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FORMS AND CAUSES OF EXTREME UNDERDEVELOPMENT 1/

by

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I. INTRODUCTION

Indicators of extreme under-development

Concerning what constitutes "least development", or extreme under-development, some obvious criteria come immediately to mind to serve as a basic definition. One set of such criteria is that laid down by the United Nations as substantially determining a least developed country. 1/ a per capita income less than US $ 100 per annum, manufacturing output accounting for less than 10 per cent of gross domestic product, and less than 20 per cent literacy of persons 15 years and over. The United Nations has listed nineteen countries, sixteen of them in Africa and two in Asia, and one in the Middle East, as fitting this definition. The countries listed are: Afghanistan, Botswana, Burundi, Chad, Dahomey, Ethiopia, the Gambia, Guinea, Laos, Lesotho, Malawi, Niger, Rwanda, Somalia, the Sudan, Uganda, Upper Volta, the United Republic of Tanzania, and the Yemen Arab Republic.

The above definition is inadequate for a comprehensive description for any specified country and the United Nations recognises this by qualifying it with the phase, "substantially determining a least developed country". Additional indicators which provide a deeper insight into economic and social conditions are each country, and therefore of the true state of development, are needed. Choice in this respect has been limited here to those economic and social indicators which most directly represent the past and current levels of development. The following tables are given in Chapter II and Appendix II and provide an overview of the levels of development in these least developed countries.

In Chapter II:

Table (I) Percentage Share of GDP of the Agricultural and Industrial Sectors at Specified Dates.

(II) Distribution of Population at Specified Dates.

(III) Investment, Gross Capital Formation and Savings Rates.

1/ Since the present report was written, this list has been superseded by another one, containing 25 countries: the above 19 countries (Mali being substituted for the Gambia), Bhutan, the Maldive Islands, Nepal, Sikkim, Western Samoa and Haiti (United Nations, Committee for Development Planning, Report on the Seventh Session, E/4990). (Editor's Note)

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Sources of statistical data are given in Appendix III.

II. Statistical Analysis

In so far as statistics are available for those countries, results indicate a low level of achievement in every sector.

Typically, the vast majority of the population, at least 80 per cent 2/ in almost all of these countries, is engaged in traditional subsistence agriculture or pastoral activities, where production takes place in self-sufficient units based on family or tribal affiliation. These activities also seem to be characterized largely by a direct relationship between effort and the satisfaction of basic needs. Little planning or foresight is called for, the nature and sequence of activities being determined by the natural environment and the rhythm of the seasons. Specialisation, in these traditional economies, mainly involves the allocation of duties according to age and sex and as allowed by custom. There is no sharp dichotomy between work and other activities; nor is there a clear concept of a "labour force" or of a "labour market".

The percentage of the GDP accounted for by the agricultural sector is smaller than the percentage of the working population engaged in agricultural activities.

Table I. Percentage Share of GDP of the Agricultural and Industrial Sectors at Specified Dates.

Country	Year	Agriculture	Industry
Afghanistan	1965	65+	11
Botswana	1967	47	8
Chad	1967		4
Ethiopia	1966	64	9
Lesotho	1967	68	1
Malawi	1968	49	8
Niger	1965	60	5
the Sudan	1965	54	7
Tanzania	1967	52	6
Uganda	1967	58	8
Upper Volta	1967	84	6

Source: For this and subsequent tables, see Appendix III. The figures for the share of industry are taken from E/4930.

2/ Afghanistan 85 per cent, Burundi over 90 per cent, Ethiopia over 89 per cent, the Gambia 90 per cent, Guinea 85 per cent, Rwanda 90 per cent, Upper Volta 90 per cent. Non-availability of exact figures for other countries should be taken to indicate that vast majority of population depends on this sector. See Country Studies: Appendix I.

