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Economic Factors in Urban Growth in Africa; the Role of Industrialization

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Items B.2 and C.1(c) of draft agenda

A. Enlargement of the money economy and urban growth in Africa

The relationship between the rise and growth of an urtan economy and the development of a money economy is axiomatic. South of the Sahara, the rise of a money economy and of urban centres is relatively recent, in most cases dating in this century, and has been directly linked to the establishment of non-African government administrations, enterprise and settlement. Although in North Africa both the money economy and urban centres have a longer history, the rise of modern cities and of a modern money economy as well as rapid urban development has, except in U.A.R. Egypt, also been, as in Africa South of the Sahara, directly linked to non-African penetration.

economy in Africa. First, this economy has been associated with modern techniques of production as well as with traditional techniques. In the latter case, subsistence production has often been combined with cash-cropping. In all African countries, the domestic economy may therefore be considered to comprise two systems which may be related in varying degrees: a modern sector and a traditional sector. The modern sector in many countries has been dominated by non-African enterprise.

Second, initially based on the production of cash crops and minerals for export, the money economy has become increasingly diversified, as commercial production in agriculture, manufacturing, building and construction and services has expanded in response to domestic demand. This demand, however, has remained largely dependent on foreign trade, directly or indirectly. Furthermore, with the notable exception of the Republic of South Africa, manufacturing activity has not developed sufficiently to become a major sector of economic activity. It follows that, having been initially grafted from the outside, the money economy in Africa has remained a tributary of overseas economies throughout the course of its more recent development.

The duality of the domestic economy and the dependence of the money economy on external stimuli-foreign trade, and non-African administration, enterprise and settlement—are reflected in the pattern of urban

development and the sharp contrast between urban life and rural life. First, in many countries, non-Africans represent a substantial proportion of total population in the large cities, although their proportion in total population may be small. More importantly, the role of non-African enterprise or settlement or both in the urban economy is considerably greater than the numerical importance of non-Africans might suggest. Second, the main function of most African cities has been to provide a link between the local money economy and overseas: hence, the preponderance of services—administrative, commercial, transport—in the economy of these cities. Although manufacturing activity, such as has existed, has been heavily concentrated in one or a few large cities, only in few cases has this activity assumed a significant role in their economy.

The money economy of most African countries has gained considerable impetus since World War II, owing to the increased demand for Africa's products and the postwar development effort sponsored by governments. The war years and the subsequent period have also witnessed an unprecedented rise in urban population throughout Africa. The rate of demographic growth since pre-war, in cities with, at present, 100,000 inhabitants and more is shown in Table 1. Taking the aggregate population of such cities by country, this rate has been fairly even in the Republic of South Africa, while in countries of North Africa, except Algeria, it has declined in the fifties as compared with the war period and early postwar years. In Tropical Africa, the trend has varied materially from country to country.

The proportion of total population living in cities with 100,000 inhabitants and more (hereafter referred to as "large cities") and 20,000 inhabitants and more is shown, for selected countries, in Table 2. The figures in the table provide an indication of the quantitative importance of urban population in recent years. It will be seen that the proportion relating to "large cities" is higher in the Republic of South Africa than elsewhere in the continent; it is appreciably higher in the countries of North Africa, except Algeria, than in countries of Tropical Africa, except Scuthern Rhodesia.

A description of the pattern of economic development and urban growth in selected countries follows. Demographic data on these countries may be found in Tables 1 and 2. Statistics on certain aspects of their economies pertinent to urbanization may be found in the remaining Tables in the appendix: Table 3, distribution of economically active population by major branches of economic activity; Table 4, distribution of wage earners by major branches of economic activity; Table 5, industrial origin of gross domestic product; and Table 6, foreign trade.

North Africa

U.A.R. stands apart, not only from the countries South of the Sahara, but also from other countries in North Africa. First, a market economy and urban centres have existed in U.A.R. for many centuries, and the foundation of a modern money economy had been laid as early as the middle of the nineteenth century. Second, in these developments neither foreign settlement nor foreign enterprise have played here as important a role as elsewhere in Africa. Finally, judging by African standards, agriculture, which is entirely Egyptian, is fairly advanced technologically, and highly commercialized, and crop yields are high.

The pattern of economic development as well as urban growth in U.A.R. have been critically dependent on climatic and geographical factors which have set severe limitations on the cultivable as well as the habitable area. From 1882 to 1927, the cultivable area increased by 16 per cent and from 1927 to 1955 by 13 per cent, while total population increased by 110 per cent and 60 per cent, respectively. The development of perennial irrigation, by making it possible to grow three crops per year, resulted in material increases in crop yields. Nevertheless, the expansion of agricultural output in the last three decades has lagged behind the population increase.

Migration from rural areas to urban centres, which had already accelerated since the middle of the 19th century, reached its peak rate during the war years, when agricultural output declined while service and industrial activity expanded substantially, stimulated by wartime

restrictions on imports and by the demand from allied forces. These wartime migratory flows were directed mainly to Cairo and Alexandria: from 1937 to 1947 the population of these cities increased, at an annual race, respectively, of 5.9 per cent and 3.4 per cent.

The postwar period has been marked by three significant developments: first, the population growth in Cairo and Alexandria has slowed down substantially, reverting to its prewar trend; second, agricultural output, which had recovered its prewar level by 1947, resumed its growth; and third, so did manufacturing activity, after a slackening in early postwar years.

Taking the period 1939-1955 as a whole, the dominant feature of economic growth in U.A.R. has been the fact that the growth pace with of output in the commodity producing sectors has barely, if about, kept/population growth would its rapidly growing population, scarce land resources and inadequate industrial development, U.A.R. has more in common with the countries of the Far East than with the rest of African countries.

Algeria, Morocco and Tunisia offer a combination of modern economy and traditional economy. Agriculture is practiced by Africans as well as non-Africans. African agriculture, which occupies the vast majority of economically active Africans, is predominantly traditional, the larger part of its output being absorbed by subsistence consumption. Non-African agriculture, on the other hand, is modern. While modern or quasi-modern agriculture is also practiced by a number of Africans, the area involved represents only a small proportion of the total area cultivated by Africans. Mining is almost entirely a non-African enterprise, with the notable exception of phosphate mining in Morocco. Manufacturing encompasses activity in industrial plants as well as handicrafts. The former is dominated by non-African enterprise; the latter is a traditional activity, and is particularly important in Morocco. Construction activity in large enterprises and organized trade are also dominated by non-Africans. African agriculture and handicrafts, which are the basis of the traditional economy in the three countries, have been stagnant; the trend in the modern sector of the economy, on the other hand, has varied from country to country.

In Morocco the modern sector experienced a remarkable expansion from prewar to 1953, which was made possible by large contributions from France, in capital, skill and entrepreneurship. From 1938 to 1953 gross domestic product, estimated at constant prices, increased at an average rate of 7.6 per cent annually, due to developments outside African agriculture. The latter suffered heavily from the drought in early postwar years. The considerable expansion of the modern sector, on the one hand, and the stagnation in African agriculture, on the other hand, suggest the development of powerful pressures favoring rural migration to the cities during the war and early postwar years. From 1936 to 1952, the population growth in the major cities averaged 5.3 per cent annually. The growth rate was in effect higher in coastal cities to which the migratory flows have been chiefly directed. In Casablanca, the capital of the modern economic sector in Morocco, in particular, the population increased by 10 per cent annually. On the other hand, the population of the older traditional cities, notably Fez and Marrakesh, located in the hinterland, remained stagnant.

