L948′100)
Mining:							
1948				253.0 277. 7		17.8 18. 5	/
1949 1950	• •	•		30. 8		19.8	
1951				327. 3		21. 2	
1952				356. 6	a/ 141	21. 9	T/ 123
1953							

Source: Bureau of Census and Statistics, Monthly Bulletin of Statistics (Pretoria), September 154; Department of Mines, Annual report for 1950 to 1953 (Pretoria). Data represent average union wage scales and allowances of European workers, except in the case of mining.

- a/ Average wage scales and allowances of European employees.
- b/ Average union wage scales and allowances of non-European employees.

Comparison of table 40 with table 41, which gives indices of retail prices for the principal urban areas in the Union of South Africa, suggests that there has been some increase in real wages of skilled European workers.

Table 41. Union of South Africa: Indices of Retail Prices, 1949 to (19481953 = 100)

Ycar	Cape Town	Durban	Witwatersrand	Average a/	
1914	103	104	104	104	
1950	108	108	108	108	
1951	116	116	117	116	
1952	126	126	126	126	
1953	130	131	130	130	

Source: Breau of Census and Statistics, Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, Pretoria, January 1953 and August 1954.

a/ Weighted average for nine principal urban areas in the Union of South Africa.

Comparable data for wages of non-Europeans, who comprise the main body of unskilled workers, are not available. However, changes between 1950 and 1954 in minimum wages and cost of living allowances provided by law and various wage agreements for unskilled indigenous workers in certain industries in Johannesburg are set out in table 42.

In 1954 increases in minimum wages ranged from 7 per cent, in engineering, to 25 per cent, in municipal undertakings, above the 1950 level. In building, the minimum wage rate rose by no less than 60 per cent. It has been estimated that average prices of food, housing and transport increased by more than 30 per cent between 1950 and 1954, suggesting that unskilled workers may have experienced a fall in real income. 2/ Actual wages of non-European workers, however, may be higher than the minimum wage rates provided by law and wage agreements, and with the rapid expansion of industrial activity, many non-European workers have entered semi-skilled and skilled occupations at wages considerably above the minimum for unskilled work.

^{2/} South African Institute of Race by Olive Gibson (Johannesburg, 1954) page 34. Relations, <u>The Cost of Living for Africans</u>,

Table 42. Union of South Africa: Monthly Minimum Wages and Cost of Living Allowances, 1950 and 1954

					1954								
	Ba	asic rat	i.e		Cost of gallowa	inces		Total	_		<u>1950</u> Tota	_	In
Industry	Pounds	Shil- : lings I	Pence	Pounds	Shil- lings I	Pence	Pounds	Shil- s lings	Pence	hil- Pound	ls lings	Pence	(per e cent)
Commercial and distributive industries:	8	13	4	5	19	1	12	12	5	10	9	1	21
Municipal undertakings	2	14	h	5	12		lc	6	il		,	8) 5
Building	6	1()	0	2	7	1	15	, ′)	1	, 7	4	8	61
Engineering	6	8		2	l°)	()	- ,)	2	8	ir''	5	7
Motor vehicles	7	16	0	5	19	1	11	J.5	1	10	17	J	R ,

Source: South African Institute of Race Relations, The Cost of Living for Africans, by Olive Gibson (Johannesburg, 1954). Data relate to indigenous inhabitants working in Johannesburg.

Chapter 6

FOREIGN TRADE

The value of world exports, 1/ which amounted to approximately \$54.8 billion in 1950 increased by about one-third in the following year to \$73.6 billion, largely as a result of price rises following the outbreak of hostilities in Korea, but fell to \$70 billion in 1952 and to \$69.5 billion in 1953, and then rose by 5 per cent to \$73.4 billion in 1954. Exports from Africa, which, at \$3.4 billion in 1950, accounted for over 6 per cent of the value of world exports, increased at a lesser rate than world exports in 1951, to \$4.4 billion, but declined only slightly - by less than one per cent compared with the decline of 5 per cent in world exports as a whole - in 1952. In 1953, when the trend in world exports was downwards, exports from Africa increased slightly. Although African exports showed a further increase in 1954, to \$4.7 billion the rate of increase was less than for world exports as a whole.

Analysis of the quarterly pattern of exports shows that the value of both world and African exports increased very rapidly in the third and fourth quarters of 1950 and the first quarter of 1951 and reached their peak in the second quarter (table 43). Following the break in raw material prices in early 1951, the value of African exports, with their preponderance of raw materials, declined more rapidly than that of world exports, two-thirds of which is accounted for by exports of industrialized countries. However, in the third quarter of 1951 the decline in African exports was reversed, mainly because prices of many African export commodities either ceased to fall or, as in the case of cocoa, showed an increase. Although rising export incomes in Africa and other primary producers in late 1950 and the first half of 1951 led to increased imports from industrialized countries, thereby assisting the general rise in world exports, reduced export receipts which followed raw material price declines early in 1951 did not lead immediately to a reduction in African imports, which remained at a high level until the second quarter of 1952. At this time restrictions on imports, combined with lower prices and with a reduced demand for industrial materials associated with lower levels of production, led to a proportionately larger decline in the value of world exports as a whole than was experienced in the case of African exports.

African exports in the first quarter of 1953 were seasonally high while world exports in general declined in both volume and value compared with the fourth quarter of 1952, but they subsequently declined to the third quarter, again largely for seasonal reasons. In the fourth quarter, African exports increased by about 2 per cent from the low third quarter figure to about the level of the corresponding quarter of the previous year. In the year 1953 as a whole, it would

^{1/} Statistical Office of the United Nations. Data exclude the trade of Albania, Bulgaria, mainland China, Czechoslovakia, Eastern Germany, Hungary, Northern Korea, Poland, Romania and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. United States exports of strategic materials (special category exports) are also excluded.

Table 43. Indices of the Value of Trade, 1950 to 1954 (1950 = 100)

Period	Exports, f.o.b.	<u>Impo</u> World	orts, c.i.f. Africa b/
WC	JIIQ di Allica D/	WOI 10.	AIIICA D/
1950:			
First quarter Second quarter Third quarter Fourth quarter1	91 91 99 101	90 95 100 115	89 96 100 114
951: First quarter 1 Second quarter 1 Third quarter 1 Fourth quarter 1	37 145 27 117	127 141 138 139	118 142 140 144
52: First quarter 1 Second quarter 1 Third quarter 1 Fourth quarter 1	24 129 14 119	143 136 124 130	147 145 137 139
L953: First quarter 1 Second quarter 1 Third quarter 1 Fourth quarter 1	24 128 19 124	125 130 126 131	130 135 132 144
L954: First quarter1 Second quarter1 Third quarter1 Fourth quarter1	31 135 26 125	126 135 130 158	136 141 141 143

Source: Based on United Nations, Monthly Bulletin of Statistics.

a/ Excluding "Special category" exports of the United States. b/

Excluding Egypt.

seem that while world cormercial exports expanded by about 4 per cent and unit export prices declined by about 6 percent, resulting in a small decline in aggregate export value, the price decline in African exports was less than that experienced by world exports as a whole, while the increase in the volume of exports was probably of the same order as the world increase.

In the first quarter of 1954, African exports exceeded those of the corresponding quarter of 1953 by 5 per cent, and world exports were 4 per cent higher than a year earlier. Seasonal decreases in tau value of exports led to a greater proportionate decline in African exports in the second and third quarters than in world exports, with the result that, whereas world exports in each of these quarters were 5 per cent higher than a year earlier, African exports exceeded those of the previous year by only 2 per cent and by 1 per cent in the second and third quarters, respectively. In the fourth quarter of 1954, whereas world exports were 6 per cent higher than in the corresponding period of 1953, exports from Africa were only 3 per cent higher.

While the value of world imports increased continuously, except for a slight setback in the third quarter of 1951, from the beginning of 1950 to the first quarter of 1952, African imports rose more sharply, reaching their peak in the same quarter; since then they have declined rather more slowly than world imports as a whole. This difference in timing in part reflects differences in the movements of prices of raw materials and manufactures. In 1954, world imports were rather more than 3 per cent higher in value than in the corresponding period of the previous year, and imports into Africa were less than 3 per cent higher.

Within the general picture of steadily expanding annual exports different trends are discernible for the three principal exporting areas, the Union of South Africa, French North Africa and tropical Africa.

The value of exports from the Union of South Africa has declined since 1951; though exports from French North Africa dropped in 1953, they rose in 1954 to the 1952 level (table 44). The continued rise in the total value of ,trican exports has been due to the expansion of exports from the rest of Africa chiefly tropical Africa.

Table 44. Indices of the Value of African Exports, 1951 to 1954 (1950 = 100)

Year	French North Africa	Union of South Africa	Rest of Africa a/	Total 2/
1951	117	137	137	133
1952	126	134	139	135
1953	122	133	144	138
1954	127	123	155	143

Source: Based on United Nations, Monthly Bulletin of Statistics. a/ Excluding Egypt.

Trends in imports into the various regions have been much more uniform (table 45) and, apart from a large rise in imports into the Union of South Africa in early 1951 and a fall in imports in late 1952, the trend has been one of rising imports to early 1952 followed by a slight decline to the end of 1953. Imports rose again in 1954 to approximately their 1952 level, imports into tropical Africa showing a larger percentage increase than those of either French North Africa or the Union of South Africa.

Table 45. Indices of the Value of African Imports, 1951 to 1954 (1950 = 100)

Year	French North Africa	Union of South Africa	Rest of Total LI/ Africa aj
1951	134	153	140 142
1952	147	137	158 150
1955	136	139	149 144
1954	140	144	156 149

Source: Based on United Nations, Monthly Bulletin of Statistics. a/ Excluding Egypt.

Direction of Trade

Four-fifths of the export trade of Africa and three-quarters of its import trade is conducted with countries in the Organisation for European Economic Cooperation (OEEC) and North America; trade with Japan and sterling countries outside Africa other than the United Kingdom, accounts roughly for a further 6 to 7 per cent of imports and 4 to 5 per cent of exports. Recorded trade among African countries accounts for about 10 per cent of total imports and 12 per cent of exports; trade with eastern Europe accounts for less than one per cent of exports and imports. About one-third of Africa's export trade, and rather less of its import trade, is conducted with the sterling area, while trade with the dollar area accounts for about 10 per cent of exports and 12 per cent of imports (table 46). With very minor variations, this was the directional pattern of African trade as a whole in the years 1950 to 1953.

High export incomes in 1950 and early 1951 resulted in increased imports, which continued into 1952 and of which a larger proportion than usual came from the dollar area; the importance of the dollar area as a destination for African exports declined in 1953 although exports to that area were still about 40 per cent higher in value than in 1951. The share of OEEC countries in total African imports, which amounted to 64 per cent in 1950, declined very slightly In the following year but expanded steadily in 1952 and 1953. African exports to OEEC countries followed a similar pattern, except that, whereas OEEC countries' share of African imports continued to expand in 1953, their share in African exports showed a slight decline. The sterling area outside Africa accounted for

about one-third of African exports throughout the period, but was less important as a source of imports. In 1950, 30 per cent of African imports was derived from these areas, but the percentage fell in 1951 and 1952 and, despite a recovery in 1953, was still below the 1950 share of the market.

Table 46. Direction of Trade, 1950 to 1953 (Percentage of total)

Year	OFFC C	ountries						
1 001	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Experts	Imports
1950	. 70	64	10	12	32	30	12	10
1951	. 69	64	10	12	33	27	12	10
1952	. 71	65	9	13	33	28	12	10
1953	• •	70	11	12	32	29	12	10

Source: Direction of International Trade, 1950 to 1953, published jointly by the Statistical Office of the United Nations, the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Data refer to the value of exports from African countries and of imports by African countries; further details are shown in appendix table G.

- a/ The United Kingdom is included in both OEEC and sterling area totals.
- b/ Excluding Egypt.

The most important single source of African imports was France, which in 1953 accounted for 25.6 per cent of the value of all imports, a decline from 28.2 per cent in 1950 (table 47). The United Kingdom was the second most important source, accounting for 25.4 per cent of the total in 1950 and 24.5 per cent in 1953. While the shares of France and the United Kingdom in African imports have declined, those of other OEEC countries, notably Belgium and Luxembourg, Germany, Italy and the Netherlands, have increased. Japan's share, after increasing from 1.8 per cent in 1950 to 2.2 per cent in 1951, declined progressively in the next two years.

African trade with the United States accounted for about 9 per cent of total exports in 1950 and 1951, but the percentage declined to about 8 per cent in 1952 - when prices of some African exports were lower than in late 1950 and early 1951 and the United States was drawing on stocks - then rose again to about 10 per cent in 1953. Imports from the United States, on the other hand became proportionately more important, rising from less than 10 per cent in 1950 to almost 11 per cent in 1952, but declining again in 1953 to below the 1950 level.

Table 47. Distribution of Trade, by Country, 1950 to 1953 (Percentage of total)

Country	1950		ports 1952	1955	Exports 1950 1951 1952 1955
Belgium and Luxembour	g 3.1	4.4	4.6	4.2	6.8 6.2 7.1 6.6
France	28.2	27.3	26.9	25.6	21.3 20.7 21.3 21.5
Germany, western	1.4	2.3	3.0	3.5	4.2 5.4 4.2 4.5
Italy	1.4	2.2	1.8	2.0	1.9 1.8 2.5 3.0
Japan	1.8	2.2	1.8	1.5	0.3 0.1 0.6 0.5
Netherlands	1.3	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.8 3.2 3.1 2.8
United Kingdom	25.4	22.3	22.5	24.5	28.0 29.3 29.0 28.8
United States	.9.8	10.3	10.7	9.5	9.1, 8.8 8.4 9.9

Source: Direction of International Trade, 1950 to 1953, published jointly by the Statistical Office of the United Nations, the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Data refer to the value of exports from African countries and of imports by African countries; further details—r shown in appendix table G.

The importance of France as a source of imports into Africa stems largely from the country's predominant position in the import trade of its dependencies. In 1951 France accounted for about 70 per cent of French North African imports and of the imports of other French dependencies in Africa; the United Kingdom provided less than half the imports of British Africa 2/ and Belgium and Portugal about 40 per cent of their territories' imports. The importance of the metropolitan countries as sources of imports to their dependent territories has fluctuated since 1950, but the overall trend has been downwards. In British territories, for example, the proportion of imports derived from the United Kingdom was over 50 per cent in 1950 but fell to 44 per cent in the following year and in 1953 accounted for less than 48 per cent (table 48). The importance of French imports into French North Inca has declined from 71 per cent of the total in 1950 to 67 per cent in 1953; in other French territories the decline has been less - from 69 per cent to 67 per cent. Belgium and Portugal, on the other hand, have maintained their position as sources of imports into their African territories. Imports from OEEC metropolitan countries as a whole have shown a fairly steady rise since 1950, reflecting the increasing importance of certain OEEC countries, particularly western Germany, Italy and the Netherlands, as sources of supply.

^{2/} British colonies, protectorates and trust territories, together with Southern Rhodesia and South West Africa.

Table 48. Shares of Metropolitan Countries in the Trade of their Dependencies, 1950 to 1953

(Percentage of total)

Year	British Africa a/ Africa	French North	Other French African countries	Portuguese Africa	Belgian Congo
Imports:					
1950	50.5	71.0	68.6	39.9	39.2
1951	44.0	68.1	71.9	40.9	40.1
1952	46.3	68.4	66.4	39.2	39.2
1953	47.8	66.7	67.1	39.3	40.0
Exports:					
1950	47.6	57.0	70.1	31.8	58.4
1951	51.8	55.6	69.4	22.1	45.0
1952	52.2	56.7	68.1	32.3	57.1
1953	53.3	60.8	65.7	25.1	55.4

Source: Direction of International Trade, 1950 to 1953, published jointly by the Statistical Office of the United Nations, the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Data refer to the value of exports from African Countries and of imports by African countries; further details are shown in appendix tables H and I.

a/ British colonies, protectorates and trust territories, together with Southern Rhodesia and South West Africa.

French territories direct a higher percentage of their total exports to the metropolitan country than do Belgian, British or Portuguese territories; this is particularly true of tropical French territories, which in 1950 consigned 70 per cent of their exports to France, compared with less than 50 per cent to Belgium from the Belgian Congo, less than 50 per cent to the United Kingdom from British territories, and 32 per cent to Portugal from Portuguese territories.

In general, metropolitan countries have become more important as the destination of exports from their African territories; exceptions have been Belgium and France in respect of exports from territories south of the Sahara. Portugal has fluctuated in importance as a destination of exports from Mozambique and Angola. The increase in the proportion of exports from British territories to the United Kingdom has been accompanied by a decrease in that to the dollar area; in French North Africa the increase has been associated with a decline in the proportion of exports to OEEC countries other than France,

exports to the dollar area having increased only slightly in importance. Where the share of exports to the metropolitan country has declined, this has been in part due to an increase in exports to the dollar area. For example, the decrease from 58 per cent to 55 per cent in the share of Belgium in the Belgian Congo exports was accompanied by an increase from 13 per cent to 16 per cent in the proportion of exports to the dollar area. While the share of France in the exports of French territories south of the Sahara fell from 70 per cent to 66 per cent, the dollar area's share rose from less than 3 per cent to more than 4 per cent.

It would appear that, there have been two forces at work in African exports. Firstly, there has been an attempt to increase exports to the dollar area as a means of increasing dollar holdings of the currency area to which the country belongs. Secondly, and as a complementary measure, there has been a tendency for the metropolitan country to derive a large share of commodities normally imported from the dollar area from their oversea territories. TO a lesser extent, European countries without dependencies in Africa have also tended to increase their purchases of dollar commodities from Africa. Table 49 shows that, with the exception of Belgium, European countries have drawn an increasing percentage of dollar commodities from Africa. It seems likely that this trend will continue as increased production of dollar-saving goods is stressed in certain development plans.

The principal dollar-saving commodities produced in Africa are sugar, tobacco, coffee, cotton and copper; the increasing importance of Africa as a source of supply to European countries is indicated in table 49, which shows that France, Portugal and the United Kingdom, in particular, are deriving an increasing proportion of certain dollar-saving items from these sources.

Exports from African countries to one another account for about 12 per cent of the total value of African exports. The figures refer to recorded trade only, omitting transactions across territorial boundaries which are not reflected in the trade accounts and which, either as normal exports or as goods carried by migrant labourers, may be considerable. Since most African countries are exporters of primary products, principally to industrialized countries outside Africa, and importers of manufactures, mainly from these countries, having very little industrial capacity of their own, trade within Africa is limited; a further limitation is imposed by the poverty of communications.

Among identifiable flows of trade within Africa the most important is that concerning the Union of South Africa. Communications of that country with adjacent areas are relatively well developed and its increased industrialization finds an outlet in less industrialized areas of Africa while providing a market for their raw materials. Table 50 shows that between 1948 and 1951 the exports of the Union of South Africa to the rest of Africa more than doubled in value; preliminary figures for 1953 suggest a further increase, of the order of 12 per cent above the 1951 levels. Even taking account of devaluation and the rise in prices occasioned by hostilities in Korea, this represents a substantial increase in the volume of exports.