The variation of industry's share of GDP varies substantially amongst the countries. Part of this variation might be due to differences in definition of industry and method of collection of statistics, but roughly, it could be said that with the exception of Upper Volta the more densely populated countries have the largest industrial sectors. This correlation is of interest to any discussion of minimum size of markets but it provides far from adequate information on which to draw further conclusions. A little more data is provided by distribution of population between rural and urban areas and by the absolute number of persons residing in concentrations of more than a specified size. In Table II this additional data is provided, and the size of the local population deemed significant is 20,000 people.

Table II. Distribution of Population at Specified Dates

Country	Year	Rural Inhabitants as Percentage of Population	Urban Inhabitants as Percentage of Population	Number of Urban Inhabitants in Towns over 20000
Afghanistan	1967	90	4	763
Botswana	1953	26.6 a/	23	97
Burundi	1970	90	2	75
Chad	1960	94	4.5	158
Dahomey	1960	90	10	209
Ethiopia	1963	86	3	717
the Gambia	1963	91	9	23
Guinea	1967		28	1354
Lesotho	1956	90	- b/	-
Laos	1967	90	7.5	182
Malawi	1960	95	3.9	149
Niger	1965	81	7	132
Rwanda	1965		1.5	50
Somalia	1965	75	5 -	532
the Sudan	1955	95	.3	25
Tanzania	1955	95	2.1	38.4
Uganda	1965	95	4.8	225
Upper Volta	1965	90		

N.B. a/ The discrepancy in population that does not appear in the percentages as either urban or rural does to majority residence in large towns which do not properly fit classification. b/ The capital of Lesotho, Maseru, has 9,000 residents (1966).

Although the traditional sector is the dominant sector, it is itself very under-developed in many relevant respects in most of these countries. (Uganda has however, a relatively more developed agricultural sector than the other countries discussed here). This sector can easily be identified by certain features common to most of the least developed countries. These features include predominant use of hand tools and the importance of manual skills; labour and management organisations centred on family members; concentration in a few trades; and the inadequacy of information about industrial or semi-industrial activities in this sector. Also this sector is characterised by low employment in the sense of intermittent labour utilisation, and very little capital investment. Other problems facing this sector and common to almost all these countries, are those of lack of finance, small size, and remoteness of markets. In a country like Southern Yemen, there is such a lack of marketing organisation and of suitable road or coastal sea communications that 80 per cent of total sales of the country are confined to Aden and areas just outside Aden.

Economic transactions are subordinate to custom, and the influence of the modern monetised sector is at best marginal. Those persons involved in the monetised sector compose, on the average, less than 7 per cent of the population. Their share grows slowly and in varying degrees of isolation from the primary sector. Industrial activity is typically dominated by the processing of agricultural products for export. To the extent that transport and marketing facilities are developed enough to allow urban needs to act as a stimulus to indigenous cash-cropping, some change occurs mainly in the geographically adjoining area. Currently this process has become more significant. During the colonial period, development took place in foreign owned and expatriate-controlled enclaves whose closest ties were with the metropolitan power, leaving the urban-rural dichotomy in the colony much more rigid than was previously the case.

Compared with the developed countries the less developed countries have a much smaller capacity to finance their own capital formation. Between 1960 - 62 and 1968, for instance, the percentage of GNP saved rose from 21.6 to 22.4 in developed countries and from 13.6 to 14.6 in less developed countries. Between the same periods the percentage of GNP represented by gross domestic fixed capital formation rose from 21.7 to 24.0 in developed countries, but only from 15.2 to 15.6 in less developed countries. Hence capital formation not only takes a larger share of GNP in the richer countries but this share is rising more rapidly in the advanced countries than in the less developed countries.

The capacity of these economics to finance their own growth and capital accumulation depends on a number of factors. Their past success in saving and investing out of GDP is shown in Table III while the scope and method of the tax collection system are indicated in Table IV.