The years 1952-53 mark the end of the remarkable economic expansion in Morocco. Since 1953, the economy has become stagnant, due in part to weaknesses inherent in the pattern of development and in part to the departure of a large number of non-Africans and the reluctance of non-African capital and enterprise to engage in long-term commitments From 1954 to 1958 domestic product per capita actually declined by six per cent. During this period, the rate of demographic growth in Casablanca declined by 50 per cent, but even at the reduced rate of five per cent annually, was still substantially higher than the rate of population growth in the country as a whole. There was a slowdown in demographic growth in most of the other large cities.

In Algeria, the development of a modern economy and urban growth are closely linked with non-African settlement in the nineteenth century. Already by 1886, the total number of non-Africans had been approaching the half million mark; not even at its peak in the past decade has non-African settlement in Morocco and Tunisia reached this mark. Although about one-fourth of the non-African population in Algeria lives in rural

areas, the share of this population in total urban population is high. Up to the mid-thirties, this share in effect exceeded 50 percent and was still 35 per cent in 1954. As a corollary, the dominance of non-African capital, enterprise and skill in all areas of the money economy, including commercial agriculture, has been far greater in Algeria than in Morocco and Tunisia.

The growth of urban population in Algeria in the four decades preceding 1954 has been slow. First, non-African immigration has not been important during this period. Second, notwithstanding the low productivity in the African sector of agriculture, rural migration to . the cities has not been as large as might have been expected. The disruption brought upon the modern economy by World War II, on the one hand, and large-scale migration of ligerian workers to France on the other, may have played an important part in the relatively lower rate of rural migration to the cities. Moreover, remittances by these expatriate workers to their families in rural areas also may have reduced the economic pressures favoring such migration. Since 1954, economic activity in manufacturing, building, and services has expanded materially under the impact of a large increase in military expenditures and the intensification of the development effort sponsored by the government. During this period, the population of the large cities has also increased considerably.

In Tunisia, economic activity in the last three decades has been relatively stagnant and urban growth, except for the war period, slow. The dominance of the modern economy by non-Africans is reflected in the high proportion—about 30 per cent in 1956—cf foreign population to total population of Tunis. Owing to physical destruction and other disruption caused by the war, economic activity in early postwar years was below the prewar level. Far conditions also brought about a considerable migration to the cities of the north, chiefly Tunis, whose population increased from 1936 to 1946 at the rate of 6.6 per cent annually. The urban population continued to increase at a much slower rate up to 1955; and it may have since declined due to a fall of fifty per cent in non-African population. This fall may also have caused a deterioration in seconomic dorditions.

Republic of South Africa

In the Republic of South Africa, the beginnings of a money economy to date from the early days of non-African settlement over two centuries ago. Until the discovery of cieronds in 1856, the money economy was predominantly basis on agreement, modest in scope and dependent for its growth on personal cavings. This discovery, and the beginning of gold mining in 1886, brought about profound changes in the rate and pattern of economic development, as well as in the rate of urban growth.

From the start of mining operations up to the present, except during the depression of 1929-32, economic expansion has continued almost without interruption are a high rate. At present, the per capita product is at more than three times the average level in Tropical Africa, and twice as high as in North Africa.

development, notably relains, could be secured only by large corporations; hence, the crucial role played by corporate enterprise in the Republic's development. The non-Adrican population, fied by immigration has provided the managerial, cutrepreneurial and other skilled manpower as well as some semi-skilled manpower. Non-Adrican capital and okilled manpower have been complemented by unckilled, or semi-skilled African labour. A large proportion of African wage countries on the Republic consists of temporary migrants from neighbouring countries: for example, two-thirds of Africans employed in the gold mines and coul mines in 1956 came from such countries. Notwithstanding such inflow, the labour supply has proved insufficient in the face of the rapidly growing requirements. The labour shortage is one of the important factors responsible for the slowdown of economic expansion since the mid-fif hes.

Whereas up to the end of World War I mining was the predominant dynamic sector of economic development, the period since then has been characterized by a notable shift in emphasis towards the manufacturing industry. The share of manufacturing and construction in net domestic

^{1/} From 1936 to 1959, net domestic products at current prices increased by 445 per cent, while retail and wholesale prices rose by 122 per cent and 180 per cent, respectively.

product has been in recent years equal to the share of agriculture and mining combined - 25 per cent. Industrial development has been associated with rapid demographic growth in urban centres. As early as 1911, the proportion of urban population to total population had reached 24.7 per cent; this proportion has since doubled. Demographic growth in the large cities from prewar to 1960, has been fairly steady.

Another feature of modern economic development in the Republic has been its concentration in three areas—the Witwatersrand, Transvaal and the Cape peninsula—together representing only tive per cent of the total area of the country. Among the undeveloped areas are the Native Reserves, where a large proportion of Africans reside permanently or where they return after periods of absence. The economy of these Reserves, which is traditional, based mainly on subsistence agriculture, presents a sharp contrast to the highly developed modern sector, which is dominated by non-Africans.

Tropical Africa

In spite of the low levels of income and the small proportion of urban to total population in Tropical Africa, the money economy as well as urban population in many parts of the region have expanded rapidly in the last three decades.

The region's foreign trade, which has played and still plays a dominant role in the money economy, has expanded considerably faster than that of any other region of the world. The increase from 1938 to 1958 has been 620 per cent in current value; the corresponding figure was 330 per cent for the rest of Africa, 350 per cent for the underdeveloped countries of the world, and 340 per cent for the world.

Three factors which are to some extent inter-related have provided impetus to the expansion of foreign trade as well as to the money economy in postwar years. First, development plans have been initiated in a number of countries soon after the war with a view to expanding economic overhead facilities, such as port facilities, transport and electric power. Second, there has been a material improvement in the region's terms of trade, as compared with prewar. This improvement has been particularly marked from 1948 to 1953, and despite a deterioration since

1955, it has provided a sufficient stimulus for production to expand in subsoquent years. Third, substantial amounts of foreign capital have flowed into the region. In the case of countries proviously under French administration, such capital has been mainly from public sources and has financed the greater part of domostic not invostment. In the case of countries proviously under U.K. administration, foreign capital has been mainly of private origin, and its contribution to total capital has been less important; the pattern has varied materially, however, from country to country. The available data suggest that in many countries of the region, economic growth has slackened in recent years.

B. Sconomic problems and policies relating to urbanization

The first question which arises is whether in a given country urbanizati n does actually present or is likely to present, in the foresee-able future, urgent problems requiring immediate attention and if so, what they are. If such problems do exist or may be anticipated, then the question arises as to what measures should be taken to deal with them appropriately. While these questions are obvious, an attempt to provide them with adequate answers will face uncertainities concerning the future trend in urbanization and the effect which specific policy measures may have on these trends. Rather than attempt to propose such answers for individual countries this paper seeks to clarify some of the issues involved and to indicate specific questions which require further investigation.

