# AFRICAN SURVEY

HIS HIGHNESS THE MAHARAJA OF MYSORE



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BY

HIS HIGHNESS THE MAHARAJA OF MYSORE

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#### CHAPTER I

## THE PRESENT PATTERN OF INDO-AFRICAN RELATIONS

The purpose of this brochure is to review the nature of relationship that has existed between India and the African Continent (other than the Union of South Africa) in the past and then to point out the need for fostering closer economic, cultural and political relations between them. Particular attention is given to inter-tropical Africa. This brief note would have amply served its purpose if it stimulates discussion on a matter of vital importance to our international position, especially in the Near East. It needs no emphasis that the study assumes special importance in the context of the political, economic and social regeneration of the African countries on the one hand, and, on the other, the growing importance of India's role in international affairs.

Africa, with an area of 11.5 million sq. miles and a population of about 150 million, is the second largest of the five principal continents. Surprisingly, however, this Continent continued for long to remain in virtual isolation and had only meagre contacts with most countries of the rest of the world, especially the Indian sub-continent. For instance, the trade relationship, which is an index of ties between two countries, has always been rather limited between India and the African countries, although there was ample scope for development. The cultural contacts have been even fewer. The reasons for this state of affairs are not far to seek.

A major part of Africa remained a "dark continent" practically till the end of the last century. Even now vast stretches of inter-tropical Africa remain to be explored. The Sahara Desert in the north, several river deltas not so fit for navigation, a difficult and impenetrable coast-line,

numerous forests and bushes have all been responsible for this pre-colonial isolation.

With the advent of colonialism in the latter half of the nineteenth century, the European powers, impelled by the needs of a pressing industrial economy in their home-land, sought to find rich areas which would feed their industrial populations and also provide the raw materials and minerals for their industries. Consequently, the pattern of economic development of these African colonies was planned in such a way as to suit the interests of the colonial powers. The result was an economic situation where these African colonies were tied to the European markets in regard to the supply of their agricultural produce, minerals, etc. On the other hand, the surplus industrial and consumer goods of the European countries were dumped on the African markets. It is only recently that to a small extent trade has developed between the U.S.A. and African territories.

As a result of the colonial rule, culturally also the African Continent was influenced to a great extent by the West.

The commercial and cultural contacts between Africa (barring South Africa) and India have not been very significant owing to factors described above. But it will be agreed that the time has now come when we might appropriately cultivate closer contacts in the commercial and cultural spheres. Thanks to the emergence of a number of favourable factors, the attempt to establish stronger ties will be greatly facilitated.

In a general way, the African Continent is assuming special importance of late and the attention of the world seems to be focussed on Africa from a vital point of view, viz., international strategy. It is felt in several circles that Africa's importance as a base of international defence will be unchallenged. Not only politically, but economically as well (as we will see later), Africa will become more important in world affairs. In the unfortunate event of a third World War, Africa is likely to play a very important

role. On such occasions, however, it may not be possible, because of transport difficulties, for all produce grown there to be absorbed in Europe or the U.S.A. Taking all these factors into consideration, it seems wise to look ahead and see if India could not usefully establish firm relationship with Africa for the mutual benefit of both.

An important favourable factor in the situation is the basic goodwill that prevails between India and Africa, thanks chiefly to the work of Mahatma Gandhi in South Africa. The moral and spiritual leadership which he has bequeathed is a natural unifying force between the two countries and in fact many Africans look to India for moral support in their aspirations for political emancipation and the establishment of self-rule.

There are also many Indians who have settled down in Africa, and these people provide the necessary medium for the establishment of a firmer relationship. Unfortunately Indians have not had a fair deal in many parts of Africa. Free India must be able to tackle anew all the delicate issues involved in the settlement of her countrymen in Africa, secure equality of opportunity, create for them an atmosphere of cheer and hope and also use them for the development of Africa and for the building up of close Indo-African ties. It may be hoped, that with the enlightened foreign policy we have been pursuing, these objectives may be tactfully achieved. In moulding her external affairs, India has followed no narrow paths but has stuck to a path of farseeing statesmanship, calculated not merely to preserve and promote her national interests, but also to secure for her the lasting friendship and esteem of the outside world. especially of those nations that have been, like our own. so long in the grip of exacting totalitarian imperialism, suffering from all the consequent economic and social ills. But, apart from what could be done at Governmental level. there is a paramount need on the part of the Indian settlers in Africa to associate themselves completely with local interests and work with the local people for the welfare and

betterment of one and all. In this connection, it will be appreciated that a more favourable atmosphere will be created for all the people to work hard if the unwanted flame of racialism is extinguished once and for all in the larger interests of world peace.

It should be noted that climatic factors and the prevalence of certain tropical diseases place a definite limit on European enterprise especially in the interior parts of Africa. Given a chance and proper opportunity, Indian settlers should be able to play an important role in the development of Africa.

To an increasing extent, several colonial Governments themselves are interesting themselves in economic betterment of the African countries. It may be contended that as almost the whole of Africa, except the Union of South Africa, Egypt, Ethiopia and Liberia, is under the control of one or the other of the great European powers in one form or another, the future economic progress of African colonies, as long as colonial rule survives, is dependent on the policies of the concerned colonial powers. Though in parts like South Africa, Kenya and South Rhodesia, preferential and segregation policies continue to favour the white races, there are many other colonial areas where there is freedom for the natives. For instance, the colonial powers have undertaken schemes of agricultural expansion in collaboration with local interests. In such areas where the Governments have adopted a liberal policy, the Africans have not been slow to take advantage of the many opportunities that have come their way.

Yet another fact which should interest us about Africa is the availability of several basic minerals, which include copper, tin, cobalt, manganese, zinc, cadmium, uranium, gold and diamonds. Already the supplies of copper, tin and industrial diamonds from the Union of South Africa, Southern Rhodesia, Belgian Congo and Nigeria form a noticeable share of the world's supplies. In Katanga is the richest copper ore yet found. Nigeria has become an

important world producer of tin. High grade alluvial tin in Southern Nigeria is mined on an extensive scale since 1902. French Barbary now controls the world's phosphate market. When it is realised that vast extents of the African Continent are but very imperfectly explored for minerals, for want of capital, transport facilities, technical labour and other factors and that the land is very rich in minerals as gathered from such geological surveys that have so far been made, it is easy to visualise the great part that the Continent is likely to play in the future industrial progress of the world.

Africa is on the threshold of an era of vast economic and commercial development and it will be to the mutual advantage of both India and Africa to foster close economic and political ties. With our problems of shortage of food and of raw materials, it is for consideration whether it is not possible to meet some of the requirements by developing better trade relations with Africa. The Indian Ocean as a natural physical link between India and Africa is there to emphasise the natural economic and cultural link between us.

The experience gained as a result of World War II, in regard to our supplies of raw materials, foodstuffs and minerals and its consequent reaction on our internal economy, as also the loss of our pre-war customers for many of our articles of export must inevitably lead to an entirely new approach in regard to our foreign trade objectives and planning. Independent India, which seeks to achieve an all-round economic development as quickly as possible, has to realign her position in the world markets in a way which will help the achievement of such a position. In other words, India has to free herself as far as possible from a scheme of international commerce, which is linked up with the uncertain economic and fiscal policies of certain countries, which are likely to be threatened in the event of a war or an emergency. Fresh trade channels have to be evolved along routes which offer the advantages of continuity, development and mutual benefit.

However, it must be noted that in trying to increase trade with Africa, India will have to face the competition of many of the Western countries (including West Germany) and Japan. West Germany and Japan are fast developing their trade with Africa with their rapid achievement of high levels of production. In the case of Western Metropolitan Powers, the competition will be particularly severe. In view of the large-scale investment of capital in the African colonies by these Western countries, they can always hope to expect satisfactory reciprocal terms from Africa. These considerations, however, need not deter us from seeking to establish what is desirable, essential and feasible.

Thus, the need for fostering trade relations between India and Africa will be generally agreed. The Government of India must consider the desirability of entering into economic pacts with the colonial and other Governments of the Continent. Besides, a comprehensive report by an expert Commission on all the problems connected with the Indo-African relations would appear to be of immense value. Such a survey will be particularly useful to explore the possibilities of fresh markets. The Indian Government have in the past made occasional surveys of foreign markets, such as the one done by the Gregory Mission. It is very likely that the African people will welcome Indian and other Asian help in exploring the possibilities of trade development.

But any expert survey of the African regions cannot by its very nature be merely economic in character; there are many other interesting experiments in the sociological, botanical and educational fields which have been carried on with success and which may be of some benefit to us in the carrying out of our plans for developmental activities. For example, National Parks in Belgian Congo constitute a very interesting feature. They are vast reserves of virgin forest lands, which serve not merely as wild life reserve, but are used as fields of valuable scientific research, in plant and animal life, and in the evolution of satisfactory breeds of cattle, etc. They seek to provide protection against all the

effects of man's intrusion of nature. The Ineac in Belgian Congo is another interesting institution, which is devoted to a practical study on scientific lines of the many researches relating to the economic life of the region. It co-ordinates virtually all the biological research in plants and animals, carried on in the colony. Its work includes selection, improvement and introduction of all plants of possible economic value, reafforestation, soil maintenance and care, new food crops for natives, acclimatisation and improvement of cattle and tropical veterinary research. It makes a study of the introduction of new agricultural industries such as silk-work.

The large welfare activities carried out by the Union Miniere, a colossal industrial organisation in Katanga, would also be an interesting study.

Again, some of the African administrations have, in recent years, attempted to tackle the problem of developing vast tracts of inaccessible areas with peoples in a low stage of economic development and some of these experiments at least may well be worth a study, in so far as they offer a parallel to our problems in areas like Assam and in malnad tracts in Mysore.

#### CHAPTER II

#### THE PATTERN OF INDO-AFRICAN TRADE

This chapter attempts to study the extent to which the trade of India with any of the African countries has been persistent and enduring or shifting and transient in character, both in respect of the commodities traded and the annual value of the trade. The more permanent and the more progressive the trend of trade in any commodity with any particular country, the more important it is to see that the position is improved. On the other hand, any decline in a desirable line of trade should also be carefully investigated with a view to finding out measures to revive and strengthen the trade.

#### Value of Trade

Imports.—The annual value of Indian imports from and exports to the African countries since 1909 is shown in Table I.

Prior to 1914, the annual value of imports from the African countries was about Rs. 3.5 crores. The value of imports at Rs. 4.9 crores in 1933-34 represented a small but significant improvement despite the great economic depression which affected both the quantum of trade and prices. The improvement in the value of imports continued in the subsequent years upto 1940-41, the range of variation, however, being small between Rs. 5.7 crores and Rs. 8.3 crores.