Table 49. Imports of Dollar Commodities from Africa by Selected Countries, 1951 to 1953 (Percentage of total imports)

Importing nnd year	country	Sugar	Unmanufactured tobacco	Coffee	Copper	Cotton
United King	dom:					
1951		9.4	18.0	53.4	54.0	29.1
1952		11.5	32.6	56.9	6o. 6	37. 9
1953		10. 6	21. 8	82. 2	65. 9	27. 2
France:						
1951		38.8	38.6	68.1	33.6	10. 5
1952		22. 9	34. 5	62. 4	25. 9	15. 6
1953		32. 7	44. 1	51. 2	39. 2	14. 8
Belgium-Lux	embourg:					
1951			0. 8	19. 2	92. 3	23. 6
1952			2. 6	15. 2	94. 5	14. 3
1953			3. 1	15. 6	91. 2	16. 7
Portugal:						
1951		55. 9	5. 7	96. 6	11. 6	54. 1
1952		61. 1	3. 9	99. 3	8.8	66. 5
1953		71. 6	4.2	99. 5	19. 1	85. 5
Germany:						
1951			0.1	17. 9	15. 7	7. 5
1952			1. 0	15. 5	6. 4	11. 5
1953			1. 4	16. 4	9.6	15. 0
Netherlands	:					
1951			6. 0	33. 2	-	2.2
1952			6.3	32.7		2.8
1953		_	6. 1	35. 4	_	6. 0

Source: United Nations, Commodity Trade Statistics, 1951 to 1953. Data represent the value of imports from Africa (excluding Egypt) as a percentage of total imports of the given commodity.

Table 50. Union of South Africa: Exports to other African Countries, by Destination, 1948 to 1953
(Thousands of South African pounds)

Destination 1948	1949	1950	1951	1952 195 3
Angola	99. 4 1, 461. 7 1, 538. 4 597. 1 424. 6	1, 810. 3 2, 449. 0 3 873. 0		173.1 233.1 3, 244.2 3,218.9 3, 413.6 3,665.1 1,005.1 1,338.0
Canary Islands 0.1 Ethiopia 1.0	0.3 2.4	0.2 20.2	0.2 24.6	• 000 • • -000
Federation of Rhodes ias and Nyasaland	17,289.3 37. 6 0.1			34, 995. 7 37, 546. b/ b/
French Africa, n.e.s	31. 8 105. 3 0. 5 0. 6 66. 1		1.2 75. 2 3. 1 3. 4 129. 1	241. 5 2/ 235. 3 16. 4 b/ b/
Morocco	368. 0 1, 551. 5	546. 5 1, 925. 2		79. 5 53. 2,208.2 2,539.6
Portuguese WLst Africa 0.3 South West Africa 5,384.5 Sudan 143.7	6,260.1 233.5	7, 516. 9 1 174. 8		12,073.7 14,159. 342.2 232.
Total 26,580.0 57, 241. 8	30,066.1 3	9, 706. 2		

Source: Department of Customs and Excise, <u>Trade and Shipping</u> (Pretoria); <u>Monthly Abstract of Trade Statistics</u> (Pretoria). Data exclude re-exports.

- a/ Including French Equatorial Africa, French West Africa, Madagascar, R6union and French territories outside Africa. In 1951 exports to French territories outside Africa amounted to £3,200.
- b/ Included with French Africa, n.e.s.

Analysis of the commodity composition of exports of the Union of South Africa to other African countries (table 51) shows the increasing importance of metals and manufactures, leather and rubber and their manufactures, and textiles and apparel. Exports of agricultural machinery increased from ESA 388,000 to £606,c00 during the four year period 1948 to 1951, while exports of mining machinery, valued at £2.4 million in 1951, were three times as high as in 1948. Exports of motor vehicles amounted to £4.1 million in 1951 compared with £1.6 million in 1948; exports of tires and tubes, valued at almost £4 million in 1951, quadrupled during this period. Cement exports rose over sixfold, to

Table 51. Union of South Africa: Exports to other African 2/ Countries, by Commodity Groups, 1948 to 1951 (Thousands of South African pounds)

Commodity group	1948	191.1.9	1950	1951
Food	5,056.4	4,614.9	5,614.3	10,072.0
Other animal, agricultural and pastoral products	679.5	837.9	1,028.2	1,519.1
Ales, spirits, wines and beverages	635.8	726.9	915.4	1,018.2
Tobacco		442.4	464.7	
Fibres, yarns, textiles and apparel	2,413.9	3,187.2	4,355.0	6,509.0
Metals and manufactures .	. 7,679.5	8,952.3	12,128.5	17,003.5
Minerals, earthenware and glassware	2,146.3	2,574.4	2,999.4	2,798.7
Oils, waxes, paints and varnishes	1,115.9	1,044.7	1,227.6	2,193.6
Drugs, chemicals and fertilizers	903.1	1,027.7	1,322.9	1,722.1
Leather, rubber and manufactures	2,215.1	2,5 ¹⁴ 8.7	4,102.8	6,502.0
Wood, cane, wicker and manufactures	977.6	1,072.1	1,171.0	1,806.4
Books, paper and stationery	y .••706.2	819.1	1,120.6	1,880.5
Jewellery, etc	244.8	315.9	886.4	526.5
Miscellaneous	. 1,458.0	1,901.9	2,369.5	3,189.7
Total	26,580.0	30,066.1	39,706.2	57,241.8

 $\frac{\text{Source:}}{\text{Data exclude re-exports.}} \text{ } \frac{\text{Trade and Shipping.}}{\text{Data}}$

£416,000 in 1951, and exports of structural steel also increased. Exports of fertilizers and paints, which doubled in value during the four-year period, were among other items of capital equipment whose expanded export is a reflection both of development schemes of African countries and of industrial development in the Union of South Africa. Among consumer goods, cotton textiles increased in value

a/ Excluding Egypt.

frcm E,77,cce in 1948 to £643,000 in 1951, while exports of cotton yarn to African countries which were negligible in 1948, amounted to £119,000 in 1951. Footwear and outerwear were among other items to show an appreciable increase.

Another important flow in the trade of African countries with one another arises from Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia in French North Africa. This trade has shown a steady expansion from 1950, but whereas trade among these countries has expanded, their exports to other African countries, after increasing by about one-third between 1950 and 1951, rose only slightly in the following year and decreased in 1953 (table 52).

Table 52. French North Africa: Exports to other African Countries, 1950 to 1953

(Millions of metropolitan French francs)

Item	1950	1951	1952	1955
Exports to other French Nor-African countries	th 9,818	12,492	13,431	15,686
Exports to rest of Africa .	. 7,736	10,269	10,762	9,741
Total 1	17,554	22,761	24,193	25,427

Source: Official statistics of the exporting countries.

The Cormodity Pattern of Trade

Imports

Since imports into Africa are so diverse and the majority of African countries have not, so far, reclassified their accounts according to the United Nations, Standard International Trade Classification, the export trade of the principal supplying countries is used here as a basis for examining the commodity pattern of the continent as a whole. Over 90 per cent of African imports (excluding imports from countries within Africa) are derived from OEEC countries, North America, Japan and India, and all these areas, with the exception of India, publish accounts based on the Standard International Trade Classification; export accounts of these countries therefore provide an acceptable basis for determining the pattern of African imports. Owing to differences in valuation, timing and coverage, the figures shown in table 53 and appendix table J differ from the figures on African imports from these countries shown in appendix table G.

Table 53 illustrates the declining importance of textiles in the imports of Africa as a whole, owing in part to increasing manufacture of textiles in most African countries; in the Union of South Africa, for example, output of cotton piece-goods has more than doubled since 1950, while in the Belgian Congo the increase has been of the order of 29 per cent. Lower prices of imported textiles have also contributed to the over-all decrease in value. Generalization is different since the type of piece-goods in demand varies from country to country and even from region to region, but the quantity of textile imports into Africa appears to have risen from 1951 to 1952, and to have declined in the following year: Imports of cotton piece-goods into British West Africa, for example, increased from 227 million square yards in 1951 to 297 million square yards in 1952, then declined

Table 53. Commodity Pattern of Imports, - 1951 to 1954.

(Millions of United States dollars)

Commodity and 1351	1	952	19	53 19	954 Fir	st half
classification b/ Value Per cen of tota		Per cent of total				er cent f total
Food, beverages and tobacco						
(0,1) 321.5 9.1	374.5	9.9	379.7	10.3	209.8	10.3
Basic Materials (2,4) 99.4 2.8	81.6	2.2	82.9	2.2	53.3	2.6
Mineral fuels (3) 110.1 3.1	163.3	4.3	163.4	4.4	79.7	3.9
Chemicals (5) . 186,9 5.3	197.4	5.2	189.1	5.1	113.4	5.6
Textiles (65) . 761.5 21.6	634.6	16.8	593.4	16.0	.2′,.9	16.2
Metals and manufactures (68,69) 434.812.4	506.5	13.4	402.4	10.9	205.9	10.1
Machinery and transport						
equipment (7). 975.9 33.0	27.7	1,151.2	30.5	1,231	.133.3	673.0
Other manufactures (remainder of 6 and 8) 519.2 14.8	E2E /	12.0	400 1	12.0	200 5	1.4.0
	525.4	13.9	402.1	15.0	409.5	14.2
Miscellaneous (9)110.54.2	3.1	137.4	3.6	176.3	4.8	85.4
Total 3,519.9 2,039.9100.0	100.0	3,771.9	100.0	3,700.	3100.0	

Source: Based on United Nations, Commodity Trade Statistics.

- a/ Exports to Africa (excluding Egypt) from North America, Iceland, India, Italy, Japan and OEEC countries other than Greece.
- b/ Classifications represent sections and divisions in United Nations, Standard International Trade Classification.

slightly to 290 million square yards in 1953. 3/ In British East Africa the fluctuations in imports were more marked, from 90 million square yards in 1951 te 134 million square yards in 1952 and 113 million square yards in 1953. The pattern was similar in the Belgian Congo, but in French North Africa the downward trend was continuous, while in the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland imports fell in 1852 and rose again in the following year. Unit prices of imports of cotton goods, too, have varied with the type of import, but in general the trend has been toward: lower prices, particularly since 1952. The index of the unit price of bleached cotton piece-goods imported into the Sudan declined from 100 in 1951 to 96 in 1952 and 75 in 1953; the corresponding figures for imports of dyed cotton piece-goods were 100, 94 and 84. In French North Africa, the price index declined from 100 in 1951 to 88 in 1952 and 77 in 1953, while in the Cold Coast the index rose slightly, to 103 in 1952, but fell to 86 in the following year.

Exports by industrialized countries of the food, beverage and tobacco group of commodities increased in value during the 'period and accounted for a larger share of their exports to Africa. Among the items in the group, exports of food increased steadily, from \$242 million in 1951 to \$294 million in 1953; exports of tobacco and beverages, on the .other hand, fell in 1952 to \$74 million from \$81 million in the previous year, but rose again to \$86 million in 1953. So far as food is concerned, the figures probably understate the importance of focd in the import pattern of Africa since they relate chiefly to exports of manufacturing countries. Appendix table J shows that foodstuffs are less important in the import pattern of the Union of South Africa than in the case of French North Africa or :the remainder of the continent.

Since Africa is predominantly an exporter of primary products, imports of raw materials are relatively unimportant; there is, however, a marked difference in the value of raw material imports of the Union of South Africa and French North Africa and of the remainder of Africa, industrialization being more advanced in the first two areas, particularly in the former. Since table 53 and appendix table J are based on exports of industrialized countries, they tend to understate the importance of raw material imports into the more industrialized areas of Africa.

The importance of chemicals within the over-all import pattern has shown little change, accounting for about one-twentieth of the exports of industrialized countries to Africa. The value of chemical exports to the Union of South Africa has declined, reflecting increased chemical production in that country, whereas elsewhere the tendency has been for chemical imports to expand.

The most striking changes in the import pattern have been, on the one hand, the increase in the value and proportionate share of machinery and transport equipment and of mineral fuels, and, on the other hand, the decrease both in terms of value and of proportionate share, of metals and manufactures. Both these trends are confirmed by the import statistics. Imports of motorcars, trucks and parts into French North Africa, for example, increased in value from 24 billion francs in 1951 to 30 billion francs in 1953; imports of assembled motorcars by the Union of South Africa increased from ESA 0.8 in 1951 and 1952 to £1.0 million in 1953, while imports of assembled trucks also increased, and imports of motor vehicle chassis remained fairly constant.

^{3/} Based on Manchester Cotton Board, Quarterly Statistical Review.

Imports of motorcars and commercial vehicles into certain British African areas 4/ increased in number from 22,440 in 1951 to 22,740 in 1952, but fell to 20,60 in the following year; imports of chassis, etc., into these countries showed an increase in value from £7 million in 1951 to almost £12 million in 1952 and 1953. The increase reflects not only the growing importance of road transport in Africa, but also the increasing tendency for vehicles to be imported in parts and assembled in the country of import. Imports of machinery into French North Africa rose, imports of agricultural machinery, in particular, almost doubling in value between 1951 and 1', 53. Imports of machinery into certain British areas 5/ also increased, from £2 million to £.3 million in the same period. Imports by the Union of South Africa, on the other hand, showed a decrease in value, reflecting the growing importance of domestic production.

The trend in imports of metals and metal manufactures by Africa, shown in table 53, is also confirmed by the import accounts of the principal African countries. Imports into the Union of South Africa declined in value from £36.5 million in 1951 to £30.1 million in 1952 and then fell heavily, to £15.5 million, in the following year. This decline was partly compensated by an increase of about 50 per cent from 1951 to 1953 in domestic production of pig-iron and ferroalloys. Imports into French North Africa, valued at 20 billion francs in 1951, fell to 15 billion francs in 1953 after reaching 25 billion francs in 1952. In certain British areas, the rise in import valuation from 1951 to 1952 was more marked - £1.3 million to £1.7 million - and the decline much less - to £1.6 million in 1953. 6/In the Belgian Congo, several metal items declined heavily from 1952 to 1953; for example, the value of imported steel bars dropped from 537 million francs to 159 million francs, and of steel pipes from 348 million francs to 267 million francs, but imports of galvanized beams increased, as did also imports of railway equipment.

This decline in imports of metal and manufactures is difficult to explain satisfactorily. It would appear that 1953 marked a period in many development plans where the greater part of basic re-equipment was nearing completion and part of the decline may be attributed to this. A further possible explanation is the fact that in some territories, stocks of capital goods were accumulated in 1,52 to ensure that development would proceed unhindered, and the amount of necessary purchasing was thereby reduced.

There was also a decline in imports of "other Nanufactures", including manufactures of leather, rubber, wood and paper, pre-fabricated houses and clothing. In the case of the Union of South Africa, the decline was greater than in other African countries, reflecting the growth of industrialization in the former.

Exports

The greater part of African exports is accounted for by a comparatively small number of items. The value of exports of copper in 1953, for example, exceeded \$4C0 million, and of oil-seeds, \$450 million; cocoa, coffee and cotton

^{4/} Reported in United Kingdom, Digest of Colonial Statistics (London).

^{5/} Ibid.

^{6/} Ibid.

exports were each valued at well over \$200 million, (cotton exports were valued at \$324 million in 1951) and sugar, wine, and fruits and nuts, at more than \$100 million each (table 54). These and other primary products made up the bulk of Africa's exports, though manufactures, mainly from the Union of South Africa, are tending to increase. Changing values in individual exports from 1950 to 1953 have been largely due to price changes, though there has, in general, been a tendency for the volume of exports, particularly of minerals, to increase.

The outbreak of Korean hostilities, which led to great expansion in the demand for primary products, caused the prices of almost all the principal African exports to rise substantially, reaching their peak in the first quarter of 151. Thereafter there was a general decline in raw material prices, though the severity and duration of the decline varied among commodities (table 55). The price index for cotton, for example, reached 167 in the second quarter of 1951 (January to June 1950 = 100) declined to 130 in the following quarter and, after recovering to 136 in the fourth quarter of 1951, declined steadily, to 96 in early 1953. In the case of hides and copra the price decline was more steep but of shorter duration: wool prices, which hadrisen very sharply in late 1950 and early 1951 after declining steadily to mid-1952, recovered and then increased in 1953 by some 20 per cent. Rubber prices continued to fall to the end of 1953 whereas coffee prices were relatively unaffected by the Korean crisis, and copper, sugar and ground-nut prices had an upward trend. The world cocoa price was about 10 per cent higher in 1951 than in 1950 and, after a slight decline in 1952, rose again, increasing continuously to mid-1954, when it was about twice the 1950 level. Despite the break in raw material prices in the first quarter of 1951, the value of African exports continued to rise, reaching a peak in the second quarter; after a drop in the third quarter, they recovered somewhat, largely because of seasonal factors, in the fourth quarter. Since then a more regular export pattern, with high values in the first and fourth quarters, has become discernible for Africa as a whole (table)43).

The generally lower level of demand for certain African products which was evident in 1952 was compensated by higher demand and prices with respect to others. In 1953 world industrial production, which is usually the main determinant of the level of exports in primary producing countries, rose by more than 7 per cent above the 1952 level. In the United States part of the demand for raw materials was met from stocks, but rising industrial activity in Europe was sufficient to maintain demand for African products above the 1952 level so that, even in a year of generally lower raw material prices, African exports in the aggregate were higher than in 1952. In 1954 raw material prices in general were maintained; and with the high level of world industrial production and record production in Europe, African exports were about 4 per cent higher than in the corresponding period of 1953.

The export experience of individual African countries has varied with the items entering into their trade. In general, countries exporting mineral ores or metals have fared better than the others. Thus, exports from the Belgian Congo have shown a continuous rise in value, mainly on account of increases in exports of diamonds, cobalt, copper and tin ore, which offset a very heavy fall in the value of exports of palm oil. In Algeria, increased exports of iron ore compensated for large decreases in the value of exports of cereals and fruit. In the Gold Coast, exports of bauxite from 1951 to 1953 helped to offset the decrease in the value of cocoa exports. Further, the large annual rise in the value of exports from Northern Rhodesia has been almost entirely due to the increased value of copper exports, while exports of chrome ore and raw asbestos have combined with increased exports of unmanufactured tobacco to increase exports from Southern Rhodesia.

Table 54. Commodity Pattern of Exports, a/ 1950 to 1953 (Millions of United States dollars)

Item	1950	1951	1952	1953
Cereals	 75. 9	95. 9	109. 0	84. 8
Fibres: Cotton Sisal Wool and hair	58. 5	323. 7 110.3 239. 3	296. 3 91. 8 177. 1	238. 8 54. 8 203. 7
Beverages: Tea Cocoa Coffee Wi ne	201. 3	271. 1 280. 3	12.2 339. 6 315. 3 292. 3 163. 7	11.1 325. 2 312. 7 145. 6
Other agricultural and pastoral products: Fruits and nuts Hides and skins Oil-seeds Rubber Sugar Timber Tobacco	99. 0 12. 5 61. 7 45. 2	102.3 130. 3 354. 5 38. 0 81.3 71. 6 68. 8	99. 4 85. 5 391. 0 429. 1 25. 5 91.0 48. 7 81. 9	110. 5 89. 8 454. 5 18. 9 102.4 67. 7 89. 3
Minerals: Asbestos Cobalt Copper Diamonds Iron ore Manganese. Phosphates Tin Zinc	16.0 200.9 106.3 28.8 30.4 52.9 44.7	33. 9 22. 9 273. 9 138. 4 38. 2 43. 0 75. 1 61. 7 38. 2	1+4. 9 33. 6 366. 4 137. 6 70. 7 55. 5 73. 5 57. 5 32. 6	36. 6 40. 7 406. 9 132. 6 91. 1 62. 2 68. 8 60. 1 22. 0
Jewellery, etc	. 22.4	67. 9	56. o	81. 2

<u>Source:</u> United Nations, <u>Statistical Yearbook;</u> and official statistics of the exporting countries.

a/ Excluding Egypt.

Table 55. Indices of Prices of Principal Exports, 1950 to 1953 (January to June 1950=100)

Commodity	1950	1951	1952	1953	
Wheat Sugar Coffee	99	102	114	103	
Cocoa	102	107	110	112	
Tea	19097	191 <u>1</u> 4	183	<u>a</u> 23	
Ground-nuts		133 103	132 121	139 113	
Copra	106	109	80	111	
Rubber	174	268	147	105	
Tobacco	98	83	95	106	
Hides	129	155	74	73	
Wool	130	173	96	112	
Cotton	114	147	121	96	
Sisal	115	181	116	72	
Iron ore	101	108	112	126	
Copper	111	138	163	160	

Source: United Nations, Monthly Bulletin of Statistics; United Kingdom
Board of Trade, Sterling Area Trade Surrary (London). For
further details see appendix table K.