The nature of the problems arising from urbanization. Sometimes, the question is raised as to whether a country is overurbanized in relation to the stage of its economic development and the answer is sought in historical comparisons with similar conditions in Europe. The validity of such comparisons is dubious, since such comparisons are of little value in dealing with the specific problems which arise. Conditions prevailing in a given country will provide a far better indication of the existence, nature and extent of the problems arising from urbanization: for example, the pattern of urban growth; the employment situation in the cities; the adequacy or inadequacy of existing social and economic overheads in relation to needs; and the office of rural migration on agricultural output and on economic and social conditions in rural areas in general.

Whether the proportion of urban population to total population is small, as in nearly all countries of Tropical Africa, or higher, as

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in North African countries, the pattern of urban growth has been generally characterized by the rapid growth of one or a few urban centres, in the face of the slow growth or, in some cases, stagnation of other cities, particularly those which failed to share in the development of the money economy. Unless ways and means are smaller rural found to develop some of these secondary urban centres and also a number of towner— so as to provide poles of attraction to curb excessive migration to the rapidly growing large cities, these will continue to expand beyond the point at which severe internal diseconomies arise.

Quantitative data indicating the extent of urban unemployment and / whatever exact meaning is attached to these concepts—in African countries are lacking. Statistics on the number of persons officially registered as seeking jobs or as unemployed are available for a number of countries; such statistics are, however, very inadequate. From the description of growth trends, economic as well as demographic, which has been presented earlier, certain conclusions relating to unemployment may be derived. All indications point to the existence of severe unemployment in the large cities of North Africa, notably Casablanca, Tunis, Cairo and Alexandria.

In the case of Casablanca, a sample survey undertaken in 1958 corroborates this conclusion; it has been found that about 20 per cent of the economically active population of this city was unemployed at the time. According to official sources, 300,000 persons were unemployed in Tunisia in 1956, most of them in Tunis. Although it is not clear how this estimate has been derived, there can be no doubt that unemployment in Tunis has been far more severe than in Casablanca. A slackening in economic activity appears to have also occurred since the mid-fifties in many countries of Tropical Africa, and it is probable that unemployment in many large cities has increased. Dakar and Brazzaville, in particular, which had been capitals of large federations, may have suffered from the loss of this status. However, these are only conjectures, and there is need for devising ways and means whereby the employment as situation in large cities may be assessed.

The distribution of the available social overhead in urban agglomerations and their adequacy in relation to population vary materially from one section of these agglomerations to another. In

most of Africa South of the Sahara, cities consisted originally of an administrative centre, commercial districts, and residential districts intended for the habitation of non-Africans. Living facilities for Africans were provided either on a temporary basis within the city limits or in nearby villages. Legal separation of residence was the rule in certain territories of Central and Southern Africa, although this rule was not strictly applied in all cases. Even where there was no legal separation, as in the cities of West Africa under British administration or in cities under French or Portugese administration, there was in many cases practical separation due to economic factors.

The rapid rise of urban populations in the last three decades brought about material changes in urban patterns. Housing, water, and electricity supply, garbage disposal and sewage and other facilities became inadequate even in the modern residential districts, since in many cases the European population greatly increased while in some cities a number of well-to-do Africans moved to these districts. In most cases, however, a large proportion or even the majority of Africans still live in crowded settlements which have developed within the city or, more often, on its periphery. Such settlements have grown up without any plan, except possibly layout of streets and provision of water.

Although in most cities, a considerable effort has been made in recent years to improve housing and sanitary facilities, notably the water supply and the sewage system, such facilities have proved inadequate in the face of the rapid demographic growth, and in general have not been extended as yet to the majority of African settlements.

In most North African urban agglomerations the modern business and residential districts have developed outside the old city (Medina) while in some cases, notably Casablanca, shanty-towns have grown up on the periphery of the city. The majority of Africans live in the Medinas and shanty-towns. In these cities, as in the cities South of the Sahara, in spite of the great efforts to improve overhead facilities, these remain inadequate and have not kept pace with the needs of the continually increasing population.

Whether or not in African countries rural migration towards cities has actually affected agricultural output unfavorably cannot be said on the basis of the information that is available at the present time. It is probable that the outflow of rural Africans may have resulted, in certain cases, in a decline in output in traditional agriculture. Both the emergence of a need for imports and a fall in exports caused by a decline in agricultural output, would reduce the amount of foreign exchange available for development and, consequently, the pace of development itself, either directly, through the setting of a lower development targets, or if these targets are not consistent with the amount of foreign exchange available for financing needed imports, indirectly, as a result of inflationary pressures which would arise.

Policy measures dealing with communic problems arising from urbanization

These measures may be classified in three sategories, depending on the effect which is expected of them: (a) measures which are aimed at reducing rural migration and, consequently, urban growth in general; specifically (b) measures which are aimed at slowing down demographic growth in the large cities (100,000 inhabitants and more); and (c) measures dealing with the problems arising in these cities because of the high rate of population growth. Insefer as rural development may be conducive towards reducing rural migration, it falls in category one as well as category two. Apart from rural development, among measures in category two is the development of urban centres other than the large cities, which, by providing poles of attraction for the rural population, might divert rural migrants from the cities or even draw away residents of such cities. Prominent among measures in category three are those dealing with urban employment,

The far greater proportion of agriculture practiced by Africans has so far been left outside the main areas of development. Whether were commercialized, as in Ghana, or predominantly subsistence, as in most other countries of the continent. African agriculture has remained technologically stagnant. While the technological level of this agriculture varies from area to area it is generally more developed in

North Africa than in most parts of Tropical Africa-it is essentially primitive. In North Africa, cultivation involves the use of animal power and simple farm implements, such as hoes and wooden ploughs, while crop rotation and proper utilization of water resources are generally ignored, and fertilizers, selected seeds and seedlings scarcely used. South of the Sahara, where extensive belts infested by the tsetse fly preclude the use of animals in agriculture, production is based chiefly on ranual labour, which is carried out frequently with no other implement than the hoe. Outside the tsetse-infested areas, cropping may be carried on by means of animal power and ploughs. Production involves sometimes mere gathering of wild fruits -- for example, wild coffee and palm fruit. Throughout the region are practiced different forms of shifting cultivation. In most instances, after several years of cultivation, the land is allowed to revert to bush while another plot is cleared. The length of the cycle varies, depending to some extent on the pressure of population. Such shifting cultivation results in destruction of forestry resources, waste of land, and, where the fallow period has been reduced considerably, in soil exhaustion; as a corollary, it contributes to soil erosion. As with cropping, so with livestock farming: the feeding, management and breeding techniques are defective in North Africa as well as South of the Sahara. As a reflection of these low technological levels of cultivation and stock raising, crop yields in African agriculture are among the lowest in the world and animal production is very low in relation to the size of livestock.

Much can be accomplished in rural development with little capital—for example, through improvement of agricultural techniques, small rural water works, research to eradicate animal and plant diseases, organized effort, and, where appropriate, some institutional changes. On the other hand, considerable investment may be required for developing the requisite infra-structure facilities—for example, transport facilities to link the rural areas to markets—which are practically non-existent or severely deficient in areas of African agriculture in most countries.

The development of African agriculture and of rural life is at once a compelling need, and, provided a market exists for increased output, a promising economic prospect. The majority of Africans live in rural areas, and will continue to live there in the foreseeable future. The raising of their economic and social standards of living is an urgent problem. Increased rural incomes will result in increased demand for the products of the urban economy and, consequently, in increased opportunities for urban employment. The need for vigorous rural development has been generally recognized by governments in Africa. Some of these governments have already initiated or are contemplating bold programmes: for example, in Senegal the new development plan envisages the creation of primate villages, each with its satellite villages, and endowed with certain of the facilities to be found in towns.