During the war years, there was a sharp rise in the value of imports which shot up from Rs. 7·0 crores in 1940-41 to Rs. 29·2 crores in 1944-45. This sizeable increase was accounted for by greater imports of building materials, raw cotton and salt from Egypt, ivory, spices and sodium compounds from Kenya, Zanzibar and Pemba and a group of miscellaneous articles from South Africa. During the postwar and post-partition years also, the upward trend in the

TABLE I

Indo-African trade: annual value

(In crores of Rupees)

Year	Imports from Africa	Exports to Africa	Total Trade
1909–10			
to			
1913–14	3.5	5.9	9.4
1933–34	4.9	4.5	9.4
1934–35	5.7	5.0	10.7
1935–36	$6 \cdot 2$	5.4	11.6
1936-37	$6 \cdot 0$	4.5	10.5
1937–38	8.3	4.9	13.2
1938–39	7.7	4.6	12.3
1939–40	6.8	$7 \cdot 0$	13.8
1940-41	$7 \cdot 0$	9.5	16.5
1942-43	16.2	$19 \cdot 7$	35.9
1943-44	$17 \cdot 7$	19.0	36.7
1944-45	29 · 2	$19 \cdot 7$	48.9
1949-50	$67 \cdot 0$	36.0	103.0
1950-51	$70 \cdot 3$	36.0	106.3
1951-52	80.0	48.3	128.3
1952-53	$47 \cdot 0$	39.0	86.0
1953-54	58.6	38 • 4	97.0

value of imports was maintained; the value during 1951-52 was Rs. 80·0 crores as compared with Rs. 29·2 crores in 1944-45. In 1952-53, however, there was a sharp decline, mainly due to lower imports of raw cotton. There has since been some recovery in 1953-54.

Exports.—Between 1913-14 and 1938-39, the trend in the value of Indian exports to African countries was in contrast to the trend in the value of imports. Whereas the value of imports rose during this period, that of exports fell from Rs. 5.9 crores in 1913-14 to Rs. 4.6 crores in 1938-39. Since 1939-40, however, the annual value of exports was upward; during the war years it stood around Rs. 19 crores; in the post-war and post-partition years the value has more

10

TABLE II
Indian imports from and exports to Africa
(In thousands of Rupees)

1944-45	29,656 1,73,793 84,010 3,142 9 
1942–43	22,446 81,179 47,904 10,830 
1938–39	2,319 21,889 21,889 51,293 1,580 
1935–36	3,128 15,301 34,999 4,460 35 4,376 8 
1933–34	2,592 6,761 24,778 3,223 1,5 2,477 198 367 40,411
Pre-war 1909–10 to 1913–14 average	1,315 2,617 3,597 597 26,422 41 690 5
	Imports into India from:  Union of South Africa  Egypt Kenya, Zanzibar and Pemba  Portuguese East Africa  Mauritius  Tanganyika  Italian East Africa, Eritrea and Somaliland  Reunion  Total

1,18,814	31,430	10,112	:	:	:	1,97,295	
1,05,121 36.807	38,360 4,994	11,276	:	:	• •	1,96,558	
14,922	5,364 4,965	8,620	:	:	:	46,121	
15,647	5,857	8,794	1,220	1,379	231	53,746	
12,049	5,735	6,653	1,172	191	15	44,894	
10,219	6,908	12,529	3,132	1,257	820	58,832	
dian Exports to: Union of South Africa Egypt	Kenya, Zanzibar and Pemba Portuguese East Africa	Mauritius	Tanganyika Italian East Africa, Eritrea and	Somaliland	Reunion	Тотаг	

27,66,28	13	•	10,88	130	3		1,14,58	:		•	•	5,17	35,09	58,58,31
15,12,24	23	51	1,21	4 c	1	• 1	2,05,16	٠	:	:		:	2,14	47,02,01
40,52,76	46	1,36	5,49	16	1	-	16,52	•	12	:		:	3,17	80,02,90
32,86,68	2,07	2	16,25	8/	•	:	1,06,96	4,43,90	15	•	66	1,00	8,66	70,32,30
40,23,74 4,54	: :	•	1,17,44	• 11	•	•	23,53	3,00,00	7,19	3	5,36	6,97	1,04	67,04,08
: :	: :		* * - *	•		:	ipun	:	•	:	;	;	•	TAL
::	: :	•	:	•	:		ında-Uı	•	•	:		;	:	GRAND TOTAL
Egypt Tripoli (Libya)	Tunis Algeria	Canary Islands	Morocco (Fr.)	Morocco (Spain)	French West Africa	Liberia	Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi	Portuguese East Africa	Madagascar	Reunion	Italian West Africa	French Somaliland	Ethiopia	GR

during the years 1949-50, 1950-51, 1951-52 TABLE IV

The value of Indian merchandise exported to the African States during the years 1949–30, 1930–31, 1931–32, 1952–53 and 1953–54 (In thousands of Rupees)	ı merchandi.	txə əs	oorted to the African 1952–53 and (In thous ands	frican States dur 53 and 1953–54 usands of Rupees)	uring the years 4 es)	1949–50, 1950	-51, 1931-52,
States	S		1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54
	V						
Gambia	;		5 83	11.58	14.85	4.57	09'6
Sierra Leone	: :	j	66.08	72,35	65,74	54,86	40,85
Gold Coast		:	1.06.71	1.11.80	1,79,68	1,40,91	98,76
Nigeria	:	Ċ	4,20,54	4,62,49	7,08,91	6,42,80	8,48,25
South-West Africa	:	:		•	∞	• •	-
Union of South Africa	;; ::	:	17	80	49	1,72	66
Basutoland	:	:	7	8	3,45	:	:
Swaziland	:	:	3,81	1,21	12,36	26	:
North Rhodesia	•:	•	49,63	37,27	44,79	49,43	97,46
South Rhodesia	:	:	91,32	1,68,62	2,78,47	1,39,64	1,96,00
Zanzibar and Pemba	:	:	27,39	33,32	22,85	43,68	57,14
Kenya	:	:	6,19,27	6,38,16	8,82,72	6,54,46	5,99,90
Uganda	•	:	19,21	23,17	35,38	70,93	81,44
Tanganyika	:	•	2,34,65	2,09,31	2,62,33	3,66,79	3,36,66
Nyasaland	:	•	51,53	60,83	37,64	69.86	1,26,54
Somaliland	:		3,74	11	1,66	1,42	1,87
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	·		5,10,78	4,08,65	7,71,77	6,14,14	5,11,43
Mauritius	•	:	, 1,65,54	1,12,66	1,32,40	1,27,87	71,65
Seychelles	•		5,58	6,81	3,51	11,10	9,32
	TOTAL	:	23,81,85	23,59,22	34,59,08	30,23,27	30,87,87

3,46,96 17,37 27,71 3,50	34,80 2,80 51,50 1,34 8,88	20,63  1,06  8,06	2,77 3,51 2,25,36	38,44,74
5,68,23 16,48 34,73 4,29	58,53 72,92 1,53	38,13  1,23  15,35	8,62  4,49 32,18	38,99,55
6,35,32 27,87 35,07 18,38	76,29 76,29 2,27,52 3,12	17,14 61,80 13 33,29	37,53  84,35 1,08,75	48,26,46
5,73,57 16,90 18,63 45,00	1,55 44,49 16,18 85,59 4,10	33,69 22,03 1 51,86 10,32	3,74 54,74 1,29,80 1,32,85	36,04,98
7,86,40 12,64 • 22,02 15,33	30 67,66 14,10 66,99 1,90	5,89 21,21 12.32 1,20 62,11 19,13	17,40 77,00 10,28 17,96	36,13,69
Egypt Tripoli (Libya) Tunis	Morocco (Spanish)  Morocco (French)  Morocco (Tangier)  French West Africa  Liberia	French Equatorial Africa  Belgian Congo  Portuguese West Africa  Portuguese Guinea  Portuguese East Africa  Madagascar	Reunion Italian East Africa French Somaliland Ethiopia	GRAND TOTAL

than doubled, the figure for 1951-52 being Rs. 48·3 crores as compared with Rs. 19·7 crores in 1944-45. In 1952-53 and 1953-54, however, there was a decline in the value of Indian exports to Africa.

It must, however, be borne in mind that not all the rise in the value of imports or exports is due to an absolute increase in the *volume* of trade; a good part of it is no doubt due to the increase in export and import *prices* since the war years.

It is noticed that the value of Indo-African trade, as percentage of India's total trade, has been showing a decline during the last three years as compared with the war period. The Indo-African trade now represents 8–9 per cent. of the total trade of India as compared with 10.6 per cent., 17.0 per cent., 18.3 per cent., 15.4 per cent. and 12.7 per cent. in the five years from 1941-42.

#### Direction of Trade

Tables II, III and IV give the respective share of the participating African countries in the foreign trade of India. Table II shows that, in the earlier decades of the century, the number of African countries which had appreciable trade with India were rather few. The trade with all these few countries except Mauritius had been kept up or further developed in recent years. In the case of Mauritius, imports into India from that country have almost been negligible in recent years. The heavy imports in the early decades of the century from Mauritius consisted mostly of sugar. Subsequently, thanks to the growth of the sugar industry in India, imports from Mauritius have become insignificant. However, Indian exports to Mauritius have greatly increased.

The tables mentioned earlier reveal several significant features regarding Indo-African trade. For instance, the trade of Irdia with the Union of South Africa in the last few years is not quite in keeping with the long-term trend. South Africa was a long-standing customer for India's jute manufactures, vegetable oils and a number of miscellaneous

articles. It was also the sole supplier to India of barks for tanning. The shrinkage in the trade between the two countries is a mutual loss.

Trade of India with the British territories in Africa has developed quite well. Out of the total value of Indian exports to Africa in 1949–50, 1951–52 and 1953–54 of Rs. 36·0 crores, Rs. 48·3 crores and Rs. 38·4 crores, respectively, the British territories in Africa accounted for Rs. 23·8 crores, Rs. 32·8 crores and Rs. 30·9 crores.

A number of African countries are becoming important from the point of view of Indian exports. Apart from Egypt, which imports about Rs. 6–7 crores worth of Indian merchandise annually, Kenya, Nigeria, Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Tanganyika, Mauritius, Ethiopia, Portuguese West Africa and French West Africa are assuming considerable importance.

As regards Indian imports, in the post-war years, Kenya, Egypt, Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, Portuguese East Africa and Tanganyika have gained relatively greater importance (see Table III).

#### Commodity Composition of Trade

Imports from Africa.—A study of the commodity composition of Indo-African trade reveals a changing pattern in respect of imports as well as exports.

Among imports from Africa, cotton is the most important, constituting in recent years 75–80 per cent. of the total imports from Africa. Egypt, Kenya and, to a small extent, Tanganyika and Anglo-Egyptian Sudan have been important sources of supply of raw cotton to India. The increase in the value of cotton imports has been remarkable. From a meagre amount of Rs. 4·5 lakhs in the pre-1914 period, the value rose modestly to Rs. 3–6 crores between 1933–34 and 1940–41 and rose further to Rs. 21·8 crores in 1944–45. In the post-partition years, imports of cotton rose sharply, from Rs. 52·2 crores in 1949–50 to Rs. 71·4 crores in 1951–52. Though the value of imports of cotton has risen, there has not been a commensurate rise in the

volume of trade; in fact, the quantity fell from 123 thousand tons in 1949–50 to 108 thousand tons in 1950–51 and further to 85 thousand tons in 1951–52. Thus, the rise in the value of trade has been largely due to higher prices. In 1952–53, there was, however, a sharp decline in the value (and also volume) of imports, amounting to Rs. 37·8 crores only. In 1953–54, there was some recovery to Rs. 47·9 crores.