Trends of cocoa, coffee and sugar prices were upward from 1950 to 1953, and countries exporting large quantities of these items have increased their earnings from these sources. The value of French West African exports of cocoa and coffee increased by over 50 per cent (\$34.5 million) from 1950 to 1953; exports of coffee from Angola increased by over 150 per cent (\$40 million) in the same rericd and were largely responsible for the over-all increase of \$47 million in total exports; Nigerian exports of cocoa rose in value as did those from the Gold Coast, except in 1952 when there was a fall in the quantity exported. Increases in exports from Mauritius and Rdunion are largely a reflection of the increased price of sugar.

Cotton was among the export items which declined in price; exports from the Sudan, largely composed of cotton, fell from the high point attained in 1951, though still remaining above the 1950 level. In Uganda, on the other hand,

cotton exports increased in value from 1951 to 1952 because of increased quantities exported, but declined heavily in 1953 and were one of the principal factors in the decrease in total exports. In French Equatorial Africa earnings from cotton dropped significantly in 1953. Sisal, which is important in Tanganyikan exports, suffered a marked decline in price after 1951, and earnings from this source fell more than \$30 million. Rubber was another item which declined heavily in price after 1951 and led to reduced export earnings from this source in the Belgian Congo and Nigeria.

Balance of Payments

While trade in merchandise gives rise to the major part of Africa's foreign trade payments and receipts, transactions on invisible account are also of substantial importance. The Union of South Africa normally has a large visible trade deficit, largely covered by the sale of gold; during the years 1951 to 1953, for example, gold sales were about one-half the value of ordinary In the past, gold sales have usually been sufficient to offset the adverse balance on visible trade account, but invisibles, particularly transportation and insurance charges, have resulted in an adverse balance of payments. Through its External Trade Division, the Union of South Africa has been endeavouring, in conjunction with organized trade and industry as well as other interested associations, to increase the volume of exports. Recent expansion of the country's trade representation in Africa, and improvement in shipping between the Union of South Africa and west African ports under the direct sponsorship of the Government are further instances of this endeavour. The country's gold and foreign exchange reserves had been falling since 1951, but the decline came to an end after 1953, and preliminary figures suggest an increase in reserves in the first half of 1954 (table 56). In the long run, exports of uranium and gold may be expected to increase, and imports may fall as local production of oil and manufactured goods rises and as expenditure on development is reduced, though this may be partly offset to the extent that increasing incomes may give rise to demands which cannot be met by domestic production.

Balance of payments data for British West African countries are fragmentary, covering only receipts and payments on current account. The current account statement for British West Africa reflects investments in the United Kingdom of surpluses accruing to marketing boards (table 57).

The balance of payments statement for the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland (table 58) illustrates the growth of the adverse trade balance in the years 1951 and 1952 and its subsequent reversal in the following year, owing in the main to the restriction on imports imposed following the conference of Commonwealth finance ministers in 1952, but assisted by a reduction in freight rates, which fell from 18.5 per cent of imports in 1952 to 13.6 per cent in 1953. Expenditures abroad by tourists and travellers increased steadily during the period (table 59).

The capital account in the balance of payments shows that the Federation has enjoyed a large flow of capital from abroad during the period 1950 to 1953. Official long-term capital receipts (principally by governments and Rhodesia Railways) amounted to £12 million in 1950, increased to £21 million

Table 56. Union of South Africa: Balance of Payments, 1950 to 1954 (Millions of South African pounds)

Item 195	50 1951	1952		54 rst half	
Goods and services:					
Exports, f.o.b 20	09 281	277	288154	1	
			Im	ports, f.o <u>b</u>	
Balance9	-186	-138	-135	- 73	
Non-monetary gold					
movements (net)14	17 150	152	153	77	
Other current items 5	- 69	- 73	- 77	- 4o	
Total	2 -105	- 59	- 59	- 36	
<pre>Private financing: Donations, capital movements, neterrors and omissions5 Cumulative total 5</pre>			26 - 33	34	
Official financing:					
Total long-term liabilities (net) 1 Short-term liabilities	17 9	15	4	17	
(net)	.1 3	2	2	2	
Foreign exchange assets					
(increase -)4	16 36	-	33	9	
Total short-term capital	45	33	- 2	31	- 11
Monetary gold (increase -)2	15		7 - 2	- 4	

-50

 $\frac{\texttt{Source:}}{\texttt{Statistics}} \underbrace{\begin{array}{l} \texttt{International Monetary Fund,} \\ \texttt{Statistics} \end{array}}_{} (\texttt{Washington, D.C.}) \underbrace{\begin{array}{l} \texttt{International Financial} \\ \texttt{Statistics} \end{array}}_{} (\texttt{Washington, D.C.})$

in 1952 declining to about £17 million in 1953. With the exception cf £7 million in 1952 and £6 million in 1953, virtually the whole of the long-term capital was derived from the United Kingdom, which was also the principal source of long-term private capital receipts.

Other invisible items included interest, dividends and profits, receipts of which increased in 1952 and 1953, partly because a number of large companies moved their headquarters to Rhodesia. Income payments abroad also rose as a result of higher interest payments on government and. municipal debts and increases in mineral royalties, but the rate was lower than for receipts from exports of goods and services, and income from abroad, with the result that from 1950 to 1953, the ratio of income payments to current business receipts declined continuously, from 28.5 per cent to 24 per cent. Current transfers, which comprise the remainder of the balance on current account consisted principally of migrants' remittances, pension and other transfers by the Government, and receipts of Colonial Development and Welfare grants. Increased outward remittances by immigrants and migrant labourers and a steady rise in emigrants' funds have outweighed the increase in inward transfers with the result that the favourable belance under this head has declined progressively since 1951.

In the Belgian Congo, the balance of payments on current account, which was favourable in $1950\,\mathrm{and}$ 1951, became adverse in 1952 and 1953; the balance on capital account, which has been favourable since 1950, was sufficiently large to offset the adverse current account balance, but the amount of the over-all favourable balance has declined (table 60).

Table 57. British West Africa: Balance of Payments on Current Account, 1950 to 1953 (Millions of pounds sterling)

Item	1950	1951	1952	1953 (provision	nal)
Imports, f.o <u>b</u>	103	138	160	160	
Exports, f.c <u>b</u> United Kingdom grants to	169	222	223	223	
colonies	4		2	5	3
Other invisible items (net)	-28	-36	-37	-30	
Balance	42	50	30	36	

Source: The Colonial Territories, 1953-54, Cmd 9169; Sterling Assets of the British Colonies (Colonial No. 298, London).

Table 58. Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland: Balance of Payments, 1950 to 1954 (Millions of pounds sterling)

Item	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954 JanJune
Current transactions:					
Goods: Receipts Payments Balance	95.5	117.0 133.7 - 16.7	141.4	131.7	75.6 66.8 8.8
Payments	9.1		12.5	6.2	2.8
Balance				13.7 - 7.5	
Balance	28.6	35.4	56.2	6.2 36.4	
Transfers: Receipts Payments Balance	4.2	10.1 4.8 5.3	10.1 5.5 4.6	- 50.2 10.2	5.1
Payments	. 109.3 . 137.5 - 28.2	135.9 185.2 - 49.3	153.1 195.6 - 42.5	188.5	85.9 91.7 - 5.8
apital transactions: Recorded long-term: Receipts Payments Balance				31.0 6.3 24.7	
Recorded short-term: Receipts Payments Balance	5.2 9.8 4.6	13.0 10.6 2.4	11.1 10.9 0.2	9.1 15.5 - 6.5	7.5 20.9 - 13.6
Other, including errors and omissions	(net) .	.20.3 3	32.5 2	23.0	8.8
Total	28.2	49.3	42.5	27.0	5.8

Source • Central African Statistical Office, Monthly Digest of Statistics (Salisbury).

Table 59. Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland: Payments for Imports of Goods and Services, 1950 to 1953

(Millions of pounds sterling)

Item	1950	1951	19521953	
Payments for imports of merchandise	81.2	115.0	120.1 115.9	
Freights and insurance to the border	14.2	18.6	21.215.8	
Expenditure abroad by tourists and				
			travelle	ers
Other payments for goods and services	2.8	3.4	5.5	3.3
Total payments for goods and services	1C4.6	145.1	153.9 1	15.4

Source: Central African Statistical Office, Monthly Digest of Statistics (Salisbury).

Table 60. Belgian Congo: Balance of Payments, 1950 to 1953 (Millions of Belgian Congo francs)

Item	1950	1951	1952	1953
Current transactions:				
Merchandise Non-monetary gold Foreign travel Transport and insurance Investment income Government transactions Miscellaneous Donations Balance	633 1,123 1 ,295 352 858	6,196 682 - 159 -2,158 -1,316 - 199 -1,147 - 538 1,361	4,022 716 -229 -2,831 -1,778 - 68 -1,237 - 396 -1,801	- 566
Capital transactions:				
Private		931 - 164	763 2,461	125 2,602
Balance	2,935	767	3,224	2,727
Errors and emissions	- 158	1,594	508	- 232
Net change in reserves	5,864	3,722	1,931	827

Source: International Monetary Fund, <u>Balance of Payments Yearbook</u>, vol. V (Washington, D.C.); <u>Bulletin de la Banque Centrale du Congo Beige et du Ruanda-Urundi</u> (Brussels), May 1954.

Among the adverse items in the balance on current account which have shown increases during the period are travel, transport, and insurance and investment. Increases in transport and insurance reflect the growing volume of trade; about one-fifth of Belgian Congo expenditures under this head in 1953 were for carriage of imports and exports on adjacent railway systems; of the total of 691 million Belgian Congo francs expended, 63 million francs were for Rhodesia Railways, 85 million for East Africa railways and 543 million for the Angola railway. The increase in the debit balance on investment reflects the rise in interest and dividend payments abroacl

Private capital investment has played a role of decreasing importance in the Belgian Congo economy, where the flow of official capital has grown, particularly during 1952 and 1953 (table 61). The inflow of private capital in 1951 may be in part accounted for by investment of short-term funds; it may also in part reflect longer-term investment encouraged by high prices for primary commodities early in 1951.

Table 61. Belgian Congo: Capital investments, 1951 to 1953 (Millions of Belgian Congo francs)

Item	1951	1952	1955	
Private capital: Receipts Payments	1,252 321 Balance 931	1,058 295 763	1,581 1,456 125	
Public capital: Receipts Payments Ne		2,576 115 2,461 3,224	2,623 21 2,602 2,727	

Source: Bulletin de is. Banque Centrale du Congo Beige et du Ruanda-Urundi, May 1954.

Chapter 7

FISCAL DEVELOPMENTS

Ordinary Revenue

Since 1950 there has been a large and steady increase in the ordinary fevenues 1/ of all African countiles. The ordinary revenue of the Gold Coast in 1953/54 was 137 per cent higher than in 1950/51; that of Northern Rhodesia in 1953 was estimated at 160 per cent in excess of the 1950 revenue; in French Moroccothe increase over the same period was of the order of 76 per cent. In the Union of South Africa the increase in ordinary revenue between 1950/51 and 1953/54 was almost 60 per cent; in the Belgian Congo between 1950 and 1953 the increase was over 90 per cent (tables 62 and 63).

Table 62. Indices of Ordinary Revenue of Selected Countries, 1951 to 1954 (1950 = 100)

Year 2,/	French Tunisia Morocco	-	Northern Rhodesia		Kantra	_	Union of South Africa
1952	136 163 176	123 130 IV 142 12		153 200 237 205	132 155 161	150 154 194 1) ⁴ 8W	125 140 157

Source: Service Tunisien de Statistique, Annuaire Statistique de la Tunisie, 1951-52 (Tunis) 1953); Ministbre de la France d'Cutre-Mer, Bulletin Mensuel de Statistique d'Outre-Mer (Paris); Ministbre des

Bulletin Mensuel de Statistique d'Outre-Mer (Paris); Ministbre des Colonies, La situation 4conomique du Congo Beige en 1953 (Brussels, 195'4); Union of South Africa, Bureau of Census and Statistics, Monthly Bulletin of Statistics (pretoria); Northern Rhodesia, Gold Coast and Kenya: Government budget estimates.

- 2/ Financial years 1950/51 to 1953/54 for the Gold Coast, Tunisia and the Union'of South Africa, based on 1950/51 = 100.
- 12/ Based on estimates.

^{1/} Revenue arising within the country.

Between 80 and 90 per cent of all ordinary revenue is derived from direct und indirect taxation in the Belgian Congo, French territories south of the Sahara, the Gold Coast, Northern Rhodesia and Uganda. In French North Africa, the percentage of ordinary revenue derived from taxation was rather less in 195 - 69 per cent in Morocco and 64 per cent in Tunisia; in their case, however, revenue from monopolies - essentially a form of indirect taxation - is not included in tax revenue, and the proportion of tax receipts to total ordinary revenue is thereby understated. Because of these and other differences in the concept of ordinary revenue, comparisons among countries in other than very broad detail should be made with caution. The remainder of ordinary revenue is derived from rents from government property, payments for mining concessions and income from government services, such as posts, telegraphs and telephons, and government monopolies.

Although, in terms of absolute value, the increase in tax revenue has considerably exceeded that in non-tax revenue, the increase in the latter has been proportionately greater in several countries (see tables 64 and 65). This reflects, in the main, increases in revenue from government property, including postal and telegraph services, royalties and leases. Thus, in Northern Rhodesia mining royalties, which in 1950 were estimated to yield Z450,000, were expected to yield £2.3 million in 1953 as a result of an agreement in 1950 giving the Government 20 per cent of the net income from the mining rights of the British South Africa Company. The purchase by the Nigerian Government of the rights of the United Africa Company in mining royalties in the northern provinces swelled revenue from non-tax sources. In Kenya, revenue from licences and fees shoved a steady increase; earnings from government departments and revenue from the Sisal, Coffee and Pyrethrum Beards also increased. Interest on East African war bonds, amounting to over Z900,000, and a grant by the United Kingdom Government towards special police guards in 1953 also helped to swell non-tax revenue. In French North Africa, the proportionately larger increase in non-tax revenue reflects, in part, increases in revenue from monopolies. In the Belgian Congo, the Colonial Transportation Office (Office d'Exploitation des Transports Coloniaux), whose profits until July 1952 had accrued to general revenue, was granted financial and budgetary autonomy. The effect of this measure on ordinary revenue may be gauged from the fact that revenue from public undertakings declined from 588 million Belgian Congo francs in 1951 to an estimated 27 million francs in 1953. The decline in revenue on this count has been partially offset by increases in interest on investments.

In the Union of South Africa, different trends are discernible in government and provincial revenue collections. In the former, taxation has formed an increasing proportion of ordinary revenue; in the latter, it has become less Important, Whereas in 1950/51 tax collections amounted to ZSA 124,960,000 and accounted for about 77 per cent of ordinary government revenue (excluding the national road fund, the Native Trust Fund and broadcasting receipts), by 1953/54 direct taxes of :Ca 205,154,000 accounted for over 81 per cent of ordinary revenue. This has been due to increases in both direct and indirect taxation, provided for in the budgets for the years $195^2/_53$ and 1953/54. Taxation contributed 90 per cent of provincial revenues in 1950/51, but revenue from this source in 1953/54 amounted to less than 85 per cent of total revenue collections.

Table 63. Ordinary Revenue of Selected Countries, 1950 to 1954
(National currencies)

-		Millions	of French francs	Thousands of	nounda	atomlina	Millions of Belgian Congo francs	Thousands of South African pounds
_	Item	French Morocco	Tunisia Lt/	Northern Rhodesia	Gold Coast aJ	Kenya	Belgian Congo	Union of South Africa it/ h/
_	Total ordinary revenue:	_						
	1950	57,175 50,832 61.005 65,633 68,692	25,744 31,688 33,574 2/ 36,684 _E / 39,475 2/	11,890 15,836 26,065 50,911 4/ eJ	19,982 30,602 40,003 47,353 41,038	13,244 17,468 20,5 ⁴ 8 21,352	5,532 8,013 8,235 7,884 2/ 7,880	187,897 228,535 262,595 293,347
_	Total tax revenue:	_						
	1950	27,207 37,006 42,523 44,950 46,213	15,559 19.554 20,547 2/ 23,570 2/ 26,220 2/	9,932 12,914 21,586 25,484 S/	17,360 27,274 35,604 40,080 54,964	10,394 13,611 15,610 16,402	4347 6,480 6,612 6,435 1)_/ 6,296	148,688 178,150 216,327 240,480
_	Non-tax revenue:	_						
'13 to	1950	9,968 13,826 18,482 20,683 22,479	10,185 12,134 13,027 13,114 13,255	1,958 2,922 4,479 5,427	2,622 3,328 4,399 7,273 6,074	2,850 3,857 4,958 4,950	985 1,533 1,623 1,449 1,584	39,209 50,385 46,268 52,867
_	Tax revenue as percentage of total ordinary revenue:	_						
	1950	73 73 70 68 67	60 62 61 64 66	84 82 83 82	87 89 89 85 85	78 78 76 77	82 81 80 82 So	79 78 82 82

Source: See table 62.

Data for financial years 1950/51 to 1953/54.

h/ Central and provincial government revenues, excluding the national road fund, the Native Trust Fund and broadcasting receipts. In 1953/54 these amounted to ZSA 7,704,000, ZsA 1,283,000 and ZSA 968,000, respectively.

^{2/}Estimated.In the case of the Belgian Congo, the actual ordinary revenue amounted to 10,354 million Belgian Congo francs in 1953. In the absence of full details for this amount, the analysis was based on the estimated revenue.

^{4/} Revised estimate; actual revenue in 1953 amounted to £31,234,000 of which £25,671,000 (82 per cent) was tax revenue 2/Owing to federation, revenue for $_{1954/55}$ is not readily comparable with earlier years.

Table 64. Indices of Revenue from Taxation and Other Sources in Selected Countries, 1950 to 1954

(1950 = 100)

Item	French Morocco	Tunisia	Northern 2/ Rhodesia			_	Union of South Africa 2/
Tax revenues:							
1951	136	126	130	157	131	149	120
1952	156	132	217	205	150	152	145
1953	165	151	256	231	158	148 .	162
1954 12/	170	169		201		145	102
Other revenues:	_						
1951	139	119	149	127	135	156	129
1952	185	128	229	168	173	165	118
1953	207	129	277	277	174	147 b/	135
1954 LI	226	130		232	• • •	161	

Source: See table 62.

In most African countries the greater part of tax revenue is still derived from indirect rather than direct taxes. This is a reflection not only of the paucity of incomes, but also of difficulties in enumeration and assessment. As the money sector of the economy develops, some easing of the assessment problem is to be expected, and the proportion of revenue derived from direct taxation may be expected to rise. The position in Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia and' the Union of South Africa differs from that in other African countries in that a larger part of tax revenue is collected in the form of direct taxes. Northern Rhcdesia the proportion of tax revenue accounted for by direct taxes was 86 per cent and it was anticipated that this would rise in 1953. The greater Africa direct taxation accounts for about two-thirds of total tax revenue, compared with 64 per cent in 1950/51. In 1953/54, 67 per cent of government tax revenue and 71 per cent of provincial tax revenue was derived from this source, compared with 64 per cent in 1950/51. The high percentage of revenue derived from taxation reflects a higher degree of economic development in the Union of South Africa.