It is difficult to foresee what the effect of rural development might be on rural migration in coming years. It may be argued that such development would provide the rural African with an alternative as well as the facilities to satisfy some of his needs locally. to employment outside agriculture,/ This view derives a good measure of plausibility from the fact that large numbers of wage earners in Africa and probably the majority of wage-earners in certain parts of Africa South of the Sahara are migrant workers from rural areas where they eventually return. Although the system of migrant labour has made it possible for rural Africans to acquire money income while maintaining their ties with their rural environment, it has also contributed to the development of money incentives among subsistence communities. So long as such incentives are finding limited response, the system of migrant labour and cash-cropping are likely to reduce the pressures for permanent migration. However, many of the generalizations regarding the responses to money incentives, tastes and needs of rural Africans, which may have been quasi-universally valid in the earlier days of the money economy, have to be very much qualified today. A more widespread development of and acquired tastes money incentives/among rural Africans induced, in part, by the very growth of rural incomes, may intensify the urge for permanent migration. Apart from economic factors, other factors may stimulate such urge: for example, the spread of rural education.

Since rural development involves/the raising of agricultural productivity and consequently an increase in agricultural output, the question arises as to how this output will be disposed of. If the development

is intended merely to raise the level of food consumption among rural communities, this will not provide the rural African with increased cash incomes. If, on the other hand, the increased output is intended for sale, it remains to be seen whether it will meet with an increased demand, either domestic or foreign. Unless such demand is forthcoming—for example, in the case of domestic demand through industrialization—an increase in agricultural productivity on any significant scale will result in unemployment of the farm labour released by the increase in rural productivity.

It follows that while the case for rural development is sound for reasons which are not necessarily related to urbanization, it is uncertain whether such development would be an effective countermeasure to slow down rural migration.

Whatever the effects of rural development on rural migration, there can be no doubt that rural migration will continue in coming years on a significant scale. The development of existing urban centres, other than the rapidly growing large cities, or of new urban centres would, as has been mentioned earlier, provide poles of attraction to divert rural migrants from these large cities and may even draw away residents of such cities. Regional planning provides the most promising approach to this problem. This means that in the national plan, high priority will have to be given to projects which will contribute to the economic and social development of smaller and dispersed urban centres, directly or indirectly, through the development of the regions to which the particular urban economy is or may be linked.

The productive employment of urban population of working age at present unemployed of under-employed already poses a formidable problem which will grow in importance in the coming years, owing to natural demographic growth and continued migration from rural areas. Although the general trend of employment opportunities in urban centres will depend primarily on the pace of over-all commonic development, in producing a given commodity, two types of choice may present themselves,

The expression "Regional planning" means integrated economic, social and physical planning on a regional scale. The need for integrated planning has been stressed by the litted Nations Seminar on Regional Planning (UN document ST/TAA/SER, C/35) to which reference might be made

the outcome of which will affect the level of urban employment: the choice of location and the choice of technology.

Certain types of activity, notably many branches of manufacturing, are not physically bound to a given location in the sense in which agriculture or mining are, so that locational alternatives may appear to exist in such cases. Proceeding from this premise, it may be argued that dispersion of manufacturing activity which has so far been heavily concentrated in a few large cities is likely to produce two desirable results: on the one hand, it might reduce the attraction of such cities for would-be migrants and, consequently, relieve the pressure upon the facilities of economic and social overhead in the cities; on the other hand, it would facilitate the development of hitherto under-developed areas—rural or urban—of the country.

While these arguments are cogent, there are other factors which, as is well known, favour concentration of manufacturing activity in the large cities. The urgent need for providing increased employment opportunities in urban centres has been noted; manufacturing normally constitutes the main activity that could provide scope for productive employment, although it is not generally labour-intensive and is not likely to provide in the short-run, a solution for unemployment. Moreover, although manufacturing activity, as a rule, is not physically bound to a given location, a number of considerations may restrict severely the range of locational alternatives; such as availability of labour, skilled as well as unskilled; of basic facilities, such as power, transportation, and industrial water; ready access to procurement of machinery and equipment and spare parts, intermediate goods, repair and maintenance, and the proximity of markets for the manufactured products. The concentration of industrial establishments results in external economies which enhance the profitability of the individual enterprise as well as that of the complex. For this reason, so long as an existing industrial complex has not reached a critical size beyond which internal diseconomies will arise, it will be more profitable to engage in further concentration than to spread the new establishments thinly over areas where no significant industrial development has taken place and no facilities are available.

The development of a new industrial site may be economically profitable, however, when a combination of factors favour the creation of a sizable industrial complex. For example, the Kiouli project in the Congo (Brazzaville) envisages the creation of one such complex in and around Pointe-Moire.

All these factors--which are often of a conflicting nature-in the problem of location of industries in relation to the pattern of urbanization, deserve serious consideration. The views expressed in the Ghana Second Development Plan regarding industrial location, probably reflect those of many African Governments: "Although it is the Government's policy to give priority to the industrial concentration in five towns.... so that industry may be able to enjoy the economies which emerge when a large number of factories are sited together (cheaper electricity, communication, water, finance, marketing and engineering services). nevertheless, it is not intended that new factories should be established exclusively in the (five) main towns" Once extreme positions advocating concentration on the one hand, and dispersion, on the other, have been rejected, it may be investigated as to what types of industrial activity would favour concentration and what types would lend themselves to a reasonable measure of dispersion; the latter may, apart from factory production in specific areas of activity, take the form of village workshops or rural cottage industries.

In producing a given commodity--good or service--there may be a number of technological alternatives from which to choose. For example, in many areas of engineering activity-building, construction, earth-moving--it is possible to substitute in considerable measure labour for machinery. Such substitution is also feasible in certain branches of manufacturing. The use of processes which are capital-saving and labour-intensive will, ceteris paribus, contribute to employment. Such use may also involve saving in skilled manpower which is scarce in Africa.

The creation of increased employment opportunities will, however, solve only partly the problem of urban unemployment. A basic feature

^{1/} Ghana Second Development Plan, 1957-64 (Accra)

^{2/} For a more detailed discussion of the relationship between technological alternatives and employment; see, for instance: ILO, Employment Objectives in Economic Development, Geneva, 1961.

common to the vast majority of the african labour force is the lack of specialization, owing to the low level of technical skills and the high degree of occupational instability. The rapid growth of urban centres in recent decades, implies that a large proportion, and in many cases, the majority of Africans living in such centres have had no occupational background outside agriculture. Furthermore, a large proportion of the labour force in many urban areas are temporary migrants who eventually return to their villages. It follows that while training for specialized occupations is at once an urgent need and a formidable task, the geographical mobility of many African wage-earners is a complicating factor.

Summary and conclusion

The provision of employment for large numbers of persons at present unemployed or under-employed already poses an immediate problem in many large cities. This problem will grow in importance in coming years owing to rapid demographic growth which will be fed by continued rural migration on a significant scale. Equally urgent is the need in most cities for improving economic and social overhead facilities. The creation of new employment opportunities and the improvement of overhead facilities in the cities will provide an answer to the immediate problem. In the longer run, the availability of cash-earning opportunities which enhances the attraction of the large city to rural Africans will continue to stimulate rural migration and exert further pressure to provide new employment opportunities and further investment in social and economic overhead, thus creating a chronic problem.