In respect of other imports, sugar from Mauritius and coal and coke from South Africa and Portuguese East Africa ceased even by the middle of the 'thirties. Commodities like barks for tanning, building materials, salt and cigarettes, etc., which were imported chiefly from the Union of South Africa and Egypt, were discontinued after 1944–45. Similarly, imports of hides and skins and ivory from Kenya, Zanzibar and Pemba have also been stopped in recent years.

The supply of fruits and vegetables from Portuguese East Africa, which was stopped during the war years, was revived thereafter. In 1951–52, nearly 35 thousand tons of cashewnuts, dates and almonds valued at Rs. 2·8 crores were imported. In 1953–54, the value of such imports was higher at Rs. 3·68 crores.

Another item of importance on the list of Indian imports is sodium compounds, the chief supplier of which is Kenya. The value of import of this item has been steadily rising from about Rs. 4–6 lakhs during the 'thirties, to Rs. 40 lakhs during the war years and to about Rs. 1·14 crores in 1952–53. In 1953–54, however, there was a sharp decline to Rs. 72·6 lakhs.

Cloves from Zanzibar and Pemba have also an unbroken record of imports into India with a steady rise in the value of imports, which during 1951–52 stood at Rs. 2·5 crores.

It is interesting to note that in recent years certain new items are figuring in the list of imports from Africa. Among these are asbestos valued at over Rs. 1 crore in 1952–53 from Swaziland, Rhodesia and Portuguese East Africa, copper unwrought valued at Rs. 1·3 crores and Rs. 0·3 crore and Rs. 3·8 crores in 1950–51, 1951–52 and 1952–53

respectively. Rhodesia and Portuguese East Africa have also been supplying zinc or spelter unwrought.

Indian Exports to Africa.—The exports of cotton manufactures, jute manufactures and vegetable oils have held an important position in Indo-African trade throughout the century and the trends in the trade of these articles emphasize their rising importance.

Table V shows the export of cotton piece-goods from India to the various African countries during the years 1949-50 to 1953-54. Prior to 1914, the value of cotton manufactures exported to Africa was only about Rs. 0.4 crore; in the 'thirties, the value was even lower, being around Rs. 0.2 crore. From 1940-41 onwards, however, there has been a fairly high level of exports and in the last three years new highs have been reached (Table V). During 1949-50 and 1952-53, the value of cotton piece-goods exports amounted to Rs. 12.9 crores and Rs. 14.4 crores, respectively, representing 22 per cent. and 27 per cent., respectively, of the total value of India's exports to all countries. Quantitywise, the trade with Africa accounted for 25 per cent., 15 per cent. and 19 per cent. of the total exports during the same years. In 1953-54 there was a sharp increase in the value of cotton exports to Rs. 17·10 crores.

Kenya, Zanzibar and Pemba, Portuguese East Africa, Tanganyika and Italian East Africa have been long-standing customers for Indian cotton goods. A few countries can be spotlighted for the relatively larger share of our cotton goods. On the basis of 1950–51 figures, Nigeria accounts for nearly 90 per cent. of the quantity of handloom goods, 10–12 per cent. of unbleached mill goods, 15 per cent. of white (bleached) cloth and about 11 per cent. of printed or dyed goods. Anglo-Egyptian Sudan is also another important customer.

Trade is developing in the made-up cotton goods, e.g., quilts, bed-covers, counterpanes, etc., the value of these exports in 1951–52 to countries like Rhodesia, Kenya and Anglo-Egyptian Sudan being around Rs. 1 crore.

TABLE V

Exports to Africa—Cotton piece-goods
(Value in lakhs of Rupees)

	19	1949–50	1950-51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54
Handloom cloth Nigeria Kenya Tanganyika Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	: : : :	::::	187 18 3	224 11 4 12	210 8 10 8	332 17 4 12
TOTAL	•	:	215	251	236	305
Mill Goods (Unbleached grey) Gold Coast Nigeria Rhodesia Kenya, Zanzibar and Pemba Tanganyika French Somaliland Anglo-Egyptian Sudan Italian East Africa Ethiopia	::::::::::	20 64 25 142 30  7	24 81 47 126 52 104 84 35 99	14 54 13 59 18 63 94 13	9 80 35 130 84 1 236 7	35 244 37 129 54 :: 140
TOTAL	:	450	652	395	282	06/

22 14 8 79	123	.: 62 62 130 115 32 32 14	472	365 750 123 472	1,710
5 7 75	001	 40 22 157 147 58 77 20	521	236 585 100 521	1,442
16 14 5 37	72	3 10 12 96 73 6 29 4	233	251 395 72 233	951
27 22 12 94	155	37 49 47 125 84 42 78	485	215 611 155 484	1,465
12 32 12 121	177	12 219 219 11 173 116 28 72 32	. 663	 449 177 664	1,290
:::::	:	::::::	: 1	::::	:
Mill Goods (White Bleached) Nigeria Kenya, Zanzibar and Pemba Tanganyika Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	TOTAL	Coloured, Printed and Dyed Egypt Nigeria Rhodesia Tanganyika Nyasaland Anglo-Egyptian Sudan Mauritius	TOTAL	Cotton Piece-goods  Handloom cloth  Mill Goods (Unbleached)  Mill Goods (Bleached)  Coloured, Printed or Dyed	TOTAL

Jute manufactures mainly in the form of gunny bags also occupy a very important place in India's export trade. The chief African customers in the inter-war period were the Union of South Africa, Egypt and Portuguese East Africa. In recent years many more African countries have appeared as potential buyers of Indian jute manufactures.

Table VI gives the data about Indian exports of gunny bags to Africa. As compared with cotton manufactures,

TABLE VI

Exports of gumy bags to Africa

(Value in lakhs of Rupees)

		1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54
Egypt*		443	279	236	176	23
Gold Coast	• • •	68	73	157	122	40
Nigeria		118	107	389	278	153
Belgian Congo		12	17	54	16	6
Portuguese West Africa		10	19	97	56	23
French West Africa		64	84	225	72	. 51
Portuguese East Africa		48	38	78	69	49
Mauritius	•	56	37	85	36	13
Kenya, Zanzibar an Pemba	d 	128	153	343	101	64
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan		75	50	426	51	58
Total .		1,022	857	2,090	977	480

<sup>\*</sup> Exports of gunny cloth to Egypt during the three years 1951-52 to 1953-54 amounted to Rs. 149 lakhs, Rs. 41 lakhs and Rs. 31 lakhs respectively.

the value of jute goods exports to Africa forms a small proportion of total Indian exports of jute goods—4 to 6 per cent. only. The decline in exports in the last two years is in keeping with the general trend.

With the imposition of ban on exports to South Africa, the export of jute goods to that country has ceased to be important. Egypt too has reduced her imports. The loss of these markets has been compensated by the growth of exports to Gold Coast, Nigeria, French West Africa and Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. Exports to Belgian Congo, Portuguese West Africa and Madagascar, though quantitatively less important than those stated above, are quite significant in view of the rising trend and the possibilities of greater trade contacts.

Another important export commodity is vegetable oil. Before 1914, vegetable oils were mainly exported to Mauritius, South Africa and Portuguese East Africa. In the post-war years, however, exports to South Africa were stopped. Egypt and Algeria have recently become the customers for this commodity. These two countries, together with Mauritius, purchased groundnut oil, linseed oil and castor oil to the value of about Rs. 0.3 crore in 1952-53.

Prior to 1914, India exported to Africa, rice, wheat, and other grains, indigo seeds and paraffin wax. Now, the importance of these exports is gone. New items of exports which have emerged in recent years are tobacco, pepper, tea (black), artificial silk piece-goods, etc. A miscellaneous group including articles such as boots and shoes, other leather manufactures, cinematography films, stationery, matches is also figuring in our exports.

#### CHAPTER III

## A BRIEF ECONOMIC SURVEY OF INTER-TROPICAL AFRICA\*

#### 1. Introduction

The preceding chapter gave a broad analysis of the Indo-African trade. In order to study the economic possibilities of increased trade relations between the two countries, it is necessary to study the patterns of foreign trade and economic development of Africa. In this chapter, it is proposed to give a brief account of the economic position of the African territories lying roughly between the Tropic of Cancer and the Tropic of Capricorn. There are 34 territories in this part of the Continent and excepting two, viz., Liberia and Ethiopia, all are dependent territories. They are under the administration of the Metropolitan Powers like Spain, Portugal, France, Belgium and the United Kingdom.

#### II. Area and Population

The area of inter-tropical West and Central Africa is 22.4 million square kilometres which is about 73 per cent. of the area of the Continent as a whole. In population, the territory represents about 68.7 per cent. of the total population of Africa, with a population of about 136 million (1950). The area and the density of population of the various regions are set out below:

<sup>\*</sup>Though the study generally relates to inter-tropical Africa, in some cases reference has been made to Africa as a whole.

Population and density by regions-Inter-tropical Africa

Region 1	•	Area sq. km. (Thousands)	Population Mid-year estimate for 1950 (Thousands)	Density per sq. km.
Sagvia El Hamra Oro French West Afric Gambia Portuguese Guinea Sierra Leone Liberia Gold Coast Cameroons Togoland Nigeria Spanish Guinea French Equatorial Anglo-Egyptian Su French Somaliland Eritrea British Somaliland Eritrea British Somaliland Italian Somaliland Ethiopia Kenya Tanganyika Zanzibar and Peml Nyasaland Mozambique South Rhodesia Belgian Congo Uganda Ruanda-Urundi Angola North Rhodesia Bechuanaland South-West Africa	Africa	2,69 45,96 11 36 72 1,11 2,04 5,29 87 8,76 28 25,10 25,06 22 1,24 1,76 5,14 10,66 5,83 9,39 3 1,23 7,71 3,89 23,44 2,43 53 12,47 7,52 7,12 8,23	80 16,524 273 514 1,880 1,648 3,869 4,006 1,379 24,000 175 4,406 8,350 56 1,104 500 1,246 15,000 5,555 7,707 269 2,330 5,698 2,095 11,259 5,125 3,914 4,094 1,866 289 379	26 14 26 19 9 16 27 6 2 3 9 3 2 14 9 8 102 19 7 5 5 21 74 3 2
Te	OTAL	22,719	135,590	

Source: Demographic Year Book, 1951.

The striking features revealed above are the sparseness of the population and its uneven regional distribution. These are true of the Continent as a whole also. Africa, which has about 23 per cent. of the world's land area, contained in 1950 only about 8 per cent. of the world population. The density of population for Africa was 7 persons per square kilometre compared with 80 for Europe, 47 for Asia, 19 for the U.S.S.R., 9 for North America and the world average of 18. Only Oceania and South America have lower densities than Africa.

Among the inter-tropical regions, Ruanda-Urundi is the most populous, having 70 persons per square kilometre. Only four other States—Sierra Leone, Nigeria, Gambia and the Gold Coast—have a population density of over 20 per square kilometre. All the other territories have lower densities, some having 1 or less than 1.

It should be noted, however, that the density of population, expressed as the average number of persons per square kilometre, is by itself not a fully reliable indication of the pressure of population. Differences in topography, climate and natural resources are important considerations to be taken into account. For instance, Africa consists of large deserts unfit for human habitation and also the tropical zone claims a greater proportion of Africa than any other continent. Therefore, it is necessary to study the population in relation to the natural resources of the country and the skill and dexterity of labour.