From Table III it can be seen that Botswana, Ethiopia, Niger, Malawi, Tanzania and Uganda have the largest percentages of GDP going to gross investment. In every case except Uganda there is an observable correlation between this percentage and the percentage of total government revenue raised by direct taxation. Niger in particular raises a very high proportion of government revenues from direct taxation and, from Table III, appears to have forced the pace of gross domestic savings throughout the 1960s. It is interesting to notice that Niger, which has a remarkably high proportion of its (low density) population in urban areas, is significantly more developed in the fields of investment, savings, and taxation than neighbouring Chad which also has a low density population but is much less urbanised. Thus here we have some direct comparable data, limited as it is to two countries, of the correlation of urbanization, fiscal development and progress in investment.

Table III. Investment, Gross Capital Formation and Savings Rates

Country	Gross Investment Rate as % of GDP		Gross Domestic Capital Formation (annual average)		Gross Domestic Savings (annual average)		Gross Foreign Savings (annual average)	
			1960 - 62	1968	1960 - 62	1968	1960 - 62	1968
Afghanistan	(1961)	3.3	10.3	11.2	3.6	2.8	7.2	[illegible].4
Botswana	(1961) (1966)	18 22		18.4		1.1		19.7
Burundi								
Chad	(1955) (1961) (1963)	9.8 8.3	10.2	11.7	0.8	2.5	9.4	9.2
Dahomey Ethiopia	(1955) (1961) (1966)	5.5 13.0 13.0	9.5	11.7	7.6	10.3	1.9	1.4
the Gambia				13.9		9.9		4.0
Guinea	(1956) (1962)	7.6 8.3						
Laos								
the Lesotho	(1961) (1966)	10.0 9.0		10.4		-16.2		2[illegible].0
Malawi	(1960) (1967)	14.2 19.0	17.[illegible]	20.2	-3.3	.7	21.0	19.5
Niger	(1955) (1962)	3.9 14.0	8.3	10.7	6.9	12.4	2.2	0.1
Rwanda								
Somalia								
the Sudan	(1965)	10.4	16.0	11.3	12.6	14.0	3.4	-2.7
Tanzania	(1960) (1968)	18.0 22.9	11.9	15.5	10.3	21.6	1.6	-6.1
Uganda	(1955) (1963)	13.7 13.0	11.1	14.3	19.5	22.6	-8.4	-[illegible].3
Upper Volta	(1955) (1962)	8.3 9.1		11.1		5.9		6.6
Yemen (People's Dem. Republic)								

Table IV. Government Revenue as a Percentage of GDP, and Sources of Revenue

Country	Year	Total Government Revenue as Per cent of GDP (approximate)	Per cent of Total Government Revenue from Direct Taxes	Indirect Taxes and Customs
			16.6	55.0
Afghanistan	1960	5.3	10.0	38.4
	1965	-	17.0	26.0
Botswana	1960	14.9	12.0	8.2
	1967	-	9.4	33.0
Chad	1960	0.6	11.8	66.0
	1967	-	9.0	71.4
Dahomey	1960	-	10.0	55.5
	1967	-	10.1	28.0
Ethiopia	1960	11.0	14.8	28.7
	1968	-	5.0	52.6
the Gambia	1960	23.7	9.4	62.0
	1967	-		58.0
Lesotho	1960	13.7		28.0
	1966	-	7.1	78.9
Laos	1965	-	19.2	30.3
Malawi	1967	-	27.0	43.4
Niger	1961	1.1	31.2	62.6
	1967	-	-	-
Somalia	1967	-	2.2	58.6
the Sudan	1962	16.5	5.8	71.9
	1967		23.0	50.0
Tanzania	1960	13.1	26.2	58.8
	1968	-	10.7	(1950) 56.0
Uganda	1960	14.3		
	1966	-	19.1	51.1
Upper Volta	1960	17.2		

Botswana and Malawi have important qualitative differences from other countries. They have developed direct taxation systems, high investment rates but near zero domestic savings rates. This is compensated for by unusually high foreign savings rates derived from the employment of nationals in neighbouring South Africa. This source of income undoubtedly lends itself to a system of direct taxation. The incidence of urbanisation does not appear to be the crucial factor here for, according to Table II, Botswana is considerably more urbanized than Malawi.