Thus, parallel with such measures as are needed to cope with the immediate problems, a long-term solution must be sought with a view to providing an adequate economic basis for the secular growth of the cities and at the same time slowing-down urban growth in general, and in particular that of the large cities. The achieving of the first objective involves, inter alia, industrialization. To achieve the second objective, it is necessary to develop (a) rural centres; and (b) urban centres, other than the rapidly growing large cities, which would provide poles of

attraction to divert rural migrants from these cities. Both objectives should be pursued within the framework of the national plan, with particular emphasis where required, on regional planning.

In order that policy measures may be applied with a reasonably clear realization of the problems which are being faced or are anticipated, and of the effects which they are likely to produce, much information that is now lacking is required. This does not mean that no measures should be taken until such information has been made available; rather, that parallel with such measures are urgently needed, ways and means should be found to secure the requisite information. One area of investigation is the unemployment situation in cities. Another is the effect of rural development on rural migration. If rural development is undertaken on a modest scale, will it provide the rural African with an alternative to cash-earning in the cities? If undertaken on a significant scale, the questions arise as to whether (a) it will not lead to an accelerated spread of money incentives which would provide a stimulus for migration; (b) it will not result in increased rural unemployment through the elimination of marginal workers and (c) there will be a sufficient demand for the increased agricultural output. A third area of investigation is the type of manufacturing which is suitable for large urban centres with abundant labour supply, a ready. market for manufactured products, the existence of some economic overheads and of a nucleus of industrial activity; and the type of manufacturing which would lend itself preferably to a dispersed pattern, notably rural cottage industries and workshops. A fourth area of investigation is the choice of technology suitable to labour supply conditions in urban centres. Such choice may arise not only in manufacturing, but also in other fields of activity, notably building and large-scale engineering works related to overhead investment. A fifth area is the magnitude of investments in economic and social overhead involved in the establishment of minimum facilities to sustain the rise in urban populations. Finally, ways and means will have to be explored for developing rural centres to slow down rural migration to cities, and smaller urban centres, notably agro-cities, to divert rural migrants from the large and hypertrophiedurban agglomerations.

The industrial estate would be a useful instrument for the development of the rural and urban centres which would provide poles of attraction to divert rural migrants from the rapidly growing large cities. See Establishment of Industrial Estates in Under-Developed Countries, United Nations Publication, Sales No.: 60.11.8.4.

Table 1 Africa: Cities of 100,000 and More Inhabitants in Recent Years (Population, in Thousands; C-city A-agglomeration)

	Pr	ewar	Immediate	mediate Postwar		Immediate Postwar		Years		Average annual percen	stage of Increase &	
	Year	Population	Year	Population	Year	Population	Period	Increase (per cent)	Period	Increase (Per cent		
North Africa		1								<u> </u>		
Algeria: Alger	C 1936	264	1948	266 1/	1954	361	1936 _ 1948	0,1				
Bône	C 1936	86	1948 1948	489 78 1/	1959 1954	810 114	1936 - 1948	- 0.8	1948 - 1959 1948 - 1954	6.0 7.7		
Constantine	C 1936	113	1948 1948	103 80 1/	1959 1954	130 149	1936 - 1948	- 2,4	1948 - 1959 1948 - 1954	2.4 14.4		
Oran	C 1936	201	1948 1948 1948	119 245 ½	1959 1954 1959	238 299 370	1936 1948	1.8	1948 - 1959 1948 - 1954 1948 - 1959	9.1 3.7 3.2		
Sidi—bel—Abbēs	C 1936	55	1948	273 61	1959	115	1936 - 1948	0.9	1948 - 1959	8.0		
Lybia: Tripoli	C				1957	170			Ì			
Morocco: Casablanca Fås Marrakech Meknås Oujda Rabat Tanger Tetouan	C 1936 C 1936 C 1936 C 1936 C 1936 C 1936 C 1936	257 144 190 75 34 83	1951-52 1951-52 1951-52 1951- 5 2 1951- 5 2 1951-52	682 179 215 140 80 156	1960 1960 1960 1960 1960 1960 1960	961 216 242 177 129 225 142 101	1936 - 1952 1936 - 1952 1936 - 1952 1936 - 1952 1936 - 1952 1936 - 1952	10.4 1.5 0.8 5.4 8.4 5.5	1952 - 1960 1952 - 1960 1952 - 1960 1952 - 1960 1952 - 1960 1952 - 1960 1945 - 1960	5.1 2.6 1.6 3.3 7.6 5.5		
Tunisia: Tunis	C 1936	220	1946	365	1956	410	1936 - 1946	6.6	1946 1956	1.2		
J <u>.A.R. Egypt</u> : Alexandria	C 1937	686	1947	919	1959	1335	1937 – 1947	3.4	1947 - 1959	3.8		
Anyut	C 1937	60	1947	90	1959	121	1937 - 1947	5.0	1947 – 1959	2.9		
Cairo	C 1937	1312	1947	2091	1959	2852	1937 - 1947	5.9	1947 - 1959	3.0		
Damanhur Elmahalla El Kubra	C 1937	62	1947 1947	84 116	1959 1959	124 160	1937 - 1947	3.5	1947 - 1959 1947 - 1959	4.0 3.2		
Giza	C 1937	38	1947	66	1959	174 111 2/	1937 ~ 1947	7-4	1947 - 1959	13.6		
Imbaba Ismailia	C 1937	37	1947	68	1957 1959	111 =	1937 - 1947	8.4	1947 - 1959	5.5		
Mansura	C 1937	69	1947	102	1959	144	1937 - 1947	4.8	1947 - 1959	3•4		
Port Said	C 1937	155 *	1947	178	1959	226	1937 - 1947	1.5	1947 - 1959	2.3		
Suez	C 1937	50	1947	107	1959	152	1937 - 1947	11.4	1947 - 1959	3.5		
Tanta	C 1937	95	1947	140	1959	175	1937 - 1947	4.7	1947 - 1959	2.1		
Zagazig	C 1937	60	1947	82	1959	121	1937 - 1947	3.7	1947 - 1959	4.0		

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Table 1 Africa: Cities of 100,000 and More Inhabitants in Recent Years (Population, in Thousands; C-city A-agglomeration) (continued)