#### III. General Characteristics of the Inter-Tropical African Economy

Africa, south of the Sahara and north of the Union of South Africa, is relatively more backward. North Africa (Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco) bordering on the Mediterranean and separated from the rest of Africa by the vast wastes of the Sahara Desert, is by geography and history more akin to Southern Europe than to Africa. North Africa, with a population of about 12 per cent. of the total population,

accounts for over 22 per cent. of the total foreign trade. In the south, the Union of South Africa is economically the most advanced part of the Continent. Having about 7 per cent. of the total population, the Union of South Africa accounts for over 25 per cent. of the total foreign trade of Africa, besides exporting gold of a considerable value. Thus, modern economic development has concentrated chiefly in the north and south leaving the inter-tropical areas relatively undeveloped. The influence of European settlement and capital which has affected the north and southern fringes of the Continent has not penetrated into the Continent and the interior lands to an appreciable extent. The economic development of inter-tropical Africa along modern lines has depended chiefly on the adaptation of the local population to techniques and capital supplied to them from the industrially advanced countries. Over the area as a whole, there prevails a largely self-sufficient tribal and village economy, both agricultural and pastoral, though differences of detail exist arising from climate, soil, rainfall, type of farming, social customs and traditions, and the influence of modern ideas.

Africa, as a whole, may be said to be economically among the least developed areas of the world, with very low levels of production and consumption. The basic facts behind these low levels of production and consumption are, first, that a very large proportion of the total population is engaged in and dependent upon subsistence agriculture carried on with backward techniques. Secondly, the investment in the developed sector of the economy is concentrated on the production of primary products for export. Thirdly, practically all of the capital upon which this production has been developed had to be imported from outside Africa, and, with the exception of the Union of South Africa, and parts of North Africa, this investment has had a relatively small effect in generating secondary incomes and investment.

Thus, in Africa south of the Sahara, there exists what may best be described as a dual economy in which by far the larger section of the population, being involved in subsistence activities, is only partially influenced by advanced techniques. Naturally, in a community like that, the per capita income is relatively lower: in terms of U.S. dollars it was approximately as follows: Belgian Congo (1947) \$ 37; Kenya (1948) \$ 46; and Northern Rhodesia (1949) \$ 101. It is probable that Belgian Congo, Kenya and Northern Rhodesia are fairly representative of tropical Africa as a whole, and that the average annual per capita income in tropical Africa is probably not more than \$ 50. Consequently, internal capital formation is negligible, resulting in a lack of internal capacity for investment in transport and other basic facilities of an economic and social nature.

#### IV. Foreign Trade

The magnitude and composition of imports and exports indicates broadly the nature and the extent of modern economic development of the territory. The total value of the merchandise trade of Africa, excluding Egypt, expressed in millions of United States dollars was as follows:

Yea	r Imports	Exports	
193	7 1,650	1,183	-
193	8 1,477	958	
194	6 2,485	1,764	
194	7 3,795	2,400	
194	8 4,750	3,280	
194	9 4,750	3,360	
195	0 4,020	3,520	
195	1 5,580	4,620	,

Sources: United Nations: Summary of Recent Economic Developments in Africa; and Aspects of Economic Development in Africa.

Africa's trade represents 8 per cent. of world's total import trade and 5.9 per cent. of world's total export trade. Allowing for the greater economic development of the north and the south, the above figures will give a rough idea of the total magnitude of inter-tropical Africa. In 1949, the Union of South Africa accounted for 25 per cent. of the total external trade and North Africa for 22 per cent. of the foreign trade. Therefore, the share of inter-tropical West and Central Africa may be put roughly at something around 50 per cent. of the total foreign trade.

A significant feature of foreign trade is that the value of both imports and exports has been increasing in the postwar years, except during 1950 when there was a small decline, but in 1951 there was a sharp increase in the value of trade, following the Korean boom. The following figures show the merchandise trade of inter-tropical Africa.

(In millions of U.S. \$)

Q	1937	1938	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950
Imports	702	602	914	1,452	1,833	2,177	1,880
Exports	660	507	908	1,261	1,785	1,922	1,910
Balance	<b>— 42</b>	<b>— 95</b>	<b>–</b> 6	- 191	<b>–</b> 48	<b>— 255</b>	+ 30

The excess of imports over exports has been another characteristic feature of the foreign trade of Africa as a whole; in the case of inter-tropical Africa also, this feature was persistent except during 1950. However, the extent of import surpluses of the inter-tropical territory represents a smaller proportion to the total value of trade than for Africa as a whole.

While the magnitude of foreign trade may give an idea of the importance of foreign trade to the economy of intertropical Africa, an analysis of the composition of imports and exports serves to emphasise the peculiar importance of

the African trade to the outside world. Exports from intertropical Africa are almost entirely primary products of agriculture and mining. The importance of these products is great because a large percentage of the world's output of some of these commodities is produced in Africa, as brought out by the following table.

Share of Africa (excluding Egypt) in World output-1948

Commodity	Per	rcentage of total
Sisal Palm Oil and Kernel Cocoa Groundnuts Coffee Olive Oil Cotton Rubber		75·5 69·5 68·3 21·6 15·3 11·9 4·4 2·8
Maize Gold Diamonds Cobalt Copper Tin Chrome		3·7 58·9 98·4 80·1 18·2 15·3 30·8

Source: Review of Economic Conditions in Africa, UNESCO.

A study of exports by regions will show that every country depends for export trade on very few commodities; in other words, the range of exports of any of the African States is narrow and in the case of many territories a very high proportion of total exports is accounted for by one or two products. For instance, Mauritius is practically dependent on export trade in a single crop, viz., sugar. Groundnuts in Gambia and rubber in Liberia accounted for 97 per cent. and 90 per cent. respectively, of total exports in 1948. Of the mining countries, Northern Rhodesia depended on copper in 1949 for no less than 85 per cent. of its exports. No less than 18 of the territories, if Gambia and Liberia were excluded, derive d

more than 70 per cent. of their export income from three products.

The composition of imports into Africa reflects very clearly the generally underdeveloped state of the region. On the whole, food imports have been relatively low in prewar and post-war years. Textiles have been one of the main items of import. An interesting feature is the increasing imports of capital goods owing to economic reconstruction and development plans undertaken in the African territories.

The direction of trade also reveals significant shifts and changes. In the first place, the United Kingdom and France have taken a larger share in the trade of their dependent African territories, as shown by the table below:

Trade of France and United Kingdom with their dependent territories (Percentage of total)

		odwI	Imports from			Expo	Exports to	
Region	1937	7 1949	1950	1951	1937	1949	1950	1951
							1 8	-51
France: French Cameroons	13.0	72.9	68.5	. 70.5	53.3	9.77	58.0	60.3
French Equatorial Africa	35.0	0 64.2	63.8	62.2	64.6	0.97	64.5	72.5
French Togoland	<b>8</b> ∙ 8	8 69.2	28.0	54.4	0.79	0.62	54.2	73.1
French West Africa	44.2	2 68.7	9.19	73.5	78.8	78.5	9.02	71.2
United Kingdom: Gold Coast	49.2	59.8	56.1	52.9	30.7	40.3	40.1	41.5
Nigeria	54.4	1 65.1	59.8	52.2	43.5	82.4	79.2	74.7
North Rhodesia	36.4	34.2	39.8	34.9	51.9	8.99	47.7	58.0
Portugal: Angola	45.3	45.5			56.2	33.6		
Belgium: Belgian Congo and Ruanda- Urundi	43.7	39.3	39.2	40.1	79.9	46.3	58.4	56.9

Source: Review of Economic Conditions in Africa; and Aspects of Economic Developments in Africa.

The second change in the direction of trade in recent years is the greater participation of the United States of America both as a buyer of African products and as an exporter to Africa. For example, the percentage of exports from North Rhodesia to the U.S.A. increased from 5 in 1937 to 21 in 1950 but declined to a little less than 10 in the subsequent year. Exports from this country comprise mainly minerals and that too particularly copper. Exports from Belgian Congo rose from 2 per cent. of total exports in 1937 to 12.9 per cent. in 1950 and this was maintained in 1951 also. The most significant exports to the United States in terms of value are cocoa, vegetable oils and minerals.

The special importance of the growth of trade with the U.S.A. springs from the possibility of this trade adding to the dollar pools of the currency areas to which the States belong. Indeed, in recent years, the trade policies which are at work in the dependent territories conform generally to the requirements imposed by the dollar shortages of the Metropolitan Powers.

A third noticeable change in the direction of trade was the elimination of Germany, Italy and Japan from African trade as a result of the War. All these had, in the pre-war years, a significant share in the African trade. However, since 1949 there has been a resumption of Japanese participation in African trade. The value of Japan's exports to Africa amounted to about \$50 million during January—June 1952; during the same period, Japan's imports from Africa were valued at a little over \$9 million.

Fourthly, the recent trends in African trade indicate an increase in intra-African trade. According to United Nations' sources, intra-African trade amounted to 7.7 per cent. of total exports in 1938, 13 per cent. in 1948 and 13 per cent. (partial coverage) during the first half of 1949. Intra-African trade, still low, has slightly increased during the postwar years as compared with the pre-war. The explanation of this slow development of intra-regional trade lies in the complex conditions which have retarded African economic

development in general. The primary production which accounts for most of African output is complementary with the industrialised regions outside Africa rather than with other parts of Africa. Also of importance in this connection is the inadequate development of transport and communications. Moreover, production in most of the territories depends upon external capital, technical know-how and even administrative services. All these result in substantial transfers of funds to foreign countries and these involve exports.

#### V. Power and Fuel

The potential resources of electrical energy of intertropical Africa are said to be immense. It is estimated that Africa has about 40 per cent. of the world's water resources. Of this, nearly two-thirds is estimated to be in the States of Belgian Congo and the French Equatorial Africa.

Compared to the immense potential hydro-electric resources, the production of electric energy is extremely meagre, though it is increasing, as shown below:

(In millions of kilowatt hours)

Territorie	es	1937–38	1949
Belgian Congo		271 · 3	453.1
Liberia		1.0	9.9
Sierra Leone	,.	0.8	5.4
Uganda		0.3	6.1
French West Af	rica	8.4	24.0
Angola	• •	7.1	19.8
To	TAL	288 · 9	518 · 3

Source: Review of Economic Conditions in Africa: UNESCO.

However, the progress does not compare quite favourably with the potential resources of the territory or with the progress in the North and the South. For instance, in 1949, production of electric power in the Union of South Africa amounted to 10,000 million kilowatt hours.

Plans of hydro-electric development are being initiated in recent years. One such project is the generation of hydro-electric power at Owen Falls, Uganda, on the Victoria Nile. This plan is due to the combined initiative of Egypt and the United Kingdom.

The production of coal outside the Union of South Africa is very small, being just 3.2 million metric tons out of the total African output of 28.6 million metric tons for the Continent as a whole in 1949. The proved resources of coal in Africa have been estimated at less than 2 per cent. of the world's total and the probable resources at about 4 per cent.

In respect of petroleum, recent explorations have shown that Uganda promises to be a possible source of supply. But for this, there is no other source of oil supply in inter-tropical Africa.

Thus, for both coal and oil, the territory has to depend upon imports. The practice of using fuel wood as a source of power for rail and river transport and for mines has proved to be injurious to the forest wealth of inter-tropical Africa.