The form of direct taxation varies from country to country. In the sterling countries, the income tax is the main direct tax; in recent years it accounted for 99 per cent of Northern Rhodesian revenue from direct taxation and about 80 per cent of the direct tax revenue of the Gold Coast and Kenya. Taxes on Indigenous inhabitants take the form of a poll tax or Native tax, supplemented

^{2/} Data for financial years 1950/51 to 1953/54.

^{12/} Based on estimates.

Table 65. Tax Revenue of Selected African Countries, 1950 to 1954 (National currencies)

Belgia

	Millions of French francs	Thousands of po sterling		lions of Belgian Cony francs	nThousands of South African pounds	
I t	French Mbrocco Tunisiaal Rhodesia Kenya	a Coast ${ t f1}'$		Northern	Gold	
	Direct taxation:					
1950 8 1951	$6,672$ $5,783^2//$ $18,492$ $6,222^2//$ $22,207$	3 5,295 5,1 2 8,522 5,6 7 8,035 7,2	14	1,639 2,31 ⁴ 1,98 2,202/ 2,434-/	94,609 115,780 145,634 162,931	
Tnairect taxation:						
1950 1 1951 2 1952 28 1953 28 1954 31	5,503	5 21,979 8,4 4 27,082 9,9 7 32,045 9,1	149	2,708 4,166 4,625, 4,23321,	62,370	
Total tax revenue	<u>:</u>					
195025 195136 195242 1953 I)/ .44	20,547.V,21,58 2,950 23,570;/, 25,484	6 35,604 15,6 4 40,080 16,4	510	4,347 6,480 6,612, 6,435 ² /, 6,296 ² /	148,688 178,150 216,327 240,480	
Direct taxation as percentage of total tax revenue:						
1950 1951 1952 1953 1954	31 29 32 28 36 26	81 26 80 19 86 24 87 20	39 38 36 44	38 36 30 34 39	64 65 67 67	

Source: See table 62.

a/ Data for financial years 1950/51 to 1953/54.

bJ CoMbined government and provincial tax revenues, excluding the national road fund, the Native Trust Fund and broadcasting receipts.

^{2/} Estimated.

in some cases by a tax on cattle; estate duties are also levied in certain areas. Although the poll tax is generally a flat rate per head, the prosperity of the area is taken into account in assessing the rate so that more prosperous areas bear a larger share of tax. In many areas the Native tax is paid to the Native Authority rather than the central government.

In French Morocco the main direct taxes are the <u>tertib</u>, levied on agricultural produce and livestock, a supplementary licence tax, which is a form of commercial profits tax, and a levy on salaries and similar income. In 1951, the <u>tertib</u> accounted for 41 per cent of total direct tax revenue, the supplementary licence tax, 11.11. per cent and the levy on salaries, 15 per cent. 2/ Tunisia has direct taxes corresponding to the <u>tertib</u> and the levy on salaries in Morocco but, in addition, levies a personal tax, corresponding to a general income tax. In 1953/54 it was estimated that the personal tax would account for 16 per cent of total direct tax revenue, the levy on salaries and land taxes accounting for 55 per cent and 29 per cent, respectively.

In the Belgian Congo the principal direct tax is the income tax; it was estimated that this tax accounted for 77 per cent of total direct tax revenue in 1953. Personal taxes were estimated to account for a further 9 per cent, and the balance of direct tax revenue - 14 per cent - was from Native taxes; the principal element in these is the head tax, which varies according to the prosperity of the region. Thus, in 1954, the Native tax in Leopoldville was 250 Belgian Congo francs per head while that levied on Pygmies in Stanleyville province was 10 Belgian Congo francs per head.

In the Union of South Africa a distinction is drawn between central government taxes and provincial taxes. In the former category are income taxes and supertaxes which are levied on all residents of the country earning more than a certain amount per annum. Except for the tax on gold-mining companies, which is based on the ratio of profits to gold recovered, the company tax and the non-resident shareholders' tax are payable at flat rates. Provincial taxes comprise income taxes on individuals resident in a province, which are levied as percentages of the normal and the super-tax, payable in accordance with the Income Tax Act and varying in each province; personal taxes, which are levied on every adult at rates graduated according to income, varying in each province; provincial company taxes on companies (other than those engaged in mining) at flat rates; personal taxes based on taxable incomes as determined for central income tax purposes, varying according to province of residence, income and fsmily status; general taxes, or poll taxes, leviable at flat rates; local taxes, or hut taxes, payable at flat rates; quit rents, paid in respect of certain lands; and provincial hospital taxes.

Although the income tax law does not distinguish between Europeans and non-Europeans the number of the latter in receipt of incomes subject to income tax is limited, and for all practical purposes they fall within a different system of

^{2/} Information for 1951 and 1952 transmitted under Article 73e of the United Nations Charter.

[/] Bulletin Administratif du Congo Beige, 5 December 1953 (Leopoldville), page 1921.

taxation from that applicable to Europeans. Whereas the income tax payable by the majority of Europeans is graduated, general taxes and local taxes payable by the majority of indigenous inhabitants are at flat rates and take no account of differences in wealth and family status.

During the years 1950 to 1954, there was a general trend towards increased taxation. Company taxes, for example, increased from 22 1/2 per cent to 25 per cent, and in the assessment year ending June 1953 an additional 2 1/2 per cent compulsory savings levy was introduced, the proceeds of which were to be repayable in five years at 4 per cent interest. This was abolished in the following years when the marginal rates of normal and super-taxes were reduced from 75.4 per cent (fifteen shillings and one penny in the pound).

Table 66 shows the value of the increased yield from direct taxation during the four years 1951 to 1954 (1950 = 100). In many countries the yield from direct taxation almost doubled between 1950 and 1953, while in the case of Northern Rhodesia the 1953 estimated yield was almost three tines as high as in 1950. In the Union of South Africa, where the system of taxation has been in operation for some time, the yield from direct taxation increased by almost three-fourths between 1950/51 and 1953/54.

Table 66. Indices of Direct Taxes in Selected Countries, 1951 to 1954 (1950 = 100)

Year	French Morocco T	unisia 2/ Rhoo	Northern desia Coa		Belgian Union of Kenya Congo South Africa 2/E/		
1952 1953	128 152 182 167	144 146 12/ 157 1/ 160 1/	128 230 277 IV	116 187 176 164	127 141 181		122 154 12/ 172 1c/

Source: See table 62.

2/ Financial years 1950/51 to 1953/54.

IV Based on estimates.

.2/ Government and provincial revenue.

Revenue from indirect taxation consists mainly of customs and excise receipts. In the Gold Coast these accounted for 98 per cent of indirect tax revenue in the financial year $195^2/_53$; in Northern Rhodesia and the Belgian Congo the -hare was 90 per cent or more; while in French Morocco and Kenya they accounted

for about two-thirds of all indirect tax revenue (table 67). In Tunisia, where export duties were increased in 1953, customs duties yielded only about one-fifth of indirect tax revenue. In French Equatorial Africa customs duties in 1953 accounted for 55 per cent of ordinary revenue. 11/

In most of these countries customs duties, rather than excise duties, are the main source of revenue. In the Gold Coast, for example, in 1953/54 excise duty together with local duty on cocoa was estimated to account for less than £0.5 million in a total yield from customs and excise duty of £23.4 million. In Nigeria and Northern Rhodesia excise duty accounted for about one-tenth of combined customs and excise receipts. In French Morocco, consumption duties amounted to about one-quarter of combined consumption and customs duties. In the Union of South Africa, however, where industrialization is more advanced, excise duty was the more important component, accounting for about 60 per cent of the yield from the combined duties.

Import duties usually yielded a larger measure of revenue than export duties, although in the Belgian Congo the yield from export duties in recent years has consistently exceeded that from import duties, while in the Gold Coast, owing to the high rate of duty on cocoa exports and favourable cocoa prices, revenue from export duty has exceeded the yield from import duty since 1950. Since import duties are levied principally on consumer goods, they affect the life of all the inhabitants, regardless of ability to pay and for this reason the majority of governments exempt or tax at very low rates necessities while taxing luxuries more heavily. Capital items for development are generally imported duty-free or under arrangements which permit the refund of duties when the materials are used in construction within the country.

Since African countries are dependent to a large extent on imports from abroad, the customs tariff has an important bearing on domestic costs. Taxation of essentials, particularly in the consumer goods field is reflected quickly in living costs and wages. Comparison of French, Portuguese and United Kingdom tariffs, port dues and so on, suggests that the higher rates in French areas are one of the major causes of the higher cost structure in these countries. 5/

The use of import duties as protective tariffs has not been widely practiced, and though a measure of protection is afforded when the rate of import duty is greater than the excise duty on locally manufactured articles this has been largely incidental. Assistance to developing industries has more frequently been provided by remissions of import duties on materials and machinery imported for industrial use, The loss of revenue caused by fiscal aid of this kind may exceed the amount of financial assistance afforded to the particular industry in cases – for example, imports of fuel – where the imports can be used not only by the industrial producer but by independent consumers. Some countries endeavour to prevent this by charging duty on entry but allowing a refund when the imports are used for ends it is desired to encourage.

^{11/} March6s Coloniaux (Paris), 18 September 1953.

[.]V Industries et Travaux d'Outre-Mer (Paris), December 1953 to February 1954.

Table 67. Comparison of Indirect Taxes in Selected Countries, 1950 to 1954

(National currencies)

Item	Million French French Tu Morocco	francs	Thousan pcunds Northern (Rhodesi	sterling Gold	Kenya	Millions of Belgian Congo francs Belgian Congo		
Indirect tax	revenues:							
1950 1951 195 1953 1954	18,2:53 25,503 28,851 28,560 31,179	13,851 14,764 17,348	1,9c9 1 2,616 4 3,094 3 3,227 3	21,979 8 27,082 9 32,045 9	3,497 9,949	2,708 4,166 4,625 4,233 3,862		
Customs duties:	_							
1950 1951 1952 1953	11,807 16,595 18,563 17,493 17,750	3,002 3,150	1,724 1 2,395 2 2,837 2 00 3,00 2/6,5	21,366 5 26,413 6 31,3	,857 ,870 62	3,858W 4,278 3,792 3,712 2/		
Customs duties as percentage of indirect tax revenues:								
1950 1951 1952 1953 1954	65 65 64 61 57	21 22 21 18 16	90 92 92 93	95 97 98 98 97	63 69 69 67	 93 92 90 96		

Source: See table 62.

^{2/} Including excise duties. In the Belgian Congo in 1953 excise duties amounted to 188 million francs, less than 5 per cent of customs duties.

In some areas, import tariffs favour the metropolitan country; in others, for example, the Congo Basin treaty countries, no discrimination occurs. While the former group may derive certain benefits from trading principally within their own currency area, the principle of discrimination is contrary to recommendations for free trade contained in international instruments, and frequently involves the importing country in paying more heavily for imports than might be the case if the goods could be purchased in other markets and imported at the same rate of duty as that applicable to similar imports from the metropolitan country.

With the increase in late 1950 in the prices of most African raw materials, existing export duties, mainly <u>ad valorem</u> and frequently graduated, yielded larger revenues; in some countries export duties were newly introduced and in others existing rates of duty were raised appreciably. This increase in taxation of exports was prompted not only by the need for increased revenue to meet recurrent costs arising from development but was also an attempt to counter inflationary tendencies which became discernible following the Korean crisis.

Export duties have been levied on a comparatively small range of commodities and in many instances the greater part of the revenue has arisen from a single Item. Thus, in the Gold Coast in the financial year $195^2/53$, of £16.8 million derived from export duties, £16.4 million came from cocoa exports, equal to about 40 per cent of total revenue, while it is estimated that in the Sudan one-third of the total revenue is from cotton, cotton-seed and its derivatives. y This dependence on a limited number of export items for a high proportion of revenue makes it necessary for authorities to watch carefully the effects of export taxes on production, particularly in cases where, owing to the delay between planting and harvest, the effects are not immediately discernible.

Owing to the lack of adequate national income data for African countries, little can be said about the relationship of taxation to national income. It is clear, however, that compared with European countries, where the proportion of tax revenue to national income ranges from 20 per cent upwards, the proportion in most African countries is low. In Nigeria in 1950/51 it was of the order of 4 per cent, or 8 per cent if surpluses accruing to the Marketing Boards are classed as tax revenue; V in the Belgian Congo the ratio of tax revenue to national income is of the order of 12 per cent. In Northern Rhodesia, where direct taxes are more easily collected than in other parts of Africa, owing to the existence of large mining concerns, and in the Union of South Africa, the ratio of tax revenue to national income is of the order of 20 per cent, but these are both exceptional cases. The generally low ratio of tax revenue to national Income suggests that there is scope for Africans to make a larger contribution towards their development than is at present the case. While marked extension of direct taxation seems impracticable in present conditions, the more prosperous sections of the economy might be able to support higher rates of taxation. National income studies, already undertaken in the Union of South Africa, the

House of Representatives, Second Session, No. 7, (Khartoum) page 272.

I/ United Kingdom Colonial Office, <u>The National Income of Nigeria</u>, by A. R. Prest and I. G. Stewart, Colonial Research Studies No. 11 (London, 1953).

Belgian Congo and certain British colonial territories, should help towards determining the feasibility of higher taxes. Where graduated direct taxes are in existence, an improvement in methods of assessment and careful scanning of returns might result in better tax yields.

Ordinary Expenditure

Expenditure has increased steadily in most African territories between 1950 and 1954. In the Gold Coast, the increase in ordinary expenditure in these years was of the order of 145 per cent, after allowing for appropriations amounting to £28 million - a sum over one and a half times ordinary expenditure in 1950-for development purposes. Expenditure in French Equatorial Africa doubled during the period (table 68).

In arriving at ordinary expenditure, appropriations for revenue equalization funds, development, road and other funds, and other non-recurrent expenditure have been omitted where possible, even though these had been included in ordinary expenditure in the original data. This has not been possible in all instances, however, and therefore the figures for different countries are not comparable.

The increase in expenditure is accounted for in part by rising prices, wages and salaries, and by the increase in recurrent expenses arising from development. A further factor which has operated to increase expenditure arises from greatly expanded financial assistance from abroad which, to the extent that it has not been in the form of grants, has added to the public debt of the countries and hence to debt repayments, which have been rising steadily in recent years. to comparatively small money incomes in these countries, it has not been possible to raise domestic loans on any appreciable scale. Even where loans are raised Internally they are, to a very large extent, supplied by banks and other bodies which derive their funds from head offices mainly in the metropolitan countries. In certain countries special considerations have affected expenditure. Comoro Islands, exceptional expenditures, largely in the form of subsidies from the metropolitan Government, have been necessary following the damage caused by a cyclone in December 1950; in Northern Rhodesia, a change in the constitution necessitated payment towards Federal funds in 1953 which had not previously entered into expenditure.

While detailed comparison among countries cannot be made with accuracy, broad examination suggests that in the majority, the breakdown of expenditure by service is approximately as follows: 20 to 25 per cent for general administration; 20 to 30 per cent for social services; 15 to 20 per cent for economic services; and 15 to 25 per cent for public works.

In most of these countries there has been a trend towards a relative increase in economic and social expenditure coupl-d with a slight decline in the relative share of general administrative services. In the Belgian Congo, for example, while general administrative expenditure increased by about 60 per cent between 1950 and 1953, both social and economic expenditure increased by over 1C0 per cent; the share of ordinary expenditure accounted for by general administration decreased from 28 per cent in 1950 to 24 per cent in 1953 while the shares of social and economic expenditures increased from 21 and 32 per cent, respectively, in 1950 to 23 and 34 per cent in 1953.

Table 68. Ordinary Expenditure in Selected Countries, 1950 to 1954

(National currencies)

Currency and country	1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	
Millions of French francs:						
ch Moroccosia		34,496 36,926		2/ 55,850 2/ 40,150 2/		
Millions of CFA francs:						
French Equatorial Africa French West Africa 12/ Madagascar E./ Comoro Islands	33,527 7,759	8,633 7 34,063 9,408 119	11,745			
Millions of Belgian Congo francs:						
Belgian Congo	4,889	6,386 7	7,004	7,668 2	2/ 7,499	2/
Thousands of pounds sterling:						
Gold Coast,i,/	8,888	15,773 11,635 15,831	14,076		27,158 11,938	

Source: National accounts, and information transmitted under Article 73e of the United Nations Charter.

2/ Estimated.

:2/ Excluding expenditure on investment and equipment amounting (in millions of CFA francs) to 5,016,7,453 and 9,989, in 1951, 1952 and 1953, respectively.

Including provincial budgetary expenditures.

- Excluding appropriations for development purposeas as follows (in millions): £14.6, £13.7, £28.0 and £15.5, in 1951, 1952, 1953 and 1954, respectively.
 - 2/ Recurrent expenditure only.
- 1/ January to June 1954.

Expenditure in the Union of South Africa is either from revenue or from loans. The central Government's ordinary expenditure from revenue increased by over 40 per cent between 1950/51 and 1953/54; there was also a steady growth in provincial government expenditure. Education plays an important part in expenditure; in 1952/53 it accounted for almost ESA 52 million – or 18 per cent – of combined central government and provincial expenditures. Of the central government share – ESA 13 million – more than half was for native education. A further ESA 24 million of central government expenditure was devoted to agriculture, irrigation and forestry, ESA 5 million was expanded on social welfare and almost ESA 4 million on hospitals. Posts and telegrarhs and culmerce and industries also accounted for large amounts. Among provincial expenditures ESA 19.3 million on hospitals and over ESA 10 million on roads and bridges – excluding expenditure from the National Road Fund, which amounted to ESA 4.6 million – were the main items in 1952/53.

Table 69 shows tht growth of the public debt in the Union of South .² frica since 1949. The external debt in 1940 amounted to £.106 million; the internal debt at the same date was ESA 178 million. During the war a reduction in the deficit on trading combined with continued gold production enabled the Government to repatriate a large amount of its external debt, which by 1949 had fallen to ESA 13 million. Renewed borrowing abroad raised the external debt to ESA 62 million in March 1954. The internal debt, on the other hand, has shown a rapid increase, partly due to external debt resumption, and later to war conditions. Since the war the rapid pace of general development, partly financed from government sources, has led to a further large increase in internal debt, to £823 million in 1954.

Table 69. Union of South Africa: Public Debt,
1949 to 1954

(Millions of South African pounds)

Year ending March	Total	Internal debt	External debt
1949 1950 1951 1952 1953	776.3 802.7 842.4	648.6 704.7 742.6 754.4 794.1 823.2	13.4 30.0 33.7 48.3 48.3

Source: Bureau of Census and Statistics, Monthly Bulletin of Statistics.

The preponderance of internal debt in the public debt position is in marked contrast to the position in other African countries and reflects the more advanced economic position of the Union of South Africa.

Chapter 8

INVESTMENT

iu .1.1s not possible on the basis of existing data to estimate the total volume of investment in Africa, it is clear that there has been an appreciable increase since 1950. Expenditures under development plans in most dependent territories began to increase significantly in 1951 and continued to expand annually, while such data as are available on semi-public and private investment suggest increases in both sectors. During this period Africa has received loans from the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development totalling over \$200 million, of which about \$170 million had been disbursed by June 1954.

The flow of public investment from France to French North Africa and to its other African territories and departments amounted to over 663 billion metropolitan francs in the five-year period 1950 to 1954. In French North Africa metropolitan public investments declined from 61 billion francs in 1950 to 51 billion in 1952 but have since increased steadily, to over francs 63 billion francs in 1954. The flow of public investment from France to its oversea territories and departments increased from 50 billion francs in 1950 to over 91 billion in 1952 and then declined steadily, to 75 billion francs in 1953.