	Pre	war	Immedia	te Postwar	Recent	Years		Average annual percentag	ge of Increase #	
	Year	Population	Year	Population	Year	Population	Period	Increase (Per cent)	Period	Increase (Per cent
Western Africa				1						
Angola: Luanda	C 1930	51	1950	142	1955	190	1930 - 1950	8.9		
Cameroun (Yaoundé): Douala	C 1931	28	•		1956	125	1931 - 1956	12,4		
Congo (Brazzaville): Brazzaville	C 1936	24	1946	62	1959	100	1936 - 1946	15.8	1946 – 1959	4.7
Ghana: Accra Килаві	C 1936	71	1948	136	1960 1960	338 187	1936 - 1948	7.6	1948 - 1960	12.4
Guinea: Conakry	C 1936	13	1946	26	1960 1960	43 110 4/	.1936 1946	10.0	1946 - 1960	4.6
Ivory Coast: Abidjan	C 1933	18	1946	46	1955 1958	119 155	1933 - 1946	12.0	1946 - 1955	17.6
Nigeria: Ibadan Ife Iwo Kano Lagos Ogbomosho Oghogbo	C 1936 C 1931 C 1931 C 1931 C 1936 C 1931 C 1931	387 24 57 89 137 87 50	1950	230 2/	1952 1952 1952 1952 1960 1952 1952	459 110 100 130 364 140 5 123	1936 - 1952 1931 - 1952 1931 - 1952 1931 - 1952 1936 - 1950 1931 - 1952 1931 - 1952	1.2 17.0 3.6 2.2 4.9 2.9 7.0	1950 - 1960	5.8
Senegal: Dakar	C 1936	92	1948	185	1960	383	1936 - 1948	8.3	1948 - 1960	9.0
Sierra Leone: Freetown	C		1947	65	1959	100			1947 - 1959	4.5
Central Africa Congo (Léopoldville) Elieabethville Léopoldville Laluaburg Stanleyville	C C 1938 C C	36	1947 1947	62 119	1959 1959 1959 1959	184 402 115 127	1938 – 1947	25.6	1947 - 1959 1947 - 1959	16.4
Fed, of Rhodesia and Nyasaland; S. Rhodesia: Bulawayo Salisbury	C A G A		1946 1946 1946 1946	47 7/ 53 7/ 54 7/ 69 7/	1959 1959 1959 1959	;;;			1946 - 1959 1946 - 1959	19.8

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Sources: United Nations Demographic Yearbook, 1960, New York 1960; United Nations Report on the World Social Situation, New York, 1957; Ministry of Finance and Economy, Statistical and Census Department, Population Census of Egypt, 1947, General Notes, Cairo, 1954; Ministere de la France d'Outre-Mer, Service des Statistiques, Annuaire Statistique de l'Union Française, 1949-54 Fascicule I, Paris 1955; Ministère de la France d'Outre-Mer, Service des Statistiques, Outre-Mer 1958, Tableau Economique et Social des Etats et Territoires d'Outre-Mer, Paris 1959; Republic of South Africa, Bureau of Census and Statistics, Union Statistics for Fifty Years, Pretoria, March 1960; Delégation Cénérale du Gouvernement en Algérie, Direction du Flan et des Etudes Economiques, Plan de Constantine 1959-1963, Alger, June 1960, Republique du Sénégal, Service de la Statistique et de la Mécanographie, Bulletin Statistique et Economique Mensuel, March 1961.

L/ Excludes persons in institutions

2/ Data are based on a pre-censal house listing

Lagos township, comprising Lagos Island and Lagos mainland

African population only

Data refer to non-indigenous population and "Africans in employment" only

Comprises Khartoum, Khartoum North and Omdurman

A The percentages of increase have been computed, taking as a basis the first year of reference. e.g. the population of Salisbury increased between 1946 and 1959 by a yearly average of about 15,500 inhabitants i.e. 22.5% of 1946 population.

Based on results of municipal census of 1955-56 of African population, which gave total of 119,000 including 5 per cent adjustment for under-enumeration, and of census of 15 January 1957 of non-indigenous de jure population, which gave total of 5,734.

4/ Comprises city proper, suburbs and Iles des Loos

Table 2 Africa: Total Population in Localities of 100,000 and more and 20,000 and more Inhabitants (Thousands of Persons)

		Total	Non-	Localit	ies of 100, abitants	,000 +		ies of 20,00)O +
Country	Year	Population	African Population	Number	Popula	ation		Populat	ion
		opulation	[Opulation	namooz	Aggregate	‰f Total	Number	Aggregate	% of Total
Northern Africa Algeria U.A.R. Egypt	1954 ¹ /1958(E)	9145 24781	984 ₂ /	4 12	902 5494	9•9 22•2	943/	8495 <u>3</u> /	36.93/
Libya Morocco Northern Zone	1957(E) 1950	1136 1010 80044/	85 85	1	170	15.0		177	 17.5
Southern Zone Tunisia Vestern Africa	1951 – 52 1956	378 3	357 255	6 1	1539 410	19.2 10.8	²² 6/	²¹⁵⁹ 6/	27.0 ₆ /
Angola Cameroum (Yaoundé) Central African Republic Chad Congo (Brazzaville) Dahomey Gabon Gambia	1955(E) 1956(E) 1956(E) 1956(E) 1956(E) 1956(E) 1958(E)	4363 3188 1127 2584 759 1713 404 289	140I/ 17 6 5 10 3 4	1 1 - - - -	190 119 - - -	4.3 3.7 - - - -	2 1 1 2 2 -	177 80 47 137 87 -	5.6 7.1 1.8 18.1 5.1
Ghana Guinea I vory Coast Liberia	1960 1960(E) 1956(E)	6691 3000 2483	7 <u>8/</u> 10 <u>9/</u> 12	2 1 1	525 ₁₀ / 110 128	7.8 3.7 5.2	2	170	6.8
Mali Mauritania Nigeria Sénégal Sierra Leone Togo Upper Volta	1956(B) 1956(E) 1956(E) 1952-53 1956(E) 1956(E) 1956(E)	3708 616 2415 29716 2319 2400 1094 3326	7 2 3 <u>12</u> / 49 1 4	7 1 1	1333 235 100	- - 4.5 10.1 4.2 -	2 - 1 2	88 - - 440 40 77	2.4 - 19.0 3.7 2.3
Contral Africa Congo (Leopoldville) Fed. of Rhodesia and Nyasaland:	1959(E)	13984	114	4	828	5•9	14	1271	9•1
Nyasaland N. Rhodesia S. Rhodesia Ruanda-Urundi	1960(E) 19 50 1958(E) 1959(E)	2830 1860 2920 4780	22 <u>13</u> / 41 222 <u>14</u> /	2	- 435	14.9	- 6 	206	11.0
Eastern Africa Ethiopia Kenya Madagascar Mauritius Mozambique Reunion Somalia Sudan Tanganyika Uganda Zanzibar & Pemba	1956(E) 1959(E) 1959(E) 1958(E) 1956(E) 1954 1959(E) 1956 1957 1960(E) 1958	20000 6450 5287 614 6105 274 1990 1026317 878817 6682 299	279 <u>15</u> / 74 <u>9</u> / 122 <u>18</u> / 92 <u>19</u> /	1 2 1 1 1	500 413 248 - - - 246 129	2.5 6.4 4.7 	 6 4 1 4 11 2	420 168 99 123 285 76 58	7.9 27.4 1.6 45.0 3.2 1.1
Southern Africa Bechuansland Basutoland South West Africa Swaziland Rep. of South Africa	1946 1960(E) 1958(E) 1956 1960	293 685 539 237 <u>21</u> / 15841	66 6 3108	11	- - - 4017	25-4	1 1 38	23 29 5210	7.8 5.4 32.9

Sources: U.N. Demographic Yearbook, 1960, New York 1960; U.N. Demographic Yearbook 1955, New York, 1955;
Central Statistical Office, Salisbury, Monthly Digest of Statistics No. 3 June, 1961; Ministère de la France d'Outre-Mer, Service des Statistiques, Annuaire Statistique de l'Union Française 1949-54 Volume 1, Paris 1956; East Africa High Commission, The East African Statistical Department, Quarterly Economic and Statistical Bulletin, No. 52, June 1961, Nairobi, 1961; Ministère de l'Economie Nationale, Service Central des Statistiques, Recensement Demographique (Juin 1960), Rabat 1961; Haut Commissariat de la République en Afrique Occidentale Française, A.O.F. 1957 Tableaux Economiques.