## VI. Transport

The arrested economic development of inter-tropical Africa is attributed largely to the inaccessibility of the territory. The dense rain-forests of the equatorial belt and the series of high plateau elsewhere make railway construction both difficult and costly. Over large areas in inter-tropical Africa human porterage still plays an important part in short distance movements of small quantities of goods. In the desert regions pack animals are employed.

Railways.—The total railway mileage increased from just under 1,000 km. in 1880 for the whole of Africa to 72,000 km. in 1937.

During the second world war, there was a reduction of the railway mileage, but in the post-war years there has been reconstruction and expansion in response to development needs. The railway development is greatly concentrated in the Union of South Africa which has about 34 per cent. of the total railway mileage of the Continent. The growth of railways in inter-tropical Africa is meagre. There are also a number of regions where there are no railways at all.

Railway construction in the past has depended chiefly on external finance. Further extensions also depend upon foreign finance. The expansion of the railway system is closely associated with the exploration of the mineral and agricultural resources for exports. Indeed the railway rate structure has been so framed as to encourage exports, as was done in India too.

One of the problems of the African railways is the multiplicity of gauges which obstructs the flow of through traffic. Obviously, most of the inter-tropical railway lines were built without due regard to the subsequent need for linking them up into a co-ordinated system.

Another problem in recent years is the heightened levels of traffic. The index of railway freight traffic compared with the 1937 basic index of 100 moved up to 136 in 1946 and 168 in 1949. This increase along with a shrinking in the length of railways during the war has led to severe congestion.

Roads.—Road transport too is comparatively ill-developed. There is of course considerable divergence in this matter from one part of Africa to another. Northern Rhodesia has a population of 107 per km. of road whereas Liberia has 1380. The developmental plans of the several administrations, however, include large schemes of road building intended to relieve human porterage and also to develop internal exchange. A substantial portion of the outlay is earmarked for improving existing facilities rather than to open extensive new areas. A comprehensive review of the inadequacies of the network of roads south of the Sahara was made by the Conference on African Transport of the Organisation for

European Economic Co-operation in Paris in February 1950. Subsequently, the U.S. Economic Co-operation Administration has allotted over  $3\frac{1}{2}$  million dollars to facilitate the road construction plans of the British, French and Belgian administrations.

The number of motor vehicles is also obviously very low. The number of persons per vehicle varies from 57 to 4772. The total for inter-tropical Africa was 131,500 compared to 446,800 in use in the Union of South Africa in 1947.

Maritime Transport.—The coast-line of Africa is exceptionally regular. The deep and protected indentations and the many islands and peninsulas that have done so much to develop shipping in Europe are generally lacking on the African coast. The development of ports and port facilities is difficult. In the post-war years the volume of freight handled has been on the increase. This has imposed a heavy strain on the principal ports and has involved delays in the movement of goods and ships.

The free port of Monrovia (Liberia) was developed under lend-lease agreements with the United States and was opened in 1948.

Among the recent changes in respect of maritime transportation may be included the establishment of new direct shipping services between North America and parts of Africa south of the Sahara. This reflects the increased participation of the United States and Canada in African trade. African shipping has not developed and the dependence on overseas shipping firms is very great.

#### VII. Industries

The industrial development of inter-tropical Africa consists chiefly of the production of minerals for export. The mining, mineral and the metal industries occupy the most important place in the industrial sector of the economy.

The mineral production of Africa presents a rich variety. Some of them occupy a very high place in world's production of those minerals. The following table shows the share of Africa in world's production of some selected minerals in 1950 (also see Table VII).

Mine	ral		Percentage of total world production (by weight)
Columbite (high	grade)	* *	99.0
Diamonds			98.4
Cobalt			87.4
Gold	• •		55 · 4
Phosphate rock	• •	• •	31.9
Chrome			47.0
Manganese	• •		54.2
Vanadium	12 • (e)		16.7
Copper			22.2
Tin	• •	• • •	14.4

Table VII

Output of principal minerals in Africa by major producers 1949, 1950, 1951 and 1952

(Thousands of metric tons unless otherwise stated)

Commodity and Country 1949 1950 1951 1952 Metallic Mineral Ores (Metal contents): Antimony (metric tons): Union of South Africa 4,494 8,311 7,212 15,858 Algeria 1,354 1,464 1,338 1,308 French Morocco 700 689 957 839 TOTAL 10,745\* 18,551\* 9,911\* 6,729\*

# TABLE VII—(Contd.)

Commodity and	Country		1949	1950	1951	1952
Bauxite: Gold Coast <sup>1</sup> Mozambique	::		148 1	117 4	131	76 3
	Total		149	121	135	79
Chrome: Union of South Southern Rhode Sierra Leone			183·7 121·8 9·29	225·0 145·8 3·1 373·9	246·7 144·1 5·5	260·5 244·8 10·9 516·2
Cobalt (metric ton Belgian Congo Northern Rhode French Morocco	esia O		4,403 402 209	5,149 670 390	5,715 706 688	6,831 585 1,000
	TOTAL	••	5,014	6,209	7,109	0,410
Copper: Northern Rhode Belgian Congo <sup>2</sup>	esia 		263·2 141·4	280·9 175·9	314·1 192·0	320·0 205·7
•	TOTAL		445.0*	502.6*	550.5*	575 • 7*
Gold (kilogramme Union of South Gold Coast Southern Rhode Belgian Congo <sup>3</sup>	Africa  esia 	••	364,068 21,055 16,428 10,383	362,782 21,444 15,899 10,557	358,202 21,731 15,145 10,958	367,603 21,507 15,450 11,470
	TOTAL	••	418,524*	416,873*	411,847*	
Iron: Algeria Union of South Sierra Leone	 Africa		1,340 749 664	1,361 717 711	1,496 856 695	1,636 1,086 703
	TOTAL	• •	3,871*	3,962*	4,385*	5,311*

TABLE VII—(Contd.)

	and the same of th	THE RESERVE AND ADDRESS OF THE PERSON NAMED IN	Annual State of State	AND DESCRIPTION OF THE PERSON NAMED IN COLUMN 2 IN COL	NAME AND ADDRESS OF TAXABLE PARTY.	STATE OF THE PERSON NAMED IN COLUMN 2 IS NOT THE OWNER.
Commodity and	l Country		1949	1950	1951	1952
Lead:						
French Morocco	0		37.2	48.2	$68 \cdot 1$	83.6
South-West Afr		• •	32.0	27.0	39.5	55.7
Tunisia	10a	• •	14.9	19.3	21.2	23.3
1 umsia	• •	• • -				
	TOTAL		100.8*	112.9*	149.9*	183 - 7*
		9 <del></del>				
Magnesite:				44.0	10.0	04.4
Union of South			10.5	11.8	18.8	24.4
Southern Rhode	esia		$7 \cdot 6$	8.6	14.8	11.0
	Total		18 · 1	20.4	33.6	35.4
		-				
Manganese:						
Union of South	Africa		275.2	332 · 1	309 · 2	350.6
Gold Coast	Millott	• •	385.0	376.0	425.0	412.0
French Morocc		• •	98.1	115.3	151 · 4	172.0
French Morocc	O	• •	70 1			
	TOTAL		774 • 2*	837 · 3*	948 · 0*	1,039 • 4*
		-				
Nickel:						
Union of South	Africa4		0.57	0.84	1.14	1.31
C!1 (	-> .					
Silver (metric tons			36 · 1	35.3	36.2	36.6
Union of South	Airica	• •		138.7	118.0	147.0
Belgian Congo			141.5			119.0
French Morocc		• •	22.9	34.1	43.0	
South-West Afr	rica /		20.5	27.6	27.0	33.1
	TOTAL		232 · 2*	248 · 5*	230 · 5*	351 · 2
		-				
Tin in concentrate	s (metric 1	tons	):			
Belgian Congo		• •	13,980	13,680	13,888	14,019
			8,965	8,391	8,666	8,448
Nigeria	• •		0,703	0,571	0,000	,

# TABLE VII—(Contd.)

			24		
Commodity and Country		1949	1950	1951	1952
			, i		
Tungsten (metric tons):		220	240	212	605
Belgian Congo <sup>5</sup> Union of South Africa	• •	230 250	57	113	158
Union of South Africa					1 (1)
TOTAL		620*	478*	581*	1,190*
	-				
Vanadium (metric tons):		153		87	43
Northern Rhodesia South-West Africa		164	295	309	170
South-West Affica					
TOTAL	• •	317	295	396	213
	_				
Zinc:		56.0	76.3	88.7	98.5
Belgian Congo	• •	56·8 23·2	23.1	23.0	23.3
Northern Rhodesia	• •	23 2			
TOTAL	••	106.0*	132.7*	158 · 9*	181 · 2*
Non-Metallic Minerals:					
Asbestos:			64.0	70.5	77.0
Southern Rhodesia	• •	72·2 64·3	64·9 79·3	70·5 97·4	121.4
Union of South Africa	• •	04.3	19.3	71 -	
• Total		168 • 4*	174.5*	200.6*	230.9*
				5 16 7	1_(0)
Coal6:		05.406	24 472	26,632	28,065
Union of South Africa	• •	25,496 1,918	24,473 2,128	2,300	2,559
Southern Rhodesia	• •	1,910	2,120		
TOTAL		28,744*	30,037*	30,429*	32,311*
	-				
Diamonds (thousands of					
metric carats)':		0.650	10,147	10,565	11,609
Dolgian Congo	• •	9,650 1,265	1,732	2,229	2,383
Union of South Africa	• •	1,203		_,	
TOTAL		13,832*	14,800*	16,273*	18,210*

TABLE	VII-	(Contd.)
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Commodity and	Country		1949	1950	1951	1952
Lignite : Tunisia			47	41	8	
Petroleum (crude)	:		17	41	0	• •
Algeria			0.3	3.4	7.6	46.3
French Morocco	0	٠	17.5	39.3	75.7	101.0
	TOTAL		17.8	42.7	83.3	147.3
Phosphate rock:		_				
Tunisia			1,442	1,530	1,742	2,264
French Morocc	0	• •	3,626	4,022	4,599	3,954
	TOTAL		5,716*	6,237*	7,110*	6,911*

\* The total includes the production of relatively less important countries.

<sup>1</sup> Exports; <sup>2</sup> Smelter production; <sup>3</sup> Including Ruanda-Urundi; <sup>4</sup> Nickel content of platinum matte; <sup>5</sup> Including Ruanda-Urundi except in 1951; <sup>6</sup> The figures relate to anthracite and bituminous coal, including semi-bituminous, but exclude lignite and brown coal; <sup>7</sup> Including industrial diamonds.

Production of minerals is highly concentrated and every region accounts for a high percentage of production of one or two of the minerals. The minerals are mostly exported.

Gold.—Of nearly 55 per cent. of world's total gold output produced in Africa, five-sixths was produced in the Union of South Africa and the other one-sixth in the other territories. The following gives the distribution of gold production in 1950:

Territory		Output of gold (in thousands of metric tons)
Gold Coast Southern Rhodesia Union of South Africa	• •	689 511 11,664
Total		13,436

Diamonds.—The total African production of diamonds in 1937 was about 9.3 million metric carats. During the war, the production increased and in 1945 was 51 per cent. higher than the pre-war level. In 1947 and 1948, the production was more or less at the pre-war level of 9.3 million metric carats. Since 1949 the output has been increasing and in 1951 the output was placed at 16.3 million metric carats. The largest portion of the output is generally in Belgian Congo which, in 1951, accounted for 65 per cent. of the African output. The other inter-tropical contributors to the supply of diamonds are, in order of importance, Gold Coast, Angola, Sierra Leone and S.-W. Africa. It should be noted that the order of importance according to output is not the same as that by value. For value depends on the proportion between gem and industrial diamond. Belgian Congo's production ranks lower by value, whereas the production in the Union of South Africa and the U.K. territories rank relatively higher by value.