United Kingdom investment in African territories includes the Colonial Development and Welfare Fund, loans raised in the London market and Colonial Development Corporation expenditures. Loans raised in London by British African territories from April 1950 to March 1954 amounted to over Ee0 million, of which almost E30 million was raised in 1950/51. This does not, however, reflect investment in the colonial territories in this period, since there is no direct relationship between the date of the loan and its expenditure. Colonial Development and Welfare Fund issues have been fairly constant, at about E6 million annually. The fact that official British investment in African dependent territories has been less than that of France reflects both the differences in colonial policy, as a result of which British territories make a larger contribution towards their development from domestic resources, and the more advanced development of the money economies in some British territories. Balance of payments estimates show that there was a net outflow from the Belgian Congo over the four-year period 1950 to 1953 amounting to 2.25 billion Belgian Congo francs, consisting of an outflow of capital amounting to 3.05 billion and 2.37 billion francs in 1950 and 1951 respectively, and an inflow of 1.47 billion and 1.7 billion francs in 1952 and 1953, respectively. 1/

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development agreed to loans amounting to over \$200 million to African countries other than Egypt from 1950 to 1954; disbursements under the loans in this period amounted to about \$170 million.

^{1/ &}lt;u>Bulletin de la Banque Centrale du Congo Beige et du Ruanda-Urundi</u> (Brussels), October 1954.

The loans comprise \$110 million to the Union of South Africa for improving transportation and increasing electric energy, of which \$92 million had been disbursed by mid-1954; S40 million to the Belgian Congo to assist in financing the development plan, of which \$38 million was disbursed; \$28 million to Southern Rhodesia for improving transport and increasing the output of electricity, of which about \$21 million was disbursed; \$14 million to Northern Rhodesia for extending the railway system, of which almost \$13 million was disbursed; and \$8.5 million to Ethiopia, of which \$6 million had been disbursed by the end of June 1954. Estimates of private external investment are incomplete and are not compiled on a common basis. Nevertheless, it is clear that a large proportion of such investment was concentrated in the Union of South Africa which, according to the estimates of the South African Reserve Bank, received more than the equivalent of Ea) million in the five years 1950 to 1954. In United Kingdom dependent territories estimates suggest that private investment from abroad was of the order of \$280 million over the four-year period 1950 to 1953. Private investment in Africa from United States sources is estimated to have been about \$230 millions in the period 1950 to 1952.

As a result of budget surpluses many African countries have made an increasingly important contribution towards their own development; this is particularly the case in French North Africa, British Africa in general and the Belgian Congo. In addition to their extensive investments, some of these countries have had a surplus of funds which could not be spent immediately on development projects because of shortages of qualified personnel and other essential factors of production. These surpluses were held abroad, mainly in the metropolitan countries. 2/

In addition to investment from local funds in the public sector, there have been large investments in both semi-public and private sectors from local resources. In United Kingdom areas, investment in the semi-public sector has been financed largely from Marketing Board surpluses, while in the Belgian Congo, and in French and Portuguese countries, there has been participation by public funds in joint public and private enterprises. In the Union of South Africa a considerable volume of public funds has been invested in major industrial projects, including a plant producing coal from oil, electricity supply and transport.

Very little information is available regarding private investment from domestic sources, particularly in agriculture and trade, which are the main fields of investment in the greater part of Africa. In the Union of South Africa private domestic investment represents a large part of total investment. For certain countries, available estimates of capital formation reflect that part of current output and imports which is not consumed or exported, and as such comprise not only government and semi-public expenditure on development, together with foreign private investment, but also investment from local funds by the private sector of the economy. Estimates of capital formation require more statistical data than are currently available for the majority of African countries and such estimates as are available are limited to a comparatively small part of the continent.

^{2/} They include the Marketing Board reserves of some British countries, part of which are held as reserves against falls in export prices.

It has been estimated that gross capital formation in all British colonial territories amounted, at current prices, to £240 million in 1950, £300 million in 1951 and £390 million in 1952; provisional estimates for 1953 suggest a further increase to £410 million to £425 million. 3/ Of this it has been estimated that African colonies account for about 45 per cent, or approximately £600 million during the four years 1950 to 1953. In British colonial territories as a whole the estimated ratio of gross capital formation to national income (excluding African subsistence income) in 1951 and 1952 was of the order of 14 per cent and 17 per cent, respectively. This definition of capital formation includes the creation of new physical assets and the replacement of existing ones in the form of the main types of machinery and vehicles (imported or locally constructed), buildings and public works, and expenditure on mines and plantations, preliminary to production, by governments and other official bcdies, commercial firms and private individuals. The remainder of funds available for investment is, in the main, in the form of foreign investments - predominantly sterling balances. If the increase in sterling balances in 1952 is added to domestic capital formation, the percentage of national income accounted for rises to 23 per cent. In the Gold Coast, for which separate figures are available, gross capital formation was as follows (in millions of pounds sterling): 1950, 15.1; 1951, 19.6; 1952, 24.2; 1953, 27.4; and 1954, 28.4. 4/ Expressed as a proportion of gross territorial income for the year 1950/51 (excluding allowances for the subsistence sector of the economy), this accounted for about 14 per cent. If to this figure for gross capital investment is added investment abroad, the proportion of gross territorial income accounted for was of the order of 33 per cent for that year. In its report on the economic development of Nigeria, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development estimated that the level of gross investment (including investment abroad) was about 12 per cent of gross domestic product, including allowance for the subsistence sector. 5/ In terms of the gross domestic product of the money economy, this may well approximate the over-all percentage of 23 per cent shown above for British territories as a whole.

As a proportion of gross national product, gross investment in the Belgian Congo has varied between 26 per cent (1953) and 34 per cent (1951) in recent years; in terms of net national income, net investment varied between 21 per cent and 31 per cent in this period (tab:1.e 70).

Table 70. Investment in the Belgian Congo, 1950 to 1953 (Millions of Belgian Congo francs)

Item	1950	1951	1952	1953
Gross investment	10,764	15,670	15,20014	.,000
product	30.2	35.8	29.3	26.3
Net investment As percentage of national income • •		11,870 31.2		

Source: Bulletin de la Banque Centrale du Congo Belge et du Ruanda-Urundi (Frussels), October 1954.

^{3/} The Colonial Territories, 1953-54, Cmd 9169 (London, 195)4).

lq/Ministry of Finance, Economic Survey for 1952, 1953 and 1954 (Accra).

^{5/} The Economic Development of Nigeria (Baltimore, 1955).

Investment in Dependent Territories

Sources of investment

The Administrative Powers of the various dependent territories in Africa have differed in importance as sources of investment for their territories. France, through the Investment Fund for the Economic and Social Development of the Overseas Territories (Fonda d'Investissement et de Developpement Economique et Social, FIDES), accepts responsibility for all scientific research, two-thirds of the social development expenditure and one-half of the economic development expenditure; the remainder is provided by the territories themselves, frequently from loans at low rates of interest from the Central Fund for Overseas France (Caisse centrale de la France d'Outre-mer, CCFOM), which in turn is financed by grants from the metropolitan budget and advances from the French Treasury. The Central Fund, together with certain French banks, also make loans to private and semi-public companies in French African areas. In 1952 and 1953, France provided 76 and 80 per cent respectively, of the investment in its oversea territories. y In the Belgian Congo, the greater part of the cost of development financing is borne by the territory from budget receipts and from loans. In British countries, too, the greater part of current capital development is being financed from their own resources or from loans, Colonial Development and Welfare funds accounting for about one-fifth of total investment in development plans. Table 71 shows such issues since the inception of the scheme.

Table 71. Colonial Development and Welfare Fund Issues to British African Territories, 1946/47 to 1953/54

(Thousands of pounds sterling)

Territory	6 / 4 7 948/49	to 1949/50	to 1949/50 1950/51 1951/52 195 ² / ₅ 3 1953/54 dotal						
East Africa 1	,917 2,197	2,621	2,090	2,209	1,731	12,985			
Central Africa.	479 844	Tr	792	711	1,091	4,695			
West Africa	4,7332,931	2,9c6	3,657	2,074	2,767	19,C68			
South African High Commission									
territories	544 263	360	368	432	3	48 2,315			
St. Helena	58 28	8	10	26	25	155			
Total 7,	731 6,263	6,873	6,917	5,472	5,862	39,216			

Source: Colonial Development and Welfare Acts. Cmd 9375 (London).

Assemble Nationale, Projet de Loi de Finances pour l'exercise 1955 (Paris) page i6.

United States direct private investment in African dependent territories, comprising net capital outflow and undistributed subsidiary earnings, which amounted to \$74 million by the end of 1949 increased to \$120 million at the end of 1952. Of this increase of \$46 million, \$29 million was invested in British, \$10 million in French and \$7 million in other dependent territories. Grants and loans under special aid programmes of the United States have contributed towards financing specific development projects in a number of African areas. For example, a loan of \$14 million has been made to Northern Rhodesia to help finance development of Rhodesia Railways.

Local funds for investment are derived principally from budget receipts, Marketing Beard and price stabilization funds, industrial development bodies and Native authorities. In the Belgian Congo and in the Gold Coast, some loans have been raised by local subscription and some British territories have reserved a portion of loans raised in the London market for local subscription. A new source of funds in British territories is the financial backing for local currencies maintained in London, of which a small proportion - possibly 20 per cent - may in future be used for taking up local government securities. In French territories, the Native authorities have subscribed to the capital of public and semi-public companies. In the Belgian Congo the budget has contributed to the Societe de Credit au Colonat et b. l'Industrie which encourages the formation and expansion of small and medium-sized firms. A similar function in British territories is performed by the Colonial Development Corporation and local development corpor&tions.

In the sphere of local private investment, an important part is played by the ploughing back of profits by existing companies. The establishment of new companies is encouraged by development boards which are willing to finance schemes, by tax exemptions and by a liberal tariff policy in respect of capital imports. The greater part of private capital investment from abroad is derived from firms with a knowledge of local conditions, and firms already established in the territories.

Expenditure on development plans

Development Plans undertaken in African dependent territories since the war aim to develop existing production and to encourage new forms of wealth with the object of raising the living standards of the indigenous inhabitants. To this end, investment has been effected in basic equipment and in schemes for economic and social betterment. In the initial years the emphasis has been on the development of basic facilities, such as energy resources, communications and port facilities, with a view to providing conditions conducive to economic expansion. Although further expansion in this field is still required, an important consideration in this connexion is the division of expenditure among types of development, particularly since, if development is to have a lsting effect, the area must be able to tear the recurrent charges arising therefrom. In general, the Administering Powers have been aware of these problems, and requirements of education and public health have been measured against revenue Producing schemes to ensure best use of available finance. Moreover, plans have been subject to periodic reexamination to ensure that balanced development is maintained.

Between 1950 and 1954 the main obstacles to development have been, first, the comparative shortage of capital imports in the early years caused, in part, by European re-armament and, second, the lack of trained personnel. The fact that, during part of the period subsequent to 1950, there was an outflow of funds from some African countries suggests that the availability of finance was not one of the major Obstacles. Investment in selected territories during the period 1950 to 1953 is reviewed in the following paragraphs.

Expenditure in the Belgian Congo on the Ten Year Plan for development has shown a continuous increase from 1951 (table 72). Total expenditure to the end of 1950 amounted to only 1,732 million Belgian Congo francs but this increased by 1,212 million francs in the following years, and by 1,336 million francs in each of the years 1952 and 1953 so that expenditure in the latter year wrs over three times that to the end of 1950. Expenditure in the first half of 1954, at 3,700 million Belgian Congo francs was at a higher annual rate than that recorded in 1953 and about one-third in excess of actual expenditures in the first half of 1953.

Of the total sum of 7,C61 million Belgian Congo francs in the above table spent from the Administration and INEAC budget, all except 214 million francs, which was actually spent during the life of the 1948 and 1949 budgets from which it was derived, are accounted for by projects in table 73.

Expenditure from the OTRACO budget is devoted to the development of communications and REGISDESO provides water and electricity, so that in all, a substantial proportion of total development expenditure is for the development of basic facilities.

There has been an appreciable increase in investment in the development plans of British African territories (table 74). Some easing of the staffing problem combined with the greater availability of capital goods has contributed to this rise; the increase in recurrent costs arising from the completion of capital works has also raised the figures of development expenditure. In most territories the rise in development expenditure continued to the end of 1953 but in certain territories, for example Tanganyika, some curtailment of expenditure in 1953 was necessitated by decreased revenue.

Rising costs and availability of increased revenue have led to considerable revisions in the original development plans. The organization of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland has necessitated some reallocation of funds for development in the former colonies of Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland; and in Kenya it was decided, as a result of the emergency to redraw the development plan for the period July 1954 to April 1956 to take into account additional financial assistance of up to £5.5 million granted by the United Kingdom Government.

In French North Africa, with the exception of French Morocco where public investment on development showed a slight increase above the 1952 figure, there was a general decline in 1953 from the record figures of investment in the previous years (table 75).

Table 72. Belgian Congo: 2/Commitments and Expenditure under Ten-Year Plan, to 31 December 1953

(Millions of *Belgian Congo francs)

				ite	em	
				Admini	stration and INE	EAC: 12
				Commit Expend	ments	
				OTRACO	<u>):</u> 2/	
					tments	
REGIDESO: Id/						
Commitments	218 194	270	159 163			
Expenditure	174	231	103			
FBEI: 2/	292 180	174 195	131 138			
Commitments						
Expenditure	. 52	31	60	Commit	ments 584	
Total:						
Commitments			4,120 4,281	6,126 5,617	18,497 14,574	

Source: Ministbre des Colonies, <u>La Situation Economique de Congo Beige</u>, 1951, 1952, 1953 (Brussels).

- 2/ Including Ruanda-Urundi.
- .12/ Institut National pour l'Etude Agronomique du Congo.
- C/ Office des Transports Coloniaux.

 R4gie de Distribution d'Eau et d'Electricite au Congo.
- e/ Fonds de Bien-Etre Indigiene.
- I/ Office des eit4s Africaines.

Table 73. Belgian Congo: 2/ Ten-Year Plan of Investment Financed by Administration Budget, to 31 December 1953

(Millions of Belgian Congo francs)

Item	Before				Total to
100111	1951	1951	1952	1953 31	December 1953
					4 4 5 0 0
cuuLuilleutions	39.6	239.7		532.2	1,153.9
Electricity,	24.0			1,965.4	
Urbanization and building	34.0	116.0	318.0	513.4	971.4
Agriculture and fisheries	11.6	442.1	853.7	712.9	2,042.7
Health	16.0	63.2	77.6	165.9	318.5
		53.8	205.5	228.4	503.7
Education	59.2				
Research	4.2	83.8	147.7	258.6	549.3
Immigration	_	20.8	39.9	29.0	93.9
INDAC		199.0			199.0
		34.3	74.7	61.0	203.3
Total	-221 9 -	1,252.7	2 249 3	3 123 1	6,847.0

Source: Centre d'Information et de Documentation au Congo Beige et du Ruanda Urundi, <u>1.1erQu sur le plan d4cennal pour le developpment</u> 4conomique et social du Congo Beige, 1952, 1953, 1954 (Brussels).

2/ Including Ruanda-Urundi.

Table 74. Expenditure on Development Plans in Selected United Kingdom Territories, 1946/47 to 1954

Country	194 ⁶ / ₄ 7	to 1950	195	51 1	.952	1953	1954
Gold Coast 2/ Kenya1	L3,500		*	13,945 5,352			22,366 Ei
Nigeria 2/ . 1 Northern Rhodesi) 3	239	5,204			,060 1./
Tanganyika	*		959	5,009	,	99 2,	• •
Uganda e/	6,132	3,	934	4,641	6,46	57	

(Thousands of pounds sterling)

Source: Budget estimates of individual countries. Gold Coast: Office of the Government Statistician, Economic and Statistical Bulletin (Accra), February 1953.

2/ Twelve months ending March of the following year.

Revised estimate.

Estimate.

Six months ending June.

2/ Non-recurrent expenditure.

Table 75. French North Africa: Public Investment in Development, 1949 to 1953
(Billions of metropolitan francs)

Country and item	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953	Total
Algeria: Budget Other Total	32.6 7.5 40.1					213.6 91.7 3 505.3
Tunisia: Budget Other Total	3.9	14.1 _/ 10.7'-ti 24.8	14.0 5.5 19.3		14.4 5.1 19.5	72.2 29.8 102.0
Morocco: Budget Other Total	19.2 17.8 37.0	25.7 18.2 43.9	34.5 21.3 55.0	23.9	35.5 25.3 60.8	151.5 106.5 253.0
Total	92.2	121.2 ² /	135.0	164.3	152.6	665.3
Total at 1953 prices	147.0	182.0	162.0	164.3	152.6	807.9

Source: Commissariat Gen6ral du Plan de Modernisation et drEquipement,
Rapport clnuel sur ltex4cution du plan de modernisation et
d'equipement de l'Union française, 1954 (Paris), page 343.

2/Including 6 billion francs advanced from the Treasury.

During the period 1951 to 1953, the emphasis in the development plans of French North African territories has continued to be on the expansion of basic facilities. Irrigation and water supply, electricity and communications accounted for over 55 per cent of total expenditure in Algeria and Morocco; in Tunisia, where reconstruction claimed 12 per cent of total expenditure, the share was over 50 per cent (table 76).

As a result of this emphasis on development of basic facilities there has been an expansion of the road network. In Morocco, for example, between 1943 and 1953 the main road network was increased in length by about 10 per cent, there was also an increase in the percentage tarred from 82 per cent in 1948 to 89 per cent. Secondary roads also increased in length by about 10 per cent and the percentage tarred from two-thirds to nine-tenths. In railways the emphasis has been on modernization of equipment rather than extension of track, and a number of steam locomotives have been replaced by diesels. New airfields have been built to cater for increasing air traffic and port facilities expanded. Production of electricity has been considerably increased.

Agriculture, mining and mineral research have received a less important share of development expenditure. Social services accounted for over 23 percent of expenditure in Algeria and Morocco. In Tunisia, the percentage share of social services in total development was less-about 12 per cent - but part of the expenditure on reconstruction is doubtless of a housing and town planning nature.

In the second series of development plans for French North Africa, covering the period 1954 to 1957, the development of basic facilities still accounts for a large part of total planned expenditure, but there has been an increase in the proportion of funds allotted to directly productive schemes (table 77). Planned expenditure on agriculture, for example, accounts for 12, 14 and 19 per cent in Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia, respectively, compared with 7, 9 and 11 per cent of expenditure in the period 1951 to 1953; expenditure on mining and mineral research also accounts for a larger percentage of total expenditure than under the first development plan. Among social services, education and public health receive a larger share of planned expenditure than in the period 1951 to 1953 but housing and town planning expenditure is less important in Algeria. The annual average rate of expenditure under the new plans is expected to be about the average rate for the period 1951 to 1953.

Table 76. French North Africa: Expenditure under First Development Plan,
1951 to 1953

(Millions of metropolitan francs)

	Droject -		A.geria			Morocco			Tunisia :	1953
	Project,	1951	1952	1953	1951	1952		1951	1952	1953
	-griculture Irrigation and water	3,699	5,508	5,0	18 4,424	5,573	6,679	2,032	2,450	2,096
	supply Electric power a/ ,iining and mineral	17,725	18,754	8,266 12,19	12,045 1: 6 14,406	1,797 7,58 11,635	10,883	10,659	5,251 6,52 2,312	8 6,910 1,274
	researchIndustrial	• 2,865	3,2898	,704	5,760	5,772	5,324	2,370	2,510	2,576
	development		1	,078 2,	312 1,967	' – –	_	100	50	_
	Communications	• 1	1,15313,9	8112,9	1310,238	11,061	10,668	3,808	2,845	1,437
	Tourism Miscellaneous Total, economic	96	-	_	433	538	101 804	50	-	34
1,	development • .	44,882	55,88952	,595	42,843	43,144	45,118	15,281	16,695	14,327
<u> </u>	Education					4,867 5,5	44 5,029 4,3	307 4,058	3,829 1,111 1,	,100 1,249
	Public health Housing and town	2,084	1,912 2	2,431	2,017	2,163	2,530	448	500	379
	planning Total, social			. 5,81	4 13,642	9,296 5,00	68 8,948	7,865 3	350 1,150	914
	development		12,765 2	21,098	16,756 11	,392 15,16	69 14,224	1,909	² ,750	2,542
	Aministration Reconstruction Total		3,476	2,9	57 1,568	2,236	1,479	568 2,205	750 3,100	477 2,124
	expenditures				59,914	80,463 72,30	08 55,803 60	,549 60,82	20 19,963 23,2	295 19,47c

Source: Commissariat General du Plan de Modernisation et d'Equipement, Rapport sur la realisation du plan de modernisation et d'equipement de l'Union française, 1952 and 1953 and Cing ans d'execution du plan de modernisation et d'equipement de l'Union française, 1952 (Paris).

a/ Including small amounts for gas in 1951 and 1952.