Footnotes - Table 2 Africa:

- 1/ Excluding persons in institutions (42,917), personnel in military establishments (53,374), merchant seamen (872), armed forces and diplomatic personnel stationed outside country and some of the Moslem workers in France.
- 2/ For 1957; 121,000 Europeans, 18,000 others.
- 3/ For 1957.
- 4/ For 1951, Moroccan Jewish and Non-Moroccan population; for 1952, de jure count of Moroccan Moslem population.
- 5/ Excluding Algerian refugees temporarily in the country estimated at about 180,000 in 1959.
- 6/ For localities of 25,000 or more inhabitants.
- 7/ For 1956, 110,000 Europeans, 30,000 others.
- 8/ For 1956, 7,000 Europeans.
- 9/ For 1956.
- 10/ Based on results of municipal census.
- 11/ African population only.
- 12/ For 1956, 10,000 Europeans.
- 13/ Europeans 9,300, Coloureds 1,700, Asians 11,000.
- 14/ Europeans 207,000, Coloureds 9,100, Asians 5.600.
- 15/ Europeans 66,400, Indo-Pakistanis and Goans 169,900, Arabs 37,100, others 5,900.
- Data are results of sample census of population covering 1,700,000 persons, representing 10 per cent of rural and nomad population and 100 of that in 68 towns.
- 17/ Excluding non-African armed forces.
- 18/ Europeans 20,700, Indo-Pakistanis and Goans 77,600, Arabs 19,700, others 3,900.
- 19/ Europeans 11,700, Indo-Pakistanis and Goans 76,200, Arabs 2,000, others 2,500.
- 20/ For 1959.
- 21/ Population actually enumerated, including adjustment for under enumeration estimated at 8 per cent.

Table 3. Africa: Distribution of Economically Active Population, Selected Countries (Percentage unless otherwise stated; E denotes estimate)

Country	Year	Total Active Population (Thousands of persons)	Non- African Active Population (Thousands of persons)	Agriculture	Mining	Manufac- turing	Construc- tion	Services & Other
Northern Africa Algeria Morocco Tunisia U.A.R. Egypt	1954 1952 1956 1947	3512 2899 1328 6477	355 138 ² / 107	75 71 68 64	.6 1	4 7 6 10	2 3 2 1.7	18.6 18.4 23 24.1
Western Africa Central African Republic Chad Congo (Brazzaville) Gabon Nigeria	1957 E 1957 E 1957 E 1957 E 1952/53	565 1341 352 233 8284		83 88 76 80 78		9 6 9 12 22		8 6 15 8
Central Africa Congo (Leopoldville) Fed.of Rhodesia & Nyasaland Northern Rhodesia Southern Rhodesia Nyasaland	1955 E	6232	33	35	1.4	2.8	2.1	8.7
Eastern Africa Mauritius Mozambique	1952 1950	164.9 1694	71 ² /	44 74	-1	14, 5	8 1.1	34 19•8
Southern Africa Rep. of South Africa	1951	4593	1/483	33	11	11		39.8

^{1/} Southern Zone 2/ 1951 3/ 1955 figures Southern Zone only

Source: International Labour Office, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Geneva, 1960; United Nations, Economic Survey of Africa Since 1950, New York, 1959; Federal Government of Nigeria, Economic Survey of Nigeria, 1959, Lagos, 1959; Haut Commissariat de la République en Afrique Equatoriale Française, L'A.E.F. Economique et Sociale, 1947-58, Editions Alain, 1959.

Table 4. Africa: Distribution of Wage Earners by Major Branches of Economic Activity (Thousands of Persons)

		Total	Non-African		Source	of Employment			Wage Earners
Country	Year	Wage Earners	Wage Earners	Agriculture	Mining	Manufacturing	Construc- tion	Services and Other	as % of Total Population
Northern Africa Algeria Morocco Tunisia U.A.R. Egypt	1954 1952 1956 1959	1297 928 502 3203	262	604 353 180 1130	14 18 14	112 98 42 528	77 76 22 166	490 383 244 1379	14 12 12 13
Western Africa Angola Cameroun (Yaoundé) Central African Republic Chad Congo (Brazzaville) Dahomey Gabon Ghana Guinea Ivory Coast Mali Mauritania Niger Nigeria Sénégal Sierra Leone Togo Upper Volta	1958 1957 1957 1957 1957 1957 1957 1959 1957 1957	322 140 50 35 63 22 42 325 109 171 42 5 14 473 100 39 12 25	6.4 1.8 1.8 2.6 .6 2.3 6 3 7 1.4 .3 1.4 10.6	12 13 55 32 90 7 146 5	232/3 6 - 1 - 6 32 3 2 - 41 1 7	17 12 7 5 6 1 2 22 4 8 	134652461 161151491129115	67 17 23 39 17 155 54 60 25 4 8 251 69 23 17	7 4 10 7 4 6 1 1 1 4 2 1 1
Central Africa Congo (Leopoldville) Federation of Rhodesia	1958	1102		313	87	102	105	495	8
and Nyasaland Northern Rhodesia Southern Rhodesia Nyasaland Ruanda—Urundi	1959 1959 1959 1958	290 730 185 110	34 92 6	38 244 81 24	48 53 11	25 97 17 6	54 69 23 13	125 267 64 56	12 24 7 2
Bastern Africa Kenya Madagascar Mozambique Tanganyika Uganda	1959 1957 1955 1959	597 243 577 428 239	60 11.1 34 38.5 15	254 72 120 220 56	5 5 5 10 5	54 18 35, 20 ⁴ / 24	19 18 173/ 11 32	265 130 ₃ / 683/ 167 121	9 5 10 5 4
Southern Africa Rep. of South Africa	1957	•••	***	1112	555	6 98	115	•••	***

Southern Zone only 1955 figures

Sources: International Labour Office, Yearbook of Labour Statistics, Geneva, 1960; Ministère de la France d'Outre-Mer, Service des Statistiques, Tableau Economique et Social des Etats et Territoires d'Outre-Mer, 1958, Republic Arabe Unie, Comité de la Planification Nationale, Cadre du Plan Quinquennal General, 1960-65, Cairo, 1960; Republic of South Africa, Bureau of Census and Statistics, Monthly Bulletin of Statistics, Vol. XL, No. 7, Pretoria, July 1961; Republic of South Africa, Bureau of Census and Statistics, Union Statistics for Fifty Years, Pretoria, March 1960; East Africa High Commission, The East African Statistical Department, Quarterly Economic and Statistical Bulletin, No. 52, Nairobi, June 1961; Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Central Statistical Office, Monthly Digest of Statistics, No. 3, Salisbury, June 1961; Chana, Central Bareau of Statistics, Quarterly Digest of Statistics, Accra, June 1961; Rigeria, Federal Office of Statistics, Report on Employment and Earnings Enquiry, Lagos, September 1959; Congo (Leopoldville), Ranque Centrale du Congo Belge et du Ruanda-Urundi, Rapport sur les Opérations de l'Exercice Social 1959-Mai 1960; Royaume de Belgique, Ministère du Congo Belge et du Ruanda-Urundi, Direction des Études Economiques, La Situation Economique du Congo Belge et du Ruanda-Urundi en 1958; UK Colonial Office, Sierra Leone, Report for the Year 1958, London 1962; Provincia de Angola, Direcção Provincial dos Serviços de Economia e Estatística Geral, Anuario Estatistico, 1958, Inanda, 1959; Provincia de Moçambique, Direcção dos Serviços de Economia e Estatística Geral, Anuario Estatístico, 1958.