Iron Ore.—Production of iron ore is very small in intertropical Africa. The only place of importance is Sierra Leone which produced in 1951 about 695,000 metric tons of iron ore. This was about 15 per cent. of the total production. The largest African producers of iron ore are Algeria and the Union of South Africa. Smaller quantities are produced in French and Spanish Morocco and Tunisia. The iron ore resources of several parts are still unexplored. According to an investigation by the United Nations Department of Economic Affairs, the potential resources are well above 13.5 per cent. of world's resources, which is the estimate of the iron content of known deposits in 11 African territories.

Deposits of iron ore have been found in the Bomi Hills in Liberia, in the Conakry peninsula in French W. Africa and in N. Rhodesia.

Copper.—Copper production is localised chiefly in N. Rhodesia and Belgian Congo. In 1949, these ranked as the third and fifth respectively among the world's copper producers. The production of these two countries was over

90 per cent. of the African production in 1951. Of 550,500 metric tons, Northern Rhodesia's output was 314,100 tons. Reserves of copper ore are reported to exist in Uganda, Kenya and Tanganyika too.

Tin.—The output of tin in the Belgian Congo and Nigeria together represented about 95 per cent. of African tin production in 1949. This was roughly 15 per cent. of world's production of tin concentrates in 1949. Out of the Continent's total output of 23,816 metric tons in 1949, Belgian Congo and Ruanda-Urundi produced 13,888 and Nigeria produced 8,666 tons. The production of Nigeria has shown a declining trend in the last decade, while Belgian Congo shows an upward trend.

Zinc.—Belgian Congo, N. Rhodesia and S.-W. Africa are the principal producers of zinc. Of late French Morocco is increasing in importance. Compared to 1937, the output in 1949 was more than double in quantity. Again, between 1949 and 1951 the quantity increased by 50 per cent., from 106,000 tons to 158,900 tons, of which Belgian Congo accounted for 88,700 tons. Smelter production of zinc in N. Rhodesia also increased from 14,280 metric tons in 1937 to 23,217 in 1949. An electrolytic zinc plant under construction in Belgian Congo was expected to be completed by 1953. It might have been completed by now.

Lead.—The production of lead is concentrated in French Morocco, S.-W. Africa and N. Rhodesia. The trend of production is upward, the output in 1951 at 149,900 metric tons being about thrice that in 1937. Smelter production is however small, though there is significant expansion of it in N. Rhodesia.

Bauxite.—The Gold Coast produces practically the whole of the African output. In 1951 it produced 131,000 metric tons out of a total of 135,000 metric tons. Production began in the Gold Coast only in 1941 but expanded so rapidly that in 1949 it ranked as the ninth among world's producers. Large reserves of high grade ore, estimated to be over 200 million metric tons, are indicated by official surveys in this region. The establishment of an aluminium factory in the

Gold Coast depends upon the utilisation of the power potential of the Volta River. French W. Africa and Mozambique also produce small quantities of bauxite.

Chrome Ore.—Production of chrome ore in 1951 in Africa was 396,300 metric tons. Of this, S. Rhodesia produced 144,100 metric tons. The Union of S. Africa is the most important producer with an output of 246,700 metric tons.

Cobalt.—The African share of world output of cobalt is about 80 per cent. The 1951 production was 7,109 metric tons of which 5,715 metric tons was accounted for by Belgian Congo and the rest almost equally by N. Rhodesia and French Morocco.

The output of cobalt in Belgian Congo in 1950 shows more than a three-fold increase over 1937 production, whereas between 1937 and 1949, there was a decline in production in Northern Rhodesia. Since then, however, the trend of production is upward. Recently the U.S. Economic Cooperation Administration has authorised \$550,000 to finance the purchases of equipment for improving the cobalt production in N. Rhodesia. Facilities are also being developed for refining and processing the ore.

Manganese Ore.—The output of manganese has been rising sharply in recent years. Total output increased from 774,200 metric tons in 1949 to 948,000 metric tons in 1951. Gold Coast produced over 40 per cent. of the African output. Next in importance are the Union of S. Africa and French Morocco. The U.S. demand for ores of chemical and other grades from Africa is a stimulating factor in this direction.

Vanadium.—South-West Africa and N. Rhodesia produce all the African production of vanadium. The output of vanadium has been recording a fall in post-war years, from 825 metric tons in 1937 to 295 metric tons in 1950. In 1951, however, there was a rise to 396 metric tons.

Uranium.—Until World War II, uranium ore was produced in Belgian Congo almost exclusively for its radium content. Subsequently, its production has been stimulated in connection with the development of atomic energy.

The exports of uranium in 1945 amounted to 9,965 metric tons as compared with 1,089 in 1946. In 1944 the U.S., the U.K. and Belgium entered into an agreement to share the production of uranium in Belgian Congo.

Secondary Industries.—The Continent has experienced an expansion of its secondary industries since the pre-war period. In respect of scale, scope and impact on economic structure, by far the most considerable developments have, however, taken place in South Africa. The moderate extensions of development in French North Africa and elsewhere have also been significant. While some development has taken place in inter-tropical Africa, no material change has been brought about in the structure of the economies of these territories.

# VIII. Agriculture and Forestry

The Food and Agriculture Organisation estimated that 74 per cent. of the population in Africa depends upon agriculture and the proportion for inter-tropical Africa may be higher still. Though subsistence farming, on the whole, is more widespread, commercial farming—chiefly for export—is also significant. Indeed in the case of cocoa, coffee, cotton and rubber the output is mainly for export. Subsistence agriculture is of the traditional indigenous type; poor equipment, limited employment of fertilisers and animals, leaving land fallow, low and irregular yield characterise this type of agriculture. At the other extreme are the non-indigenous plantations organised for commercial purposes. Between these extreme types, great variations in the scale of organisation exist.

Africa has a variety of agricultural sub-regions, each with its own pattern of production and consumption. There are variations as regards livestock, crop balances and production for subsistence, internal market and for export.

Cereal and root crops are grown chiefly for local consumption. Among other major foodstuffs in the various

territories of Africa are pulses and nuts, fruits and vegetables, fats and oils, meat, milk and cheese, eggs and fish.

The subsistence sector of the African economy is peculiarly vulnerable to the vagaries of the monsoon. Food shortages in some part or the other are said to be a feature of economic life every year. Further, the population is badly nourished and undernourished and in the opinion of the F.A.O. African diets "remain among the lowest in the world". Better standards of nutrition for the people will depend on improved production. In this connection, it may be interesting to note that the economic development programmes of many of the African territories are directing attention to the expansion of agricultural production both for export and for local consumption.

Agricultural production for export is very significant. The largest part of world supplies of cocoa, sisal and palm oil derivatives is from Africa. The percentage shares of Africa in world production of sisal, palm oil and kernels and cocoa in 1950 were 67.7, 69.5 and 67.9, respectively. In addition, Africa contributes significant quantities of groundnuts, coffee, sesame seed and olive oil. In 1950, the percentage of production of these commodities to world production was 17.5, 13.3, 12.1 and 12.5, respectively. Some crops such as rubber (2.9), citrus fruits (5.0), sugarcane (5.7), cotton (5.2), tobacco  $(4\cdot2)$  and tea  $(3\cdot5)$  which occupy a minor position in world production are of major importance to the local economy. While the share of Africa in world production of these commodities ranges from 2.8 per cent. to 5.7 per cent., they figure prominently in the exports of certain territories as shown below:

Commodity		Territory exporting		Percentage to total exports by value in 1948		
Rubber		Liberia		90		
Coffee		Ruanda-Urundi		41		
Tobacco		Nyasaland Southern Rhodesia		54 44		
Cotton		Anglo-Egyptian Sudan Uganda French Equatorial Africa	 1	67 52 48		

Wheat, Barley and Oats.—The shares of Africa excluding Egypt in the world production of these grains were 2 per cent., 6 per cent., and 1 per cent., respectively, in 1950. The share of inter-tropical Africa was very small, nine-tenths of the total production of these crops being in French North Africa and the Union of South Africa.

Rice.—The output of African rice in 1950 was 1·4 per cent. of the world output. The chief rice-growing territories are Madagascar, French West Africa and, to a smaller extent, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Belgian Congo, Uganda and the Portugese territories. Rice production is showing an increase and the entire production is absorbed internally. 1951 output amounted to 2·58 million tons.

Oils and Fats.—Ninety per cent. or more of African output consists of vegetable oils; animal and marine fats have been much less important. Production for export has been mainly localised in West Africa.

Groundnuts.—The share of Africa in the world's output of groundnuts in 1950 was about 18 per cent. The following table shows the regional distribution of the production of groundnuts in 1948 and 1951 in the important producing regions:

Territories	Production ' (in thousands of metric tons)			
		_	1948	1951
French West Africa			836	780
Nigeria and British Camero	oons		560	470
Uganda			158	
French Cameroons			90	••
Gambia			63	69
Other territories (Belgian Conferment) of South Africa, Tangang		Jnion 	475	••
	Total		2,182	1,319

Palm Oil and Kernel produced in Africa in 1948 constituted 69 per cent. of the world production for that year. The actual production in 1949 was 640,000 metric tons (in oil equivalent) and in 1951 it declined slightly to 620,000. Belgian Congo produced 210,000 metric tons and British West and East Africa produced 430,000 metric tons. The volume of exports constituted 78 per cent. of world's gross exports of these products.

Sugar.—The production of sugar in Africa was estimated at 1.4 million metric tons. Of this, Mauritius and the Union of South Africa produced about half a million tons each.

Cocoa.—Two-thirds of the world's supply of cocoa is produced in Africa and chiefly in W. Africa. The British territories in W. Africa produce normally four-fifths of African production. Production in 1950 amounted to 519,000 tons but in 1951 there was a sharp decline to 446,000 tons.

Coffee.—The share of Africa in the world's production of coffee shows a marked increase from about 6 per cent. in

the pre-war years (1934–38) to 13.3 per cent. in 1950. Exports show similar progress. The chief producing and exporting territories in order of importance are French W. Africa, Angola, Ethiopia, Madagascar and Belgian Congo. Output increased from 247,000 tons in 1949 to 317,000 tons in 1951.

Tea.—The production of tea in Africa in 1950 and 1951 was 21,000 metric tons each, which constituted 3.5 per cent. of the total world production. Nyasaland and Kenya contributed about one-third each to the African tea production; the production of the other one-third was distributed among Uganda, Mozambique, Tanganyika and a few other territories.

Wine.—Nearly 10 per cent. of world's production of wine was produced in Africa in 1949, the chief producing centres being Algeria, the Union of South Africa, Tunisia and French Morocco.