Table 77. French North Africa: Planned Expenditure under Second Development Plan, 1954 to 1957

(Millions of metropolitan francs)

	Alger	ria	Moroc	CCO	Tunisi	a
	l penditure		Planned expenditure	Per cent of total	Planned P expenditure	
Agriculture Irrigation and water supply Electric power Mining and mineral research Industrial development a/ Communications Tourism	44,537 40,Ccc 2,5140 55,542	11.9 19.4 14.6 13.3 0.8 18.2	15,685	14.3 18.1 7.3 7.0 c.6 16.4 0.2	13,38c 16,cc5 6,930 9,620 1,ccc 6,7c5 350	19.0 22.7 9.8 13.6 1.4 9.5
Education b/	12,CCC 27,CCO	7.6 3.9 8.9	15,795 8,cco 29,184 52,979	7.0 3.6 13.0	6,ccc 2,5cc 6,cco	8.5 3.5 8.5
Administration Municipalities	. 4,CCC		8,5C0 19,570	3.8 8.7	2,CCO	2.8
Total	304,953		224,652		70,490	

Source: Deuxieme Plan de Modernisation et d'Equipement, Rapport General de la Commission d'Etude et de Co-ordination des Plans de Modernisation et d'Equipement de l'Algerie, de la Tunisie et du Maroc 1954, (Paris, 1954).

Including fisheries.

Including expenditure on sport.

Public investment in French tropical Africa showed a constant increase to the end of 1952; the volume of investment was particularly significant in 1951 and 1952, when it was two and three times, respectively, as high as the average level attained in the period 1949 to 1950 (table 78). In 1953, however, investment fell by about half compared with the previous year to about the same rate as in 1951. The reasons given for the fall in investment in 1953 are that 1953 marked the end of an important stage in the first development plan and was a year of transition from the first to the second plan so that there were delays in investment.

Measured in terms of authorized commitments, investment over the entire period 1946 to 1953, inclusive, amounted to 396,786 million metropolitan francs; of this fr 352,023 million were derived from FIDES and the balance of fr 67,763 million from the Caisse centrale. The figures refer to investment in all the overseas territories of which those in Africa south of the Sahara account for over 95 per cent. These territories received fr 271,791 million from FIDES in this period. The allocation of this amount by categories of investment is shown in table 79. The table also shows actual expenditure by FIDES, which amounted to 77 per cent of total authorized commitments during the period.

As in French North Africa, the emphasis in the first development plan has been on the improvement and extension of basic facilities, particularly communications. In the second plan emphasis is placed on expanded production,

Table 78. French Territories South of the Sahara: Public Investment, a/ to 31 December 1953

(Billions of metropolitan francs)

Source of finance	To end of 1948	1949	1950	1951	1952 1	953 то	tal
b FIDES/—	8.8	24.0	28.2	52.7	85.6 ²¹	50.4	249.7
Caisse centrale de la France d't.futre-mer	1.4	4.0	5.0	9.5	11.5	11.8	43.2
Total	10.2	28.0	33.2	62.2	97.1	62.2	292.9

Source: Commissariat Ge'ne'ral du Plan de Modernisation et d'Equipement, Rapport surla rdalisation du plan de modernisation et d'dquipement de l'Union française, 1952 and 1953.

- a/ Actual disbursements, including small amounts for territories outside Africa.
- b/ Investment fund for economic and social development.
- c/ Of this amount, 20.5 billion francs consisted of transfers to the treasuries of individual territories.

Table 79. French Territories South of the Sahara: Authorized Commitments, by Categories of Expenditure, 1946 to 1953 (Millions of metropolitan francs)

Equa- l West tonal ada rpose Africa Africa to	minis-	5,629 386	1,74
duction 23,988 6,896	2,996	35,518	5,331
rgy	2,337		
unications 78,620 31,698	32,367	24,401	5,254
al develop- nt20,873 9,535	4,016		
scellaneous119 156	35 ⁸		
Total authorized commitments 131,141 49,834 4	2,074		

Total			
actual dis-			
bursements	106,496	34,534	32,475

Mada- gascar	Togoland, French adminis- tration	French Somali- land	Comoro Islands
5,162	578	192	245
256	-	1,187	1
24,084	2,974	2,967	1,307

	Fer cent of total commit-	271,791 icc
Total r	ments	
40,057	15	208,384
12,870	5	
174,017	64	
43,755	15	
1,090	1	

Source: Authorized commitments: Commissariat Gdndral du Plan de Modernisation et d'Equipement, Rapport annuel sur 1¹-execution du plan de modernisation et d'equipement de l'Union française, 1954 (Paris), page 365; actual disbursements: Ministere de la Françe d'Cutre-Mer, Bulletin Mensuel de Statistique d'Cutre-Mer, May-June, 1954 (Paris).

one of the principal aims being a substantial increase in agricultural production for local consumption. Planned expenditure on the rural economy is accordingly to increase to 62 billion metropolitan francs, or 18 per cent of total expenditure, compared with 14 per cent (fr 46 billion) under the first plan. Expenditure on research is also to be expanded, particularly in the field of mining. Further expansion of communications, though on a reduced scale is planned, such expansion being intended as an aid to increased production. In education the emphasis is to be on primary education and in public health the aim is to expand existing facilities while ensuring a minimum of waste. Table 80 shows the minimum programme envisaged by the commission set up to report on investment needs in the second period and covers only recommended investment by France. It is anticipated that private investment in French territories south of the Sahara will amount to fr 105 billion in the period 1954 to 1957.

Table 80. French Cversea Territories: Metropolitan Investments in Second Development Plan, 1954 to 1957

(Billions of metropolitan francs)

Sector of economy	<u>Proposed</u> Amount	
Rural economy	. 60	17
Principal mining projects, industrial and hydroelectric schemes (including provision for roads)	80	25
Scientific and technical res urces, including cartography	14	4
Mining, geological and petroleum research	. 24	7
Transport and communications	74	21
Education		6
Broadcasting		1
Public health and medical care		7
Urbanization and housing	. 34	10
Loans to private concerns	. 16	5
Total	347.6 ² /	100

Source: Commissariat, Ge'ne'ral du Plan de Modernisation et d'Equipement, Rapport G4ndral de la Commission d'Etude et de Co-ordination des plans de modernisation et illequipement des territories d'Cutre-mer (Paris, 1954).

a/ Excluding 22 billion francs for expenditure by Ministry of Public Works on main line airfields.

Semi-public investment

Data on semi-public investment are fragmentary and are inadequate to determine the order of magnitude of investment from this sector of the economy. It is, however, clear that the investment has been substantial. In the Belgian Congo, for example, the gross public and semi-public investment of 6,770 million Belgian Congro francs in 1953 is estimated to have comprised fr 4,220 million in governmental investment (including fr 3,126 million on the development plan) and fr 2,550 million in semi-public investment. 7/ Credits opened by the Socidtd de Credit au Colonat et A l'Industrie amounted to fr 414 million from 1950 to 1953, inclusive, the annual total of credit rising from fr 55.5 million in 1950 to fr 94.5 million in 1951 and fr 140.7 million in 1952. There was a decrease in credits in 1953 to fr 123.6 million. In French territories there are a large number of joint agencies (Socidtds d'economie mixte) concerned with food production, minineral research and mining, development of electric power, etc.; these are, in part, financed by the Caisse centrale and play an important role in development in French territories.

In United Kingdom territories, particularly in West Africa, semi-public investment outside the development plans is assuming increasingly important proportions. This investment is chiefly effected through the agency of development boards which are financed largely by marketing boards. In Nigeria, for example, actual investment by regional production development boards from 1949 to 1952, inclusive, amounted to a total of over Z4 million and was estimated to increase to over £3 million in 1953 and to almost £5.5 million in the following year. Projects assisted in this way include small rubber and oil plantations, often in conjunction with co-operative societies, citrus plantations, and processing factories and oil mills. The construction of roads for transporting produce is also a function of the development boards. In Northern Rhodesia, the Industrial Loans Board invested ,C513,CCO in the period 1951 to 1953, of which over 40 per cent was in engineering and 30 per cent in building construction.

Private investment

Very little is known of the volume of private investment in the dependent territories of Africa; few figures are available and, owing to differences in definition they are not comparable for different countries.

In the Belgian Congo, gross private fixed investment amounted to 5,763 million Belgian Congo francs in 1950 and increased to fr 6,760 million and fr 9,580 million in 1951 and 1952, respectively, but decreased slightly in 1953 to fr 9,500 million. IV These figures refer to local investment only. External investment, public and private, amounted to fr 3,050 million and fr 2,370 million in 1950 and 1951, respectively. In 1952 and 1953 the balance of payments of the Belgian Congo indicated a net inflow of capital.

It was estimated that private investment in French North Africa between 1949 and 1952 was of the order of 350 billion metropolitan francs, a great deal

^{7/ &}lt;u>Bulletin de la Banque Centrale du Congo Beige et du</u> Ruanda-Un:ndi (Brussels), October 1954,

^{8/ &}lt;u>Bulletin de la Banque Centrale du Congo Beige et du Ruanda4Jrundi</u> October 1954

of which was raised on the French market. 9/ In Tunisia over 1,100 firms were established between 1950 and 1955 with a nominal capital of 4,590 million francs; during the same period, 534 established firms invested fr 25,685 million, making a total of fr 30,275 million, of which 80 per cent was in industrial enterprises. Since these figures are based partly on nominal capital they do not accurately measure the volume of actual investments. However, they indicate that private investment between 1950 and 1953 was greater than in the preceding three-year period, 1947 to 1949, when, on the same basis, it amounted to fr 19_1400 million, of which over fr 14 billion was for industry. 10/

In Madagascar private investment in 1949 amounted to CFA fr 650 million and rose in 1950 to CFA fr 944 million, then to CFA fr 1,219 million and CFA fr 2,437 million in 1951 and 1952, respectively. In French test Africa and in Togoland under French administration, private investment is estimated to have totalled CFA fr 6,832 million in the three years, 1950 to 1952, while in French Equatorial Africa and the Cameroons under French administration, the corresponding figures for private investment were CFA fr 6,125 million and 3,783 million respectively. 11/

Private investment in all United Kingdom dependent territories other than Hong Kong has been estimated at £70 million in 1953 and £150 million for the period 1950 to 1952; these amounts exclude loans raised in London, which for African territories alone amounted to £16 million in 1953, and loans by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. The share of African territories in these totals is not separately stated, but if it is assumed that their share intotal private investment is in the sare ratio as their share in total capital formation – about 45 per cent – private investment in British Africa over the period 1950 to 1953 may have been of the order of £100 million. In the three years 1950 to 1952, investments of \$46 million, of which \$23 million arose from undistributed earnings, were made in African dependent territories from private sources in the United States.

Investments in other countries

The Federation of Rhodiesia and Nyasalnnd came into being in September 1953, towards the end of the period under review, and involved modification of existing development plans in the former separate territories of Northern Rhodesia, Nyasaland and Southern Rhodesia. Certain items of development expenditure were embodied in a federal plan covering the period 1954/55 to 1956/57. The plan, which it is estimated will cost £70 million, contains provisions for a major hydroelectric scheme and for the expenditure of over £30 million on communications and transport. It is anticipated that expenditure in each of the years $195^4/_55$ and 1955/56 will amount to £24 million, leaving £22 million for the final year of the plan.

^{9/} Encyclupddie Mensuelle d'Outre-Ver (Paris), May 1953.

^{10/} Residence Gdnerale de France a Tunis, <u>Bulletin economique et scciale de la Tunisie</u> (Tunis), April 1954, page 34.

^{11/ &}lt;u>Industries et Travaux d'eutre-Ner</u> (Paris), February 1954. These figures are based partly on nominal capital of new establishments.

The balance of payments statement of these territories shows that from 1950 to the end of 1953 thenet inflow of capital from abroad amounted to £147 million. Of this, long-term official capital amounted to almost £42 million and long-term private capital to over £19 million; the former figure includes £5 million to Northern Rhodesia from United States foreign aid programmes for railway development, and drawings approximating £8 million from loans by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. The greater part of external private capital investment was from sterling sources, principally the United Kingdom, and was mainly directed towards expansion of the mining industry. It was estimated that current private investment in the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland from sterling sources was in the region of £20 million per annum. 12/ Private investment from dollar sources rose from the equivalent of El million in 1952 to £3 million in 1953 and was estimated at £5 million in 1954.

The considerable economic development of the Union of South Africa and its continuing industrial expansion in the period under review is reflected in the investment statistics. According to the official estimates of national accounts, gross capital formation was ESA 231 million in 1950, ESA 399 million in 1951, ESA 294 million in 1952 and ESA 377 million in 1953. In the same years net capital formation after allowing for depreciation, was ESA 166 million, ESA 327 million, ESA 216 million and ESA 292 million, respectively.

Although there is no development plan for the Union of South Africa similar to development plans in the dependent territories, the public sector accounts for a significant proportion of the total investment. Thus in the few years 1950 to 1953, of the total net investment of ESA 1,000 million, public investment accounted for ESA 386 million, or rather more than one third. Of this total of public investment ESA 100 million was in public corporations, including the plant producing oil from coal.

By far the greater part of this investment, approximately four fifths, has been financed from local sources. According to the estimates of the South African Reserve Bank private investment from abroad amounted to ESA 175 million during the period 1950 to 1953. In addition, approximately ESA 50 million was raised abroad on public account in the same period, the larger part being obtained from the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

^{12/} From speech by Federal Minister of Transport and Communications, 17 November 1954.

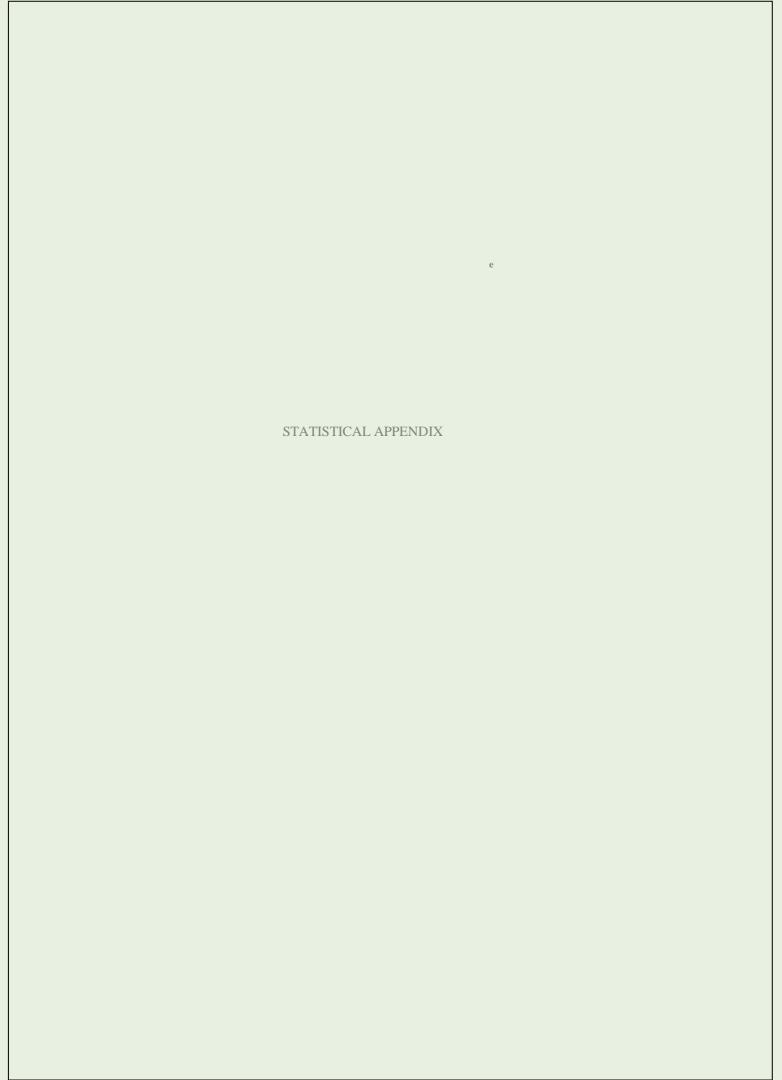


Table A. Output of Principal Agricultural Commodities* 1950 to 1953 (Thousands of metric tons)

Commodity and country	1950	1951	1952	1953
Cereals:	2.010	2 100	3,490	2 000
Barley	2,910	3,100	3,490	3,880
Algeria Ethiopia	8.0.4 600	568	1,043	910
French Morocco Tunisia		1,617 50	1,220 340	1,806 _{b/} 180-
Maize	5,990	5,280	6,690	7,250
French Morocco French West Africa Madagascar Union of South Africa	262 73	215 336 77 1,864	290 492 71 3,163	300
Millet and sorghum	10,670	11,480	11,780	***
Cameroons, French administration Ethiopia and Eritrea,	346	358	351	
Federation of French West Africa Tanganyika	1,453 2,299 516	1,691 2,368 610	2,614 914	. • •
Rice (paddy)	2,500	2,380	2,680	2,650
Belgian Congo French West Africa Madagascar Nigeria Sierra Leone	147 531 802 250 275	145 513 816 ••• 245	170 577 1,021 245	177 550 1,025 • • • 220
Wheat	3,280	3,200	3,660	3,840
Algeria	755 129 460	873 838 114 320 698	1,192 ₁ ,; 795 ⁻¹¹ 115 687 543	1 1C 1,115 122 580 576

Table A (continued)

Commodity and country 1950	1951	1952	1953
Fibres:			
Cotton (lint)	290	330	370
Bel gi an Congol /	44 23 30. 21 ^j V 62 9	53 34 40, 1821 83 14 58	50 30 35 e89 ¹ 2/ 9 80
Sisal215	245	260	270
Angola	23 42 19 148	25 38 19 165	39 22 168
Wool70	70	70	75
French Morocco o 6000 4 Uni on of South Africa 008088800 50	5 52	6 54	 58
Oil-seeds and oils:			
Copra120	90	90	•••
Gold Coast/	1	5	•••
Kenya/ 1 Mauritus	1 37 8 10	 1 45 5 12	 ' se
Zanzibar21	10	12	14
Cottonseed 66 ***** 6060 620	570	680	690
Belgian Congol 91 French Equatorial Africa 60 French West Africa * .12 Mozambique .56 Nigeria 37 Sudan	88 45 8 60 44 111 15 130	104 58 13 59 34f/ 162 28 135	 65 13 72, 47L/, 1 (8) 1/ 140

Table A (continued)