¹⁹⁵⁰ figures 3/ 1950 figures 4/ Including electricity

		Total	Ir	dustrial i	<u>Dist</u> ribution	n (Per cent o	of Total)
Country	Year	(Million \$U.S.)	Agricul- ture	Mining	Manufac- turing	Construc- tion	Service & Others
North Africa Algeria Morocco Tunisia U.A.R. Egypt	Av. 156-58 Av. 156-58 Av. 156-58 Av. 154-56	25001/ 16901/ 6592/ 25772	24 34 34 34	3 6 4	10 17 11 11	6 5 4 3	57 38 47 51
<u>Western Africa</u> French West Africa (former) Nigeria	1956 1956	2240 2262	69 63	•5 1.2	5 2•4	4 11	21.5 22.4
Central Africa Congo (Leopoldville) Federation of Rhodesia & Nyasaland	Av. 157-59 Av. 157-59	1179 1320	28 20	19 18	13 10	6 8	34 44
Eastern Africa Ethiopia ²⁵ Kenya Tanganyika Uganda Mauritius	Av. 156-58 Av. 157-59 Av. 157-59 Av. 157-59 Av. 156-58	614 589 474 ₅ / 324	77 42 58 74 31	- 1 3 	10 10 7 26	2 4 6	11 43 26
Southern Africa Rep. of South Africa	Av. 157-59	5561 ^{5/}	13	13	25	7/	49

Source: United Nations, Yearbook of National Accounts Statistics, 1960, New York, 1961; Ady, Peter and Michel Courcier, Systems of National Accounts in Africa, The Organisation for European Economic Cooperation, Paris, 1960.

Net domestic product at factor cost of 1954

Estimates, largely conjectural; figures appear to relate to gross value of production

^{1/} At current market prices
2/ At 1957 prices
3/ Net domestic product at f
4/ Estimates, largely conject
5/ Net domestic product
6/ Including income rising f
7/ Included in manufacturing Including income rising from trade and transport operation in African agriculture

Included in manufacturing

Table 6. Africa: Foreign Trade of Selected Countries (Value in Millions of U.S. Dollars; Volume, 1953 = 100)

		Value			Volume						Exports as Percentage		
Q	Imports	Exports	Total Foreign	<u>I</u>	mports		1	exports		Q1	f Imports		
Country	C.I.F.	F.O.B.	Trade Per capita(\$)										
		1957 - 1		1938	1950	1958	1938	1950	1958	1938	1950	1958	
Northern Africa													
Algeria	1105	439 <u>1</u> /	149 <u>1</u> /		92	218		93	87	113	77	43	
U.A.R. Egypt	608	4694	13±/	85	160	138	96	112	10.	81	88	l ñ	
Libya	97	14	96		•••		l			13	55	iū	
Morocco-Southern Zone	h		1 ',	50	76	ls.	38	86		_		1	
Northern Zone	378	331	86 }	96	74	89	78	88	\103	68	58	86	
Tunisia	160	146	79	81	100	105	112	146	155	87	77	99	
Western Africa		!											
Angola	128	123	56	29	82	168	54	102	128	150	129	98	
Cameroum (Yaounde)	94	ر <u>جد</u> ا 98	60	22	86	151)4 44	73	137	117	78	104	
Former Fr. Eq. Africa	136	89	45	24	100	199	62	87	179	88	52	67	
Former Fr.W. Africa	378	31/4	45 35	,	86	147	1	83	131	79	73	86	
		31 31	15	•••			•••		-		106		
Dahomey & Niger Guinea	33 57	26	31	•••	• • •	•••	• • •	•••	•••	•••		106	
			42	•••	***	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	46	37	
Ivory Coast Up Volta	119	155		•••	***	•••	•••	•••	***	***	130	156	
Mali, Mauritania, Senega		123	49	•••	•••	•••	***	•••	•••	•••	51	56	
Gambia	11	11	76	•,••	• • •	•••	•••		***	100	75	118	
Ghana	275	259	110	<i>i</i>	74	120	•••	104	92	84	142	\mathbf{m}	
Liberia	36	58	914		* * *	• • •	***	•••	•••	100	255	193	
Nigeria	465	398	26	•••	66	178	•••	88	109	112	146	81	
Sierra Leone	71	54	55	***	•••		•••	•••	• • •	157	1176	82	
Togo	16	15	28	•••	• • •	•••	•••	• • •	•••	100	100	83	
Central Africa	2/	2/								2/	2/	2/	
Congo (Leopoldville)	3682/	4552/	45	•••	• • •	***	•••		• • •	1412/	1392/	1122/	
Fed.of Rhodesia and	l J												
Nyasaland	453	447	113	•••	94	126	•••	91	130	104	105	86	
Eastern Africa					٦/			3/		/		l	
British East Africa	357	344	32	• • •	1013/	132		963/	162	133 ⁴ / 85 ⁴ /	101	101	
Kenya	181	96	44	•••		• • •	• • •	99	174	85 ₹ /	62	55	
Uganda	76	127	32	•••	•••	•••	• • •	97	163	231	188	172	
Tanganyika	100	123	25 7		***3/		50	73	156	1/42/4/	104	130	
Ethiopia	78	68	7	•••	53 <u>2</u> / 722	118,/	•••	70 ₅ /	96 ₅ /	•••	89	73 76	
Madagascar	130	86	42	•••		1492/	• • •			141	83	76	
Mauritius	59	63	202	62	79	136	61	74	109	117	86	95 62	
Mozambique	114	70	30		•••	• • •	• • •	•••	•••	36	64	62	
Reunion	47	33	253	•••	101	113	• • •	66	108	75	73	67	
Sudan	176	155	30	46	64	121	64	76	92	94	132	73	
Zanzibar and Pemba	16	14	100					•••		30	140	93	
Southern Africa	1487	1187	185	75	87	127	52	82	153	35	74	70	
Rep. of South Africa	140/	що/	702	(2)	01	ואנ	26	%	477	22	/ **	۰٬۰۱	

Beginning 1958, excludes intra-trade between Egyptian and Syrian Regions Including Ruanda-Urundi

United Nations Demographic Yearbook 1960, New York, 1960; United Nations Statistical Yearbook 1960, New York, 1960; United Nations Statistical Yearbook 1954, New York, 1957; United Kingdom Colonial Office, Sierra Leone, Report for the year 1958, H.M.S.O., London 1960; East Africa High Commission, The East African Statistical Department, Quarterly Economic and Statistical Bulletin No. 52, June 1961, Nairobi 1961; United Kingdom Colonial Office, Quarterly Digest of Statistics No. 49, April 1961, H.M.S.O., London 1961.

For 1951

Average for 1936-38 Including gold