Citrus Fruit.—In 1950, Africa produced 5 per cent. of the world's output of citrus fruits. Between 1949 and 1951 total production increased from 674,000 metric tons to 750,000 metric tons. Here again, production in inter-tropical States of the Gold Coast, Mozambique, S. Rhodesia and British E. Africa is quantitatively very small. Largest quantities of oranges, tangerines, grapes, lemons and limes were produced in French N. Africa and the Union of S. Africa.

Cotton.—Almost all the cotton produced in Africa (apart from Egypt) is in inter-tropical States. The following table shows the production of cotton (ginned) in 1950:

Territory	(i	Production (in thousands of metric tons)			
Anglo-Egyptian	Sudan	102			
Belgian Congo		44			
Uganda	• •	63			
TOTAL AFRI	CA	209			

The total production of cotton as above was 5 per cent. of the world's cotton production. A very large part of the production is exported. In recent years, consequent upon the small growth of modern cotton textiles industry in Belgian Congo, the Union of S. Africa, French W. Africa and Nigeria, the domestic consumption has shown an upward trend.

Sisal.—Sisal is one of the special products of inter-tropical Africa and the bulk of it is produced in British E. Africa. Production rose from 215,000 metric tons in 1949 to 245,000 tons in 1951.

Tobacco.—The important inter-tropical African producers of tobacco are S. Rhodesia and Nyasaland which produced about 50 per cent. of the African production in 1949 amounting to 140,000 metric tons.

Rubber.—The production of this important commodity has shown significant changes. The output has increased from 12·2 million metric tons in the pre-war period (1934–38) to 73·2 million metric tons in 1951. A little over 60 per cent. is produced in Liberia. Nigeria and Belgian Congo too are important producers.

Forestry and Forest Products.—According to recent estimates of the Food and Agriculture Organisation, the extent of forests in Africa is 849 million hectares, constituting 28 per cent. of the land area of Africa. However, nearly two-thirds of this is said to be incapable of yielding anything other

than fuel. Further, all the productive forests covering 306 million hectares are not economically accessible.

Almost all the African forests are of hardwood species and only less than 1 per cent. of the productive area is occupied by conifers. As stated earlier, the productive forest area is not much. For instance, the roundwood output of inter-tropical Africa in 1948 was 0·3 metric ton per hectare as compared with the world average of 0·7 metric ton per hectare. The Continent as a whole has had a trade deficit in the chief wood products as a result of the overbalancing requirements of its wood deficient areas. However, in the opinion of the United Nations Department of Economic Affairs, the forest resources of the equatorial rainbelt, if properly exploited and managed, are more than sufficient to meet local needs and also constitute a significant world reserve.

The northern and southern extremities of Africa have together only about 1 per cent. of the total forest land. The heaviest concentration of forests is in the equatorial rainbelt, between 12° north and 5° south latitude and chiefly along the west coast and up the Congo. There is also considerable area of forest land between 10° south and 20° south latitude. Thus the location of forests is greatly concentrated in Central Africa.

The production of roundwood in inter-tropical Africa in 1948 was estimated to be 51 million cubic metres as compared with 50 million cubic metres in 1947 and 45 million cubic metres in 1937. In 1937, there was a net import into Africa of 2 million cubic metres of roundwood.

Commercial exploitation of African hardwood has been limited by several factors like transport difficulties, scarcity of labour and the limited known utility of most species. However, in the post-war years, European and American demands have stimulated production for export. Expansion of exports is noticeable in the Gold Coast, Nigeria, Belgian Congo, French Eq. Africa and French W. Africa.

Foreign investments have also helped the establishment of certain processing industries in some of the African States. However, timber production is relatively small, being less than one per cent. of world's timber output in 1948. The output consisted mostly of fuel wood. Other speciality products include cork, tanning bark and gum arabic.

As elsewhere, the chief problem relating to forests in Africa are conservation, development and exploitation. The shrinkage and deterioration of forests in tropical Africa have been causing great concern. The shrinkage is due to the menace of desiccation, widespread prevalence of active erosion and the practice of shifting agriculture. Further, the use of fuel wood as a source of power for rail and river transport and for mines has also contributed to the loss of forest cover.

#### CHAPTER IV

### A NOTE ON THE BELGIAN CONGO

Apart from the general description contained in the preceding chapter, it is felt that a separate chapter on conditions obtaining in Belgian Congo will be useful.

Belgian Congo is situated in Central Africa. The area of Belgian Congo is 2·3 million sq. km., i.e., about one-thirteenth of Africa or eighty times the area of Belgium. The population in 1949 consisted of 11·1 million natives and 51,639 non-indigenous people. The indigenous peoples comprise of Bantus, Pygmies, Nilotics and Sudanese. There are as many as about 200 dialects, while four languages are widely spoken; Kikongo, Lingala, Chiluba and Kingwana. Tribal forms of social organisations are still existing. Christianity seems to have made considerable headway claiming as many as about 3·4 million natives in 1948 as converts. The administration is in the hands of Belgium through a Governor-General.

Education.—Education is restricted mostly to primary and secondary courses. Higher education is almost absent except for certain courses for the clergy. French is the primary language as well as the language of instruction. All education for the natives is in the hands of Belgian missions-Catholic and Protestant—and recently other foreign missionaries. The Government has extended help in their work by subsidies, land grants, etc. Some vocational schools are also run by large industrial, commercial and transport orga-Three specialised institutions deal with scientific nisations. research: (1) The National Institute for Agronomical Study established in 1933; (2) The Institute for Scientific Research in Central Africa established in 1947; and (3) The National Park Institute set up in 1936. The Belgian Universities have set up centres in Belgian Congo to study demographic, social and cultural problems. There are two museums of native art and another association, Friends of Native Art, is working for the preservation of native arts.

It is estimated that about one-third of the population is able to read. The number of children enrolled in the schools is estimated to be about 50 per cent. of the population of school-going age. The expenditure on native education in 1949 was 238 million francs, out of the total budget expenditure of 4,461 million francs, *i.e.*, over 5 per cent. of the total expenditure.

Economic Conditions.—Belgian Congo is very richly endowed with mineral, agricultural, forest and hydro-electric resources.

Power.—In 1949, hydro-electric installations had a capacity of 141,900 horse-power. Two new power stations which were reported to be under construction in 1949 may have doubled the capacity, as expected then. The output of the principal power stations in 1948 was 497·3 million kwts.

Transport and Communications.—The principal ports are Matadi and Boma. The tonnage of traffic in 1948 at these ports was about 100,000 and about 50,000, respectively.

According to 1948 figures, there are 12,284 kilometres of navigable inland waterways. Of this length, 2,667 kilometres are accessible to barges of more than 1,200 tons. There are 1,300 kilometres of lake shipping routes. In addition, there are numerous river ports with the necessary installations. The river boat services are considered to be the most economic form of transport in the Congo.

The road system of Belgian Congo at the end of 1947 comprised of 15,206 kilometres of main roads, 67,717 kilometres of local roads and 1,749 kilometres of private roads.

The total length of railways in Belgian Congo is about 5,000 kilometres.

Air traffic is of considerable importance. Both air passenger and aircargo transport systems cover the entire territory. There are twenty-three lines operating over 12,000 kilometres. There are four international airports.

In 1947, there were 148 post offices in Belgian Congo. The postal services delivered about 8.8 million pieces of domestic mail and about 3.6 million pieces of international mail during the year 1947.

There are 3,250 kilometres of telegraphic lines which are linked to the 68 official wireless stations. The number of telegrams sent and received in 1948 was about 2.6 million, i.e., on an average about 7,200 a day.

There were 28 public telephone systems in 1948, of which two were automatic. Radio-telephone communications have been established with many overseas countries.

At present there are 148 radio stations, of which 80 are private stations and 68 official. The number of registered receiving sets in 1948 was 6,000.

The radio stations assist in the protection of aviation. There are six long-wave radio direction-finders and twenty-one circular wireless beacons to guide aeroplanes. There is also a synoptic meteorological system which comprised of 64 stations in 1948.

Mining.—The mining resources of Belgian Congo present a rich variety. The following table shows the production of principal minerals in 1950, 1951 and 1952.

Commodity -		Output		
	1952	1951	1950	
Cobalt	6,831	5,715	5,149	(Thousands of metric tons)
Copper Ore	2,206	192	176	Do.
Diamonds	11,609	10,565	10,148	(Thousands of metric carats)
Silver	147	118	139	(Metric tons)
Tin in Con- centrates	14	13.9	13.7	(Thousands of metric tons)
Zinc Ore	98	89	76	Do.

Source: U.N. Summary of Recent Economic Dévelopments in Africa, 1952-53.

Apart from the minerals mentioned above, small quantities of manganese and uranium are also produced.

The production of minerals is mostly for export and the export of these products in 1948 represented about 51 per cent. of the total exports from Belgian Congo.

Industry.—Metallurgical industry employs modern methods in the treatment and refining of tin, copper, cobalt, cadmium and zinc ores. Plans are afoot to develop the metal industries.

Food industry is another group of important industries in Belgian Congo. It comprises of 365 factories for the processing of palm nuts, 300 for coffee, 33 for cocoa, 78 rice mills, 2 sugar factories, 92 fish-salting works, 155 dairies, 80 butter factories, 19 flour mills, 3 breweries, 5 oil-extracting plants for groundnuts, 3 for cottonseed and one for maize.

Among other industries may be mentioned 5 textile works, 120 cotton ginneries, 18 shipyards, 4 machine construction works, 149 automobile assembly and repair plants, 24 railway workshops, 123 saw mills, one boot and shoe factory, 32 printing plants, 55 soap works, 2 cement works and 2 metal drum construction works. Chemical industry consists of 35 factories for the production of sulphuric acid, acetylene, calcium carbide, quinine powder and explosives.

Handicrafts are of minor importance in the economy of Belgian Congo.

Agriculture.—The output of principal crops for export in 1950 and 1952 are given below:

Commodities	O (thousands	utput of metric tons)	
	1950	1952	
Coffee Cotton Groundnuts Palm Oil Products Rubber	 21 44 162 176 8,217	20 48 195 195 16,810	

The National Institute of Agronomical Studies is working to promote agricultural efficiency in many ways. It organises agronomical surveys, trains experts and undertakes all types of research, experimentation at Jother work connected with agriculture. Dissemination of information on agriculture is carried out by the staff of the Agricultural Service, the Institute, the Special Committee of Katango and the National Committee of Kivu. The budget of the Agricultural Service provided for an expenditure of about 394 million francs in 1949; i.e., about 9 per cent. of the total budget expenditure.

Livestock:—Livestock of Belgian Congo included in 1948 about 600,000 cattle, 1.5 million sheep and goats and 200,000 swine.

Fisheries.—Organised and controlled fisheries produce about 30,000 tons of fresh fish annually. A Fisheries Commission was established in 1946 to improve production, increase fish resources, study methods of fish canning and ensure the distribution of products indispensable to the diet of the natives. Fisheries legislation includes measures to protect fishery resources. The fishery resources of the Atlantic have been studied by a scientific mission.

Forests.—In Belgian Congo, forests cover about 100 million hectares, i.e., about 45 per cent. of the total territory. The hinterland of the areas under exploitation totals about 4.5 per cent. of the total forest area. Out of the total wooded area, the economically workable forest regions, i.e., those sufficiently rich in commercial varieties and with transport facilities are calculated at only 11.5 per cent.

Total production of lumber in 1948 was about 360,000 cubic metres. Firewood is still the principal source of power. Industries, railways and river-steamers consumed about a million cubic metres in 1947.