Commodity and country	1950	1951	1952	1953
Groundnuts	1,980	2,680		
Belgian Congo Cameroons, French	162	160		
administration French: Equatorial Africa	96	102		
French West Africa	704 66	877 50		
Nigeriali	430 32 12 140	850 46 20 1891V	1	
Union of South Africa	92	111	Gold Coast a	nd Togoland,
British administratio	n . 40	44	44	.01.
Olive oil	80	lco	80	1401/
AlgeriaSh/	101/	23 22	26 12	25b/
Libya/	42	6 46	lb/ 39	
Palm kernels/	324	292	302	320
Angola		4 39	6 42	5 39
administration French West Africa Nigeria Portuguese Guinea Sierra Leone	38 188 6	12 34 159 6 34	9 29 171 8 35	10 38 184 32
Palm oill"	331	309	339	360
Angola	14 125	12 128	11 147	7 159
administration French West Africa .• Nigeria	II 11	5 15 152	3 10 170	1 2 16 204

Table A (continued)

Commodity and country 1	950	1951	1952	1953
Sesame	270	150	180	
Belgian Congol	6	6	5	5
Ethiopia	26	35		• • •
French West /d rica	4	4	4	
Nigeriaf/	15	12	14	13
	168	38	63	
Tanganyika Uganda	5	5 26	6 29	000
ther commodities:				
Cassava	• 000	41041		
Belgian Congo 6, Cameroons, French	277	6,222	6,742	6,751
administration	802	598	701	
French Equatorial /*Africa .				
French West Africa 1,	124	1,527	1,544	
Gold Coast and Togoland, British administration .	512	512	512	
Madagascar		953	800	• • •
Nigeria 10,		900	000	000
Pemba and Zanzibar	.100	76	49	82
Ruanda-Urundi		1,463		1,805
Sierra Leone		36 711	311	37
Tanganyika	013	/	1,642	1,861
administration	230	245	330	
Citrus fruit	810	830	790	***
Algeria French Morocco	268 183	272 184	222121	1902
Tunisia	32	35	32	1902, 41
Union of South Africa		238	189	• • •
Cocoa leans	519	460	510	465 ¹ 2/
Cameroons, French				
administration	14, /	54	, ,	
French West Africa	60PJ	45	61E/	55
Gold Coast and Togoland,	266	214	251	214
British administration	200	214	251	214
British administration	112	109	111	99
Difficult duffillibriation	.112	10)	111	

Table A (continued)

Commodity and country	1950	1951	1952	1953
Coffee beans	281	308	316	350
Angola	. 47	55	55	64
Belgian C9ngo and Ruanda- UrundiLY Cameroons, French	. 34	36	31	35
administration Ethiopia French West Africa Kenya°	31 5 ⁸¹ / 10	16	12 36 61 12 26	32 85 12 41
Tanganyika •••• Uganda			17 37	15
Potatoes 1	,010	1,1080	1060	1,200
Algeria	. 90 111	246 86 144 232	240 72 149 212	242 165 374
Rubber 55	,372	73,152	73,660	77,978
Belgian Congo. 8 Gold Coast Cameroon ^o , French	,216 265	12,167 334	16,810 301	18,079 339
administration . ••••• Liberia 31	,621 ,626	35,356	2,479 35,860 18,418	
Sugar (raw)	1,435	1,340	1,500	1,580E/
Angola' ,	52 457 92 106 56 622	484 83 130 56	90	50 512 93 171, 40E/ 658
Sweet potatoes and yams	16,500	17,000	18,000	18,000
Belgian Congo Cameroons, French	378	386	363	309
——————————————————————————————————————	113 390 ,019		120 2,078	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •

Table (continued)

Commodity and country	1950	1951	1952	1953	
Sweet potatoes and yams (continued)					
Gold Coast and Togoland, British administration Madagascar	293	482 321	481 377		
British administration Ruanda-Urundi Tanganyika Toga land, French	9,973 1,028	1,387 244		1,141.2	
administration	264	295	347	• • •	
Tea	20	21	20	22	
Kenyal2 [/] Mozambique	7	7,_/ 3E/ 7 2	4 ¹ 2,		
Tobacco (unmanufactured)		130 13	30 130	130	
Algeria Northern Rhodesia Nyasaland Southern Rhodesia./ Union of South Africa	3 16 40	19 4 16 45 20	21 5 15 48 17	26 4 14 51 18	
Wine	1,840.	1,730	1,610	2,300	
Algeria	78	71 65, ₁	102	59 / 66 _. ,	120

Source: Food and 1:griculture Organization of the United Nations, Monthly
Bulletin of Agricultural and 2conomic Statistics and Yearbook of
Food and Agricultural Statistics (Rome), 1951, 1952 and 1953;
International Rubber Study Group, Rubber Statistical Bulletin
(London), February 1955. Unless otherwise stated, the years are crop years ending in the year given.

(Footnotes continued on following page)

Footnotes:

- 2/ Excluding Egypt.
- 12/ Unofficial estimate.

On farms and estates.

- (1/ Including Ruanda-Urundi.
- eJ Purchases for export.
- Ei Exports.
- g/ Recorded sales.
- 11/ Including Cameroons under British administration.
- I/ Village crops.
- 11/ Zdible oil only.
- 11/ Olive production from plantations, comprising about half of total production.
- 1/ Tripolitania only.
- mi Including French 2, quatorial Africa.
- 11/ Parchment coffee in Ruanda-Urundi.
- 2/ Estate production.
- 2/ Preliminary figure.
- 2/ Tal quel (raw and refined sugar included at actual weight).
- 1./ Twelve months ending April of year shown.

Table B. Output of Principal Minerals by Major Producers,

			19521	953 est	timate
1950 (Thousand	to 1953		0 011	5,035	
Commodity and country	1950	1951		1,900	
Metallic mineral ores (metal content):			839 104 448	60 24 321 2,730	
		135	198	458	
		131	120 76 3	338 117 3	
		478	467	536	
		7 224 247	11 136 261	11 202 324	
Antimony	10,745	18,551			
Algeria	1,354 689 24 367 8,311	957 69 203			
Bauxite	130				
French West, frica Gold Coast/ Mozambique					
Chrome	488				
Sierra Leone	3 260 225				
Cobalt	6,238	7,073	8,416	9,605	
Belgian Congo French Morocco Northern Rhodesia/	420	5,715 680 678	6,831 1 ₁ 000 585	8,278 650 677	
Copper	502	552	574	632	

Angola	2	2	2	2
Belgian CongoS/	176	192	206	214
Northern Rhode9ia/		314	317	368
South West Africa	11	11	14	12
Union of South Africa	33	33	34	35
Gold (kilogrammes) Bechuanaland 1	417,64	9 411,939	421,529	426,147
•		15		34
Belgian Congoili	10,557	10,958	11,470	11,540
Cameroons, French administration	226	169	81	32
2th1opia and Eritrea,				
Federation of/	1,141	766	658	• • •

	Table B (conti	nued)		
Commodity and country	1950	1951	1952	1953 estimate
Metallic mineral ores (metal content) (contin	ued): Gold			
(kilogrammes) (continued)				
French Equatorial Africa French West Africa Gold Coast Kenya Liberia ************* Madagascar Mozambique Nigeria ** Northern Rhodesia Sierra Leone Southern Rhodesia Sudan Swaziland Tanganyika Uganda/. * Union of South Africa Iron Algeria French M9rocco Liberia/	1,711 149 21,444 714 431 60 50 70 45 108 15,89 9 110 56 2,072 16 362,7 82 3,961 1,361	1,644 61 21,731 615 305 61 21 49 27 101 15,14 5 46 10 2,007 6 358,202 4,504 1,496 247 118 695	46 21,507 318 300/ 55 26 34 78 82 15,450 50 2,124 5 367,603 3 5,463 1,636 299 6C6	298 300t/ 51 36 21 103 44 15,585, 502/ 2,174 13 371,395 6,153 1,750 233 893
Sierra Leone Southern Rhodesia Spanish Morocco Tunisia Union of South Africa	711 29 583	26 574 492 856	703 36 572 525 1,086	848 35 603 563 1,228
Lead	119	150	183	189
Algeria Equatorial Africa French Moro Northern Rhodesia ^c / South West Africa, Spanish Morocco/ Tunisia	French 1 0cco 2 48 14 34	3 3 68 14 40 21 1	4 14 84 13 53 1 23	7 5 80 12 59 1 24
Southern Rhodesia Union of South i:frica		34 15 19	35 11 24	33 10 23

Table B (continued)

Commudity L2nd country	1950	1951	1952 1	.953 estimate
Metallic mineral ores (metal content) (cont	inued):		
Manganese	8	36 955	1,038	1,052
Angola Belgian Congo Gold Coast a/ French Morocco Northern Rhodesia South West Africa Union of South Africa	9 .376 .115	36 425 151 1 2	64 412 172 1	
Silver24	1	231	289	
Algeria. Belgian Congo British West Africa a/ g French Morocco Northern Rhodesia Southern Rhodesia South West Africa Tunisia Union of South Africa	.139 g/ 1 34 5 3 20	2 42 3 3 25	1 59 11 3	154 1 16 3
Tin concentrates	23,2	92 23,854	23,974	25,880
Belgian Congo d/ 13 Nigeria 8 Tanganyika a/ Uganda Union of South Africa .	,391 8 .99	8,676.8 62 118	,448 44 107	8,354 46
Tungsten	4	69 736	1,192	1,437
Belgian Congo d/ Nigeria Southern Rhodesia South West Africa Uganda a/ Union of South Africa .	3 . 35 4 .130	10 100	14 234 85	211 1c8 114
Vanadium		182	480	667
Northern Rhodesia South West Africa				541

Commodity and country	1950	1951	1952	1953 esti	mate
Metallic mineral ores (metal content)	(con	tinued):			
Zinc	1 3	3 1 5 1 8			
2 2 2				16 126	
Algeria	7 76 1 11 23 12 3	23 13	- 28 23 16	_	3 5 2 6 1 6 4
Non-metallic minerals:					
Asbestos	. 175	201	231	194	
French Morocco Southern Rhodesia Swaziland Union of South Africa .	65	71		27	
Coal h/ 30	,037	30,435	32,350	33,132	
Algeria Belgian Congo French Morocco Madagascar Mozambique Nigeria Southern Rhodesia 2 Union of South Africa	. 160 . 368 2 56 . 592 , 128	218 394 6 78 560 2,300	253 460 4 150 590 2,559	315 565 5 162 711 2,618	
Diamonds i/ (thousands of metric carats)	14,8	332 16,	533 18,4	108 19,7	76
Angola	,148 112 .125 .944 .656 .505	10,565 148 101 1,768 476 503 9	11,609 157 136 2,059 453 538 332	12,580 ilia 180 2,165 482 610 171	

Table B (continued)

Ccmmodity and country	1950	1951	1952	1953 estimate	
Non-metallic minerals (conti	nued):				
Petroleum (crude)	43	83	147	188	
Algeria			46 101	85 103	
Phosphate rock	6,079.	7,172	6,921	6,419	
Algeria	3,872.	4,716	3,954	603 4 ₁ C97 1,719	

Source: United Nations, Statistical Yearbook, 1954; United States

Bureau of Mines, Minerals Yearbook, Cobalt, 1953 (Washington, D.C.);

Colonial Geological Surveys, Statistical Summary of the Mineral
Industry, 1946-1952 (London, 1954).

- a/ Exports.
- b/ Twelve months ending 30 June of year stated.
- c/ Smelter production.
- d/ Including Ruanda-Urundi.
- e/ Unofficial estimate.
- f/ Twelve months ending 31 August of year stated.
- g/ Gold Coast, Nigeria, Sierra Leone.
- h/ Anthracite and bituminous coal, including semi-bituminous, but excluding lignite and brown coal.
- i/ Including industrial diamonds.
- j/ Drop in Tanganyikan exports was due to dispute regarding disposal of the diamonds; when resolved, this resulted in heavy exports in 1952.

Table C. Number of Cattle, 1949/50 to 1952/53 (Thousands of head)

Country	1949/50	1950/51	1951/52	1952/53
Algeria Bechuanaland Belgian Congo	. 1,050	810 1,027 637	846 1,052 664	864 725
Cameroons, French administra French Equatorial Africa	tion1,20 .1,650	001,200 1,680	1,200 1,751	1,200
French West Africa	360 612 5,742	5,969 335 621 5,673 2,028	6,997 390 639 5,748 2,135	6,998 395 665 6 ₁ c64
Northern Rhodesia		907 2,981	920 2,965	926 2,987
Sudan	417 11,513			421 11,655 483

Source: United Nations Statistical Yearbook, 1954. Figures give the count or estimate nearest to 1 January in the twelve months from 1 October to 30 September (for example, 1 January 1951 is shown as "1950/51").

a/ Including Togoland under British administration.

b/ On farms and estates.

Table D. Number of Sheep, 1949/50 to 1952/53 (Thousands of head)

Country	1949/50	1950/51	1951/52	1952/53
Algeria Bechuanaland Belgian Congo French Equatorial Africa a/	4,541 217 300 a/ 835	890	6,028 216 547 970	6,014
French West Africa a/	10,200	7,947	9,847	9,936
Gold Coast	520 2,852 10,375 315 5,600	316 2,855 10,960 306 5 ₁ 60c	2,858 13,923 317 6 ₁ 00c	464 2,866 537
Tunisia Union of South Africa	2,390 31,361	3,c6o 34,823	3,420 35,480	2,875

Source: United Nations, Statistical Yearbook, 1954. Figures give the count or estimate nearest to 1 January in the twelve months from 1 October to 30 September (for example, 1 January 1951 is shown as "1950/51").

a/Provisional.

	Та	able E.	Industria		n of Wage Earn usands of work	ners, 1949 to	1954			
Coqntry and Year	Agricul- ture and forestry	and	Electric power produa- tion	Building and con- struction	Manufac- turing	Corsnerce	Trans- port	Public Ad:ainis- tration	Domestic and other services	Total
				Indigenor	ıs Emp1 oyee:3	2f				
Felgian Congo: 1150		111.8 112. 3 111. 2 109. 0	oes	84. 8 100. 2 115. 7 115. f'	1 ¹ 4. 9 150. 4 158. 1 163. 8	62. 1 72. 7 72. 1 74. 0	62. 1 69. 1 67. 1	000 0. 4	255. 3 282. 6 302. 5 10847	962. 0 1, 030. 9 1, 077. 7 1, 10906
Gold Coast: -75070	19. 9	35. 7		20. 0	2. 1	15.8	10. 0	26. 9	0. 1	130. 9
1949 1950 1951 1952	20. 0 28. 9 25. 1	44. 3 44. 4 41. 0	1•7 4: 82/ 4. 2	13. 7 41. 8 44. 7	10. 1 11. 3 11. 8	19. 2 24. 0 23. 5	15. 2, 1 19. 1=// 18. 5 ² /	30. 5 31. 5 13. 4	9. 7 11. 8 14. 1	184. 3 217. 7 216. 3
Kenya: 1949 1950 1951 1952 1953	189. 2 i 201. 9 ² i 201. 2 ¹ / 202. 7 211. 3	8. 5 8. 3 5. 5 5. 9 4. 7	1. 3 1. 4 1. 1 000	16. 2 16. 3 12. 7 15. 6 11. 7	27. 6 36. 2 39. 5 43. 2 38. 6	18. 1 19. 3 15. 8 1708 18. 7	3. 7 5. 2 7. 8 7. 9 8. 0	92. 7. 2/ 95. 1 93. 4 ₀ 101. 67// 118. 1 ¹¹	18. 8 38. 5 34. 6 39. 9 40. 0	395. 0 422. 2 413. 6 434. 6 453. 0
Ni geri a: 1951 1952 1953	54. 2 ² /40. 6 47. 3	54. 9 61. 3/ 41. 6 ^{4/}	2. 5 4041	38. 8 33. 5	1().2	20. 1	14. 5 42. ⁶⁰ 7	61. 7 64. 0	18. 4	103. 4 308. 7
Eorthern Rhodesia: 1949 1950 1951 1952	39. 9* 44. 9g/ 56. 1-1			486 i:0 17. 0 17. 0	$\begin{array}{c} .\ 00_{51} \\ 20.\ 0 \\ 11.\ 4 \end{array}$	21. 2 40. 5	·i:3 7.4 7.6	909 _{5t/} 17 // 20. 4- /		009 158. 4 205. 9 234. 8
Southern Rho&sia: 1949 1950 1951 1952	00. 177. 0 181. 4 183. 1	58. 6 59. 5 62. 4 60. 8	2. 9 3. 1 3. 7 3. 5	33. 4 40. 5 37. 3 44. 8	46. 4 52. 6 56. 7 57. 3	19.0	10. 0	93.8		428 0 ₁ / 458: 64v 481 ¹ . 0
TaTi avi . ka: 195¹V 1953	144. 6 / 239. 2²/	20.0	40. 0011 00.	31.8 45.7 000	23. 7 26. 0'	2300 19. 4 •• 4	24. 5 23. 9 0. 0	50. 6 31. 4	31. 1 ² /51. 5.0.	349. 2 455. 4 448. 0
Uganda: 1950 1951 1952 1951 1954	51. 1x ¹ 64. 9t ^{//} 58. 0 r/ 5835, 56. 2E ¹	9. 3 8. 0 7. 0	0110 .00 00.	34. 6 34. 5 39. 1 39. 9 48. 4 45. 5	25. 2n/ 24. 4 ^{2/} 21. 6 25. 9 24. 0 24. 4	2. 5 2. 5 4. 4 4. 6 5. 1 6. 2	6. 4 6. 4 7. 1 7. 0 7. 1 7. 6	39. 41/ 19. 3 44. 5 47. 2 46. 8 48. 4	8. 0 7. 2 14. 3 16. 3 23. 8 28. 5	163. 1 171. 2 207. 1 206. 9 220. 5 224. 8
				Non-Indig	genous Emplo	oyees				
1. 9 12a: -1149 . 1950 1951 1952 1953	1. 3 1. 5 1. 9 1. 8 1. 8	0. 2 0. 2 0. 2 0. 3 0. 2	404 • • • • • • 4. 4°	2. 8 2. 9 2. 6 2. 5 2. 5	6. 2 7. 3 7. 3 7. 4 8. 2	7. 8 9. 2 9. 8 10. 6 11. 2	2. 0 1. 9 2. 0 2. 0 2. 2	12. 5 13. 0 13. 4 14. 1 16. 6	2. 5 2. 3 2. 4 2. 5 2. 8	5. 3 18. 3 39. 6 41. 2 45. 5
Northern Rhodesi a: 1949	1. 0 1. 2 1. 5	4. 2Y/ 4141, // 5.O,					1. 01// 1. 2/ 1. 3 ² /	 000 044 004		11. 9 14. 5 19. 5
pouthern Rhodesia: 1949 1950 4 1951	2. 6 2. 8 3. 0	2. 3 2. 4 2. 5	0. 7 ¹ / 0. 9k', 104"/	5. 8 6. 4 6. 7	7. 8 9. 7 10. 2	7. 1 8. 4 10. 1	3. 6 4. 0 4. 5	7. 6 8. 0 8. 6	3. 3 3. 8 4. 8	40. 8 46. 4 51. 4

Source: East African Statistical Department, Quarterly Economic and Statistical Bulletin (Nairobi), September 1954 and December 1954; Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Monthly Digest of Statistics (Salisbury), August 1954; Gold Coast, Colonial Reports, 1953, and Office of the Government Statistician, Digest of Statistics (Accra), February 1954; Northern Rhodesia, Labour and Mines Department, Annual Reports for the years 1950, 1951 and 1952 (Lusaka); Belgian Congo: Bureau of Economic Studies, La Situation Economique du Congo Beige, for 1951, 1952 and 1953 (Brussels); and United Kingdom, Information transmitted under Article 73 (e) of the United Nations Charter concerning the Territory of Nigeria for the years 1951, 1952 and 1953.

Including extra-territorial workers.

Including gas, water and sanitary services.

Including storage and communications.

Excluding government workers employed in agriculture and forestry, who have been allocated to the appropriate groups.

Including fishing.

July of year stated.