Plans have been initiated for forest conservation and the measures taken include a general law against the deforestation of slopes, establishment of forest reserves, prohibition of bush fires, reafforestation of the savanna and slopes and regulation of timber felling.

International Trade.—The Belgian Congo does not conclude commercial agreements. These are negotiated by Belgium, specifying the extent to which they are applicable to Belgian Congo.

Both in quantity and value the foreign trade of Belgian Congo has expanded greatly in recent years. The following table shows the increase in the value of imports and exports since 1929:

Year	Value (in millions of francs)	
1929	2,634	\$ · ·
1945	6,740	The second
1947	13,719	
1948	19,042	
1949	20,956	
1950	22,785	
1951	35,339	
1952	40,198	

In terms of U.S. dollars, the value of trade increased from 453 million in 1950 to 799 million in 1952.

The imports into Belgian Congo are mainly manufactured goods, including textiles and clothing, vehicles, machines, metals and metal products, cement and mineral oils. In 1949, 76.5 per cent. of the total imports in value were from Belgium, U.S.A. and the U.K. The relative shares of these three countries in 1939, 1947 and 1949 were as follows:

*	nê <u>y</u>	1939	1947	1949	1951
Belgium		48.8	29.5	38.2	-
U.S.A.	• •	7.3	38.0	27.8	22.3
United Kingdom		5.4	9.0	10.5	

Compared to the pre-war years, the share of Belgium has fallen while the shares of both the U.S.A. and U.K. show marked increases.

The principal exports of Belgian Congo are copper, coffee, cotton, palm oil, diamonds and miscellaneous minerals. In 1952, minerals accounted for about 60 per cent. of the total value of exports.

Exports were distributed according to percentage among the principal countries of destination as follows:

	1939	1947	1949	1951
Belgium	 75 · 1	59.5	45.5	
U.S.A.	 3.5	15.0	8.9	12.9
U.K.	 0.7	4.5	9.9	

The share of Belgium in Belgian Congo's export trade has declined in post-war years in contrast to the gains acquired by U.S.A. and U.K.

Development Plan.—A ten-year plan for the economic and social development of the Belgian Congo was published in 1949. A law authorising the Minister of Colonies to finance the ten-year plan with the help of extraordinary appropriations was adopted by the Chamber of Representatives in 1950.

The following table shows the classification of schemes in the ten-year Development Plan for the Belgian Congo:

Items		Proposed Expenditure (in millions of Congo francs)
Communications	·	
Aviation	964	
Railways	1,263	
Roads	6,100	
Tele-Communications	250	
Water Transport	4,385	
Total —		12,962
Economic Development		
Agriculture	964	
Electric Power	1,909	
Fisheries	90	
Soil Conservation	154	
Stock-breeding	180	
Total —		- 3,297
Social Development		
Education	1,838	
Housing and Town Planning 3	3,100	
Immigration	586	
Medical and Health Services	1,978	
	1,052	0.554
Total —		8,554
GRAND TOTAL		24,813

The above figures show that about 34 per cent. of the proposed expenditure is to be spent on Social Services, including housing, health and education; more than 50 per cent. on transport and communications. In the agricultural plans particular attention is given to improvement of technique and the developing of a 'paysannat indigene' through the distribution of small holdings.

These plans have since been expanded and to the end of June a total of CB Frs. 27,800 million had been provided for expenditure on development for the Belgian Congo. The actual payments under the plan till the end of June 1953 amounted to CB Frs. 5,378 million. In the earlier stages of the plan there were difficulties in obtaining capital equipment owing to the Korean boom and also more time than anticipated was required to make firm plans and recruit technical staff.

#### CHAPTER V

#### DEVELOPMENT PLANS IN AFRICA

In the African territories, as in most other underdeveloped countries, sustained efforts are being made by the Governments concerned for the formulation and implementation of comprehensive plans for economic development. Most of these plans were first formulated during the two years 1945 to 1947 and were intended to be spread over a period of roughly 10 years. As may be guessed, these original plans were of the roughest kind, partly because of the non-availability of sufficient economic data and also because of the general uncertainty of international economic developments in the post-war years. These plans are being revised constantly so as to take into account the economic change in the countries concerned as well as economic developments abroad. In general it has been found that the original targets of expenditure were insufficient and, consequently, they have in general been stepped up. It is also being found that the progress of the plan in the first few years was rather slow partly because of the inadequate preparation for launching the projects and partly because of shortages of trained personnel and capital equipment. The Korean boom added to the difficulties since capital equipment became comparatively scarce.

The actual scope of the plan varies from country to country. In general, however, the basic objectives are to raise the level of output, to diversify the economy, to transform gradually a subsistence economy into a market economy and consequently, increase the volume of exports as well as imports. A great deal of attention is naturally given to the development of agricultural and mineral resources of the region. A good deal of emphasis is also laid on the development of transport and communications which could more than anything else accelerate the economic growth of the region.

The major part of the financing of these plans has to be undertaken by the Colonial Powers themselves since the capacity of the countries of the region for mobilising resources for development is comparatively low.

Apart from individual efforts, the Colonial Powers are also trying to act in concert in promoting economic development. Thus in June 1950 an Agreement was reached between Belgium, France, Portugal, Southern Rhodesia, South Africa and the United Kingdom to set up a Commission for cooperation in technical matters in Africa with a permanent Secretariat in London. A number of other inter-governmental conferences have also been held to discuss problems of economic interest. The assistance of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development is also being sought for the economic development of the region.

A brief review of the economic plans and progress in some of the countries of the region follows (some information of Belgian Congo is already given in Chapter IV). The progress of development plans in the French territories, south of the Sahara, is given in the table below. The rate of progress was slow in the first few years but increased very considerably in 1951–52. Even if allowance is made for the rise in prices, the increase in the development expenditure has been substantial in recent years, although the rate of progress in the first four years covered in the plan has faller short of the original target. Further, it is understood that in the first four years there was too much of emphasis on development of communications and social development rather than on production and that in 1950 efforts were made to change the emphasis in favour of production projects.

French Territories South of the Sahara: Disbursements under Development Plans to 31st December 1952 (Cumuntive totals in millions of metropolitan francs)

Item and Territory	, and the second	Cumulative Total	ve Total	T. 21ct Dec
	10 31st Dec. 1948	10 318t Dec. 1949	10 31st Dec. 1950	1952
Actual Dishursements				
Cameroons, French Administration	620.0	4,043.5	14,625.4	26,105
Comoro Islands French Equatorial Africa	446.9	2,508.1	18,171.7	27,741
French Somaliland	287.6	609.3	2,577.8	3,785
French West Africa	446.9	2,508.1	42,419.5	82,389
Madagascar	432.4	3,570.7	10,040.8	18,487
Togoland	77.1	594.6	2,236.1	3,245
TOTAL	2,310.9	13,863.8	90,249.6	162,671
General Allocation*	2,419.1	6,038.0	19,345.6	29,188
GRAND TOTAL	4,730.0	19,901 · 8	109,595.2	191,859

\* A small part of this amount was allocated to territories outside Africa.

U.K. Territories.—In the case of the U.K. Government territories also the progress of plans in the first few years was rather slow. But from 1951 onwards the implementation of the plans is being accelerated. The total expenditure on the ten-year Development Plans in the U.K. territories is given below:

United Kingdom Territories: Proposed Total Expenditure on Ten-Year Development Plans

(Thousands of pounds sterling)

Territ	Territory			Total Estimated Expenditure			
Basutoland		• •	830				
Bechuanaland			830				
Gambia			2,130				
Gold Coast			98,820*				
Kenya			41,700				
Mauritius			8,122				
Nigeria			55,479				
Northern Rhode	esia		52,000				
Nyasaland	• •		12,292				
St. Helena			200				
Seychelles			325				
Sierre Leone			11,178				
Somaliland Prot	ectorate		857				
Swaziland			664				
Tanganyika			24,450				
Uganda	• •	•, •	28,500				
Zanzibar			1,413				

<sup>\*</sup> Including £21.5 million for development of Tema harbour and township.

Information about the actual progress of expenditure is not available uniformly for all countries. The table below gives the information for some of the important countries.

United Kingdom Territories: Expenditure on Development Plans (1946/47 to 1953)

(Thousands of pounds sterling)

Territory	1	946/47-1950	1951	1952	1953 <sup>1</sup>
Gold Coast		8.42	6,687.53	13,968.04	14,022 • 55
Kenya		13,500.0	4,095.0	5,352 • 2	6,753 · 8
Nigeria		21,300.02	5,000.03		
Northern Rhodesia		8,100.0	3,300.0	5,100.0	13,400.06
Tanganyika		6,465.0	3,830.0	4,989.0	4,275.0
Uganda <sup>7</sup>	•:	6,132.3	3,934.3	4,640.8	6,466.8

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Estimates; <sup>2</sup> To 31st March 1951; <sup>3</sup> Year ending 31st March 1952; <sup>4</sup> Year ending 31st March 1953; <sup>5</sup> Year ending 31st March 1954; <sup>6</sup> 1st January 1953 to 30th June 1954; <sup>7</sup> Non-recurrent budget expenditure.

A substantial part of the funds for development is made available by the U.K. Government under the Colonial Development and Welfare Act of 1945 which provided for £120 million to be spread over a ten-year period on colonial development schemes. At the end of 1952 about £70 million had been used.

## CHAPTER VI

#### CONCLUSION

The foregoing survey of Indo-African economic relations as well as of African economic trends reveals that there is tremendous scope for much closer Indo-African economic collaboration. The comprehensive economic development that we have undertaken in India during the last 4–5 years should enable us to take an increasing interest in the economic development of inter-tropical Africa. We are in the intermediary position between developed and underdeveloped countries. While, therefore, our development plans will have the primary object of raising our own standard of living they should also have in view the possibility of assisting more underdeveloped countries than our own to come up economically.

Apart from this general interest in the progress of other underdeveloped countries we are particularly interested in the African Continent in view of the fact that in many parts of the Continent large numbers of Indians have settled These people have undoubtedly contributed their mite to the economic growth of those areas. But there is a great deal more that the Indian settlers have to do. is of utmost importance that the Indian settlers in the African Continent completely identify themselves with the interests of local population and do everything possible in their power to promote the development of Africa and the cementing of Indo-African ties. It is of course understood that in turn the Indian settlers also will get a fair deal from the rest of the population, that there is no discrimination of any sort between Indians and other local peoples. It is also necessary to explore further possibilities of larger migration of Indians into the African territories.

In India there is urgent need to make serious attempts to study African culture and civilisation, her political set-up and her economic problems. Our universities should take increasing interest in African studies. It is reported that an Indian University may shortly set up an institute for African studies. This is a happy development and it is to be hoped that this will be followed by many other universities. There is also a great need for exchange visits of students, professors, politicians and businessmen between the two countries. Wherever possible the Government and the business community should, through liberal grants and donations, enable such exchange of visits to take place in an increasing measure.

Most parts of the African Continent are passing through political and racial turmoil and upheaval. This unfortunately is diverting resources away from economic development. It is to be hoped that wisdom will dawn on all concerned and that the legitimate demands of Africans for political and economic emancipation will be satisfactorily met. In this struggle of Africans for Self-Government and economic growth we should, in all possible ways, render maximum assistance.