Metal mining only.

Including processing of agricultural products.

Excluding factory employment which was not separately classified of in 1950.

Wholesale and retail trade only; excluding enterprises employees operated by indigenous inhabitants.

Including casual labour, estimated at 12,C00 workers.

Including 253,CCO migrants from other countries.

Residual item, including employees engaged in education and in timbering and fuel production.

Including ginning, forestry and fishing.

Including electricity.

Cotton ginning, which provides only seasonal work, employed 18,CCO in 1950, 20,840 in 1951, 7,180 in 1952, 6,260 in 1953 and 7,750 in 1954.

Including refineries.

Including building and construction, manufacturing, commerce, transport (excluding railways), government and other services.

Railways only.

Table F. External Trade, 1950 to 1953
(Millions of United States dollars)

		Imports, c.i.f				Exports, f	.o.b.	
Period	Union of South Africa	French a North Afric	RestofAfrica 11/	Total 21	Union of South Africa	French North Africa	'Rest of Africa!/	Total
1950	859	910	1,988	3,757	707	636	1,933	3,276
1951	1,314	1,220	2,789	5,323	968	742	2,647	4,357
.1952	1,173	1,340	3,139	5,652	944	803	2,686	4,433
1953	1,191	1,240	2,967	5,398	938	778	2,79°	4,506
1950: First quarter. Second quarter Third quarter. Fourth quarter	178	219	492	889	144	148	489	781
	218	217	526	961	116	139	527	782
	265	199	535	999	192	146	534	872
	286	271	580	1,137	254	184	573	1,011
1951: First quarter. Second quarter Third quarter. Fourth quarter	303	241	627	1,171	258	100	671	1,095
	402	316	701	1,419	244	204	802	1,250
	357	313	724	1,394	208	146	666	1,010
	317	350	792	1,439	258	180	624	1,062
1952: First quarter. Second quarter Third quarter. Fourth quarter	326 320 264 267	354 328 309 ·548	780 797 795 775	1,46U 1,445 1,368 1,588	244 227 210 249	213 192 173 225	690 645 644	1,129 1,109 1,028 1,118
1953: First quarter. Second quarter Third quarter. Fourth quarter	296 298 304 293	286 309 295 359	716 741 726 798	1,298 1,348 1,313 1,430	237 225 224 252	199 191 173 206	687 667 737	1,133 1,103 1,064 1,195
1954: First quarter. Second quarter Third quarter Fourth quarter	316	307	7/29	1,352	221	180	/8 /	1,100
	524	322	759	1,405	204	212	745	1,161
	515	296	792	1,403	194	195	68 /	1,076
	285	546	791	1,422	253	220	755	1,228

Source: United Nations, Monthly Bulletin of Statistics.

Africa, excluding Egypt.

Table G. Distribution of Trade, a/ 1950 to 1953 (Percentage of African imports or

exports) <u>Imp</u>	oorts by Afric	can countr	ies	Exports	from Afric	can count	ries
Country 1950	1951	1952	1953	1950	1951	1952	1953
UEEC COUNCITES D/ • • 04.2	64.1	64.8	65.6	70.1	63.9	71.2	70.0
Belgium and Luxembourg 3.1 France 28.2 Germany, western 1.4 Italy 1.11 Netherlands 1.3 Portugal 1.5 United Kingdom other countries b/ 25.4 . 2.1	4.4 27.3 2.3 2.2 1.7 1.4 22.3 2.6	4.6 26.9 3.0 1.8 1.9 1.5 22.5 2.7	4.2 25.2 3.6 2.0 2.1 1.5 24.5 2.5	6.8 21.3 4.2 1.9 2.8 1.2 28.0 4.0	6.2 20.7 3.4 2.8 3.2 0.9 29.3 3.3	7.1 21.3 4.2 2.5 3.1 1.2 29.0 2.7	6.5 21.2 4.3 2.9 2.8 1.1 28.5 2.6
_	12.1	12.8	11.5	10.0	9.5	9.1	10.8
Dollar area 11.8 North American countries		12.2	10.9	9.8	9.5	8.8	10.6 0.2
Africa 10.3 Eastern Europe 0.7		9.8	0.6	11.9 0.5	0.6	11.8	12.1
Japan• 1.8	2.2	1.8	1.5	0.3	0.1	0.6	0.5
Other sterling area countries c/ 4.8	5.0	5.1	4.7	4.0	3.8	4.1	3.7
Rest of world 6.2	6.0	4.9	5.8	3.2	4.8	2.4	2.6

Source: Direction of International Trade, published jointly by the Statistical Office of the United Nations, Cue InLernaLional Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

- 2/ Countries included in the calculation accounted for 95 per cent of African imports and 99 per cent of African exports in the year 1952; data for Africa are exclusive of Egypt.
- b/ Countries in the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC) include the following in addition to those named: Austria, Denmark, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey.
- C/ Excluding countries in Africa on a sterling basis.

Table H. Distribution of Imports, 1950 to 1953

		Percentage of	imports	from	
Country and year	OEEC countries	Metropolitan country	Dollar	Sterling	Africa
Belgian Congo:					
1950	58.9 62.3 61.5 65.1	39.2 40.1 59.2 40.0	25.9 23.1 25.6 23.9	10.2 9.8 9.1 7.5	8.9 7.6 7.0 7.1
British Africa:					
1950	59.2 58.4 59:8 60.2	50.5 44.0 46.3 47.8	5.6 5.5 5.8 5.1	59.4 53.0 54.9 56.8	16.6 16.4 16.3 17.4
French North Africa:					
1950	78.5 76.9 78.4 77.1	71.0 68.1 68.4 66.7	8.2 7.9 9.0 7.3	1.9 2.2 2.4 2.7	6.4 6.5 6.0
Other French African countr	ries:				
1950	74.0 77.9 77.0 77.6	68.6 71.9 66.4 67.1	9.4 5.8 6.9 5.6	3.1 3.3 6.1 5.1	7.6 6.5 7.0 8.2
Portuguese Africa:					
1950	70.1 71.3 72.2 75.0	39.9 40.9 39.3 39.3	15.8 14.5 13.5 15.3	19.9 17.0 18.9 17.9	6.8 7.0 7.0 6.1
Union of South Africa					
1950	51.9 51.6 50.0 54.3	41.1 E/ 55;E1/ 34.5 aj 37.5 131/	23.4	41.3	9.1 8.2 9.2 8.8
Total:					
1950 1951 1952 1953	64.2 64.1 64.8 65.6		11.8 12.1 12.8 11.5	27.3 27.5	10.3 9.7 9.8 lo.4

Source: Direction of Trade, published jointly by the Statistical Office of the United Nations, the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Data for the United Kingdom are included in both "OEEC countries" and "Sterling area".

^{.!1/} Figures refer to the United Kingdom.

^{.12/} Africa, excluding Egypt.

Table I.Distribution of Exports, 1950 to 1953

Country and year	OEEC	Percentage of Metropolitan countries	export Dollar area	s to Sterling area	Africa
British Africa:					
1950	61.1 65.9 66.0 65.9	47.6 51.8 52.2 53.5	16.3 15.2 15.2 15.6	53.8 57.4 59.7 59.2	10.4 10.8 10.1 9.8
French North Africa:					0 4
1950 1951 1952 1953	84.5 82.6 82.1 81.6	57.0 55.6 56.7 60.8	2.1 2.2 2.5 2.6	9.8 12.9 10.6 9.3	8.4 9.1 9.0 9.6
Other French African countries					
1950 1951 1952 1953	80.9 79.2 81.0 79.3	70.1 69.4 68.1 65.7	2.7 2.6 3.2 4.3	3.4 3.5 2.1 2.2	7.8 10.6 11.5 12.5
Portuguese Africa:					
1950	72.4 75.1 65.4 61.4	31.8 22.1 32.3 25.1	11.4 10.7 21.1 26.0	11.5 15.5 15.4 17.5	10.3 9.8 9.4 7.4
Belgian Congo:					
1950	78.6 65.3 80.0 76.7	58.4 45.0 57.1 55.4	13.0 9.8 12.9 16.2	15.0 9.6 10.4 8.6	5.5 4.9 4.6 3.7
Union of South Africa:	<u></u>				
1950	61.2 59.7 64.3 64.0	27.9 It/ 26.4 !!' 30.4 a/ 30.2 _EY	9.6 11.1 8.2 7.9	51.6 29.5 33.0 32.9	22.5 22.2 21.4 22.7
Total: 12			100	20.0	11.0
1950 1951 1952 1953	70.1 68.9 71.2 70.0		10.0 9.5 9.5 10.8	32.0 35.0 35.2 32.2	11.9 12.3 11.8 12.1

Source: Direction of Trade, published jointly by the Statistical Office of the United Nations, the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Data for the United Kingdom are included in both "OEEC countries" and "Sterling area".

^{!/} Figures refer to the United Kingdom.

^{12/} Africa, excluding Egypt.

Table J. Pattern of African Imports 12/, 1951 to 1954 IV (Millions of United States dollars)

	Destination						
Commodity and year	Union of South Africa	French North Africa	Other	Total			
Food, beverages and							
tobacco:	16.5	105 6	7.77	207 E			
1951	16.5 52.8	125.6 151.0	179.4 190.7	321.5 574.5			
1953	38.5	130.1	211.1	379.7			
1954	16.7	74.4	118.7	209.8			
Basic materials:							
1951	42.1	35.2	22.1	99.4			
1952	29.9	28.8	22.9 21.2	81.6 82.9			
1953 1954	31.2	30.5 18.1	14.5	53.3			
	20.7	10.1	11.5	55.5			
Mineral fuels:	15.4	67.2	27.5	110.1			
1952	16.9	86.3	60.1	163.3			
1953	17.2	83.7	62.5	163.4			
1954	8.0	43.6	28.1	79.7			
Chemicals:							
1951	53.4	55.0	78.5	186.9			
1952 1953	49.4	60.0 58.8	88.0 83.0	197.4 189.1			
1951+	47.3 30.7	33.1	49.6	113.4			
Textiles:	50.7	0012	10.0				
1951	237.9	122.8	400.8	761.5			
1952	123.2	127.3	384.1	634.6			
1953	159.3	126.1	308.0	595.4			
1954	95.7	45.2	189.0	329.9			
retals and manufactures:							
1951	112.1 113.7	102.4 117.8	220.3 275.0	434.8 506.5			
1952 1953	85.0	83.9	233.5	402.4			
1954	43.8	44.9	117.2	205.9			
Machinery and transport							
equipment:							
1951	293.0	233.2	449.7	975.9			
1952	303.2	252.8	595.2	1,151.2			
1953 1954	379.8 185.3	233.0 137.8	618.3 349.9	1,231.1 673.0			
		137.0	3 10 . 0	0,3.0			
Other manufactures:	153.2	138.9	227.1	519.2			
1952	127.8	148.6	249.0	525.4			
1955	116.4	110.9	254.8	482.1			
1954	60.3	73.2	156.0	289.5			
Miscellaneoub:							
1951	11.8	59.7	59.0	110.5			
1952	10.6 21.9	77.2	49.6 76.8	137.4 176.3			
1953 1954	10.3	77.6 35.3	39.8	85.4			
Total:	10.3	55.5					
1951	935.4	940.0	1,644.5	3,519.9			
1952	807.5	1,049.8	1,914.6	3,771.9			
1953	896.6	934.6	1,869.1	3,700.3			
1954	471.5	505.6	1,062.8	2,039.9			

Source: Based on United Nations, Commodity Trade Statistics.

⁽²⁾ Exports from Canada and the United States, Japan and India; and countries in the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation, other than Greece, Iceland and Italy; to Africa, excluding Egypt.

^{/2/} First six months.

Table K. Indices of Prices of Principal Exports, 1950 to 1954 (January to June 1950 • 100)

			Agricult	ural pr	roducts				Miner	als	Textile fibres
Year Cocoa C	offee S	lugar Tea To				Groundnu	its Rubber				
Copper	Iron or	e Tin							111	101	105 114 112 120
Cotton	Sisal W	lool .							111 138 163	101 108 112	125 114 113 130 168 147 181 173 158 121 116 96
1950	120	107 102 9	9 98 99	129 10	6 100	174			160	126	125 96 72 112
1951	133	114 107 9								129	121 105 65 110
1952 . 147		132 113	3 110	83 95	114	74	80	121			
1954	1 2 2 216	1 1 2 9 164 11		103	7 3 1	58	13 105	118		101 99	128 118 111 139 173 139 141 183
1950:									126	108	218 153 177 275
Third quarter147	115		97	98	152	110	103	205	137	108	177 167 191 191
Fourth quarter135	111	106	95	98	163	114	98	289	146	108	136 1j0 188 116
1951:									142	108	135 156 166 114
First quarter141	116	106 114		100	184	141	98	542			
Second quarter143 Third quarter131	114 112	107 9 110 8		100	166 161	111 92	98 102	263 242	142	108	154 137 178 92
Fourth quarter131	114	106 8		109	120	93	117	226	150 179	108 112	159 128 119 89 159 117 95 100
1952:		100							179	119	159 104 81 105
	115	105 8	. 00	114	67	77	124	195			
First quarter134 Second quarter142	115 111	105 8 111 7		114	66	77 69	124	147	170	110	1 5 0 0 6 7 5 1 0 5
Third quarter133	114	112 8		114	82	70	120	137	179 163	118 127	159 96 75 105 127 98 71 116
Fourth quarter120	113	112 8	9 86	13.4	83	103	119	126	150	129	105 99 72 110
1953:									149	129	109 101 72 115
First quarter118	119	111 9	7 111	114	65	126	118	121			
Second quarter127	118	112 8			74	107	116	105	146	129	115 105 74 110
Third quarter146	127 125	114 8 112 9		101	83 71	99 112	114 106	100 89	153	129	125 106 70 118
Fourth quarter164	172	112 9	5 94	92	/ _	112	100	09	155 177	129 129	1 2 4 1 0 6 6 3 1 1 1 120 104 55 99
?IV!:											
First quarter206	164	111 111 112 111		0.0	55 60	106 93	107 108	84			
Second quarter237 Third quarter237	181 164	112 11.			63	93 85	114	100 111			
Fourth quarter182	147	111 154			56	91	142	141			

Source: United Nations, Monthly Bulletin of Statistics; United Kingdom, Board of Trade Journal, for 1953 and. 1954 (Lordon).	Source: United Nations	Monthly Pullatin of Statistics	Inited Kingdom	Poored of Trado Tournal	for 1053 and	1954 (London)
	Source: Utilized Nacions,	monumy butterin or statistics	- omicea Kingaom,	BOATO OF TRADE TOURIAL,	101 1933 a.m.	1994 (LOIROII).

Table L. Indices of Quantum of Imports and Exports of Selected African Countries, 1950 to 1953

(19)48 = 100)

Country						Imp	ports	
±	1950 1951	1952	1953		19	50 19	51 1952	1953
Algeria a/	111	131	129 180 204	124 192	129	131 132	142 134 122	137
Angola Belgian Congo 2/ Cameroons, French administration a/	89	130 153	168	162 123	108	111 107	118	126 134
Ethiopia 12/ c/	97	114	139	194	87	101	102	137
French Equatorial Africu French Morocco	153 1G8	190 131	197 136	153 140	83 121	92 127	94 130	96 141
French West Africa a/	117	152 168	135 168	139 200	103 123	97 111	105 108	124 117
, Kenya b/ e/	100	115	, 122	114	106	113	131	106
dagascar Nigeria b/ d/ Southern Rhodesia d/ e/ f/	145	120 159 155	177 151 206 148	166 209 134	123 127	107 118 114	100 123 123 136	117 137 139
Sudan		121	137 195	194		118	153 104	157
Tanganyika 12/ e/	131	115 176	122 150	114 138	128 130	140	185 143	176 191
Tunisia Uganda b/ e/ Union of South Africa b/ d/		115 99	96 98 94 122 85	4 96 114 92	143 115	286 157 127	194 196 161 131	196 147 140

Source: United Nations, Statistical Yearbook, 1954.

121 National exports.

c/ Beginning 1952, Ethiopia and Eritrea.

e/ Exports include gold.

Ei General exports.

a/1949 = 100.

sl/ General imports.

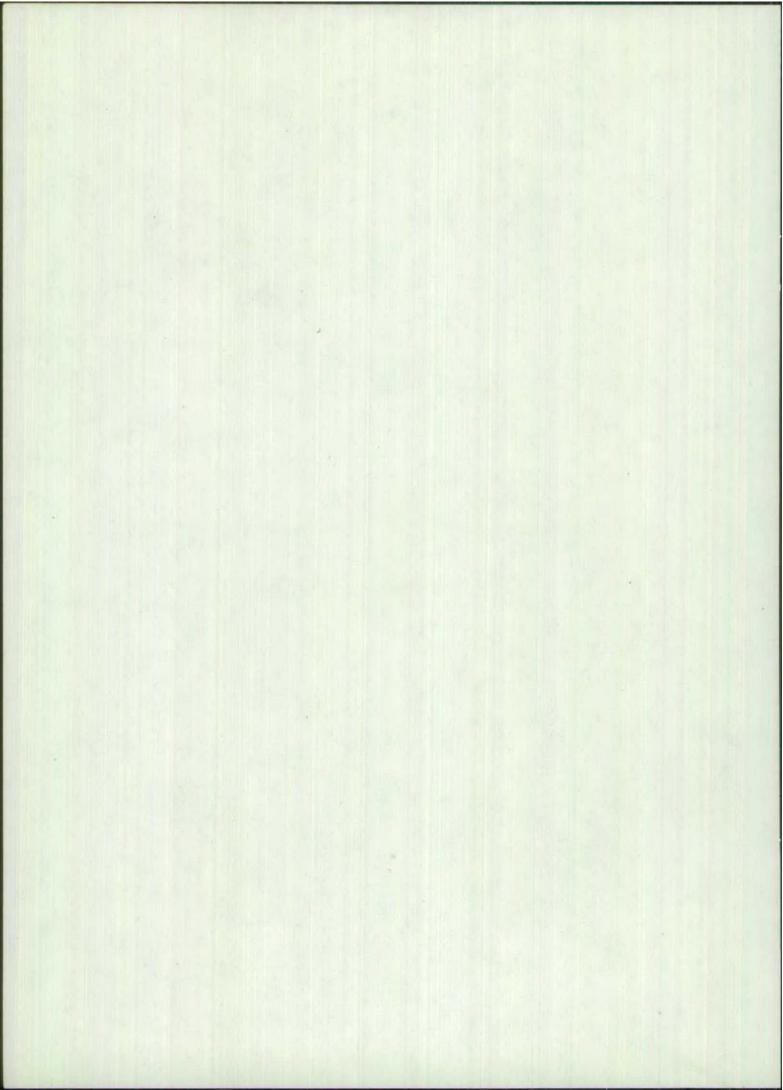
Table M. Indices of Unit Values of Imports and Exports and Terms of Trade, 1950 to 1953 (1948 = 1C0)

erms of	f trade	
0 1951	1952	1953
3 203	196	218
5 126	118	122
7 159	159	187
8 1C8	107	1C4
1 121	112	118
4 177	150	150
0 121	119	116
0 117	114	121
	115	95
5 165	140	118
		157 118
1 2 1 3 . 6	10 121 20 117 14 120 35 165	10 121 119 20 117 114 14 120 115 35 165 140 67 202 184

IVILIUS,

Source: Based on Unite Statistical Yearbook, 1954. The terms of trade index is obtained by dividing the export unit value index by the import unit value index; a rise in the terms of trade index therefore reflects an improvement in the terms of trade.

- a/Base 1949 = 1CC.
- b/ Beginning 1952, Ethiopia and Eritrea.
- c/ National exports.
- d/ General imports.
- 2/ Exports include gold.
- f/ General exports.



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