However, GDP and government revenue change from year to year according to conditions affecting the world prices of one, two or three main items of export. These main items of export account for more than 80 per cent of total export value in most of these countries.

Table V provides data on the composition of principal exports of these least developed countries and of total export earnings.

Table V. Principal Exports and their Share of Total Export Earnings (1970)

Country	Exports	Value	Per Cent of Total Value of Exports
AFGHANISTAN	Karakul	879	16.6
(US $ million)	Fruits and nuts	1,682	33.3
	Cotton, wool, rugs	2,167	43.4
BOTSWANA	Cattle and goats	8,517	76.8
Rand '000	Food and abbatoir prod.	1,438	12.7
	Sorghum, talc, manganese	327	2.8
BURUNDI	Coffee	710	80.0
Burundi francs,	Cotton	92	10.0
millions	Hides	24	5.0
CHAD	Raw Cotton	3,754	87.0
Francs CFA,	Cattle, hides	740	8.3
millions	Meat, abbatoir prod.		
DAHOMEY	Oilseeds and nuts	1,834	
Francs CFA	Cotton	206	
million	Green coffee	139	
ETHIOPIA	Coffee	200.3	80.1
Eth. $ million	Fuels	58.2	
	Manufactures	4	
the GAMBIA	Decorticated ground nuts	2,265	52
£ '000	Unrefined groundnut oil	2,054	36
	Groundnut cake	1,320	10

Table V. Principal Exports and their Share of Total Export Earnings (1970) (Contd.)

Country	Exports	Value	Per Cent of Total Value of Exports
GUINEA	Bananas, pineapples	4,050	
Guinea francs,	Green coffee	2,224	
million (1960)	Diamonds	1,758	
	Iron and aluminium	3,398	
LESOTHO	Livestock, skins	33.4	76.0
million Rand	Wheat, beans, peas	1.3	4.3
	Diamonds	6.9	15.0
LAOS	Tin	377	43
million Kips	Timber	286	33
		150	20
MALAWI	Unmanufactured tobacco		
£ million	Green groundnuts		
	Raw cotton		
NIGER	Groundnuts	5,707	
Francs CFA,	Groundnut oil		
million	Livestock	845	
RWANDA	Coffee (green and roasted)	774.3	
Francs, million	Non-ferrous ores and concentrates (tin)	528.8	
SOMALIA	Bananas, etc.	149.8	
million	Crude materials, fuels	22.1	
Somali	Manufactures	2.4	
the SUDAN	Cotton		60.0
£ Sudan	Gum arabic		10.0
million	Sesame, groundnuts		7.6
TANZANIA	Sisal		22.7
£ million	Cotton	12.2	19.5
	Diamonds	7.1	11.3
	Coffee	8.5	13.3
UGANDA	Unroasted coffee	34.6	
£ million	Raw cotton	15.1	
UPPER VOLTA	Livestock	2,271	
Francs CFA,	Ginned cotton	842	
million			

The physical structure, in the form of road and railway facilities, telecommunications and energy are extremely inadequate in all these countries. 3/ Progress has been seriously inhibited by the lack of infrastructure and communications, although in most of these countries priority is being given to the development of infrastructure in their current national plans. 4/

Table VI shows the very high percentage of investment funds going to infrastructure and communications in Botswana (75 per cent), Ethiopia (55 per cent), Niger (48 per cent) and Somalia (52 per cent). In the Country Studies (Appendix I), Botswana's lack of communications is given special mention. The government has apparently decided that infrastructure must precede industrial development and the foreign savings are being used to lay down facilities from which domestic production, and therefore domestic savings, will proceed at a later date. But this is an unusual example of strategy in a least developed country.

The high figure for Niger is in keeping with its overall effort at development. Ethiopia's development of infrastructure is to be closely related to the growth of a more diversified consumer industry. 5/ Somalia has a pressing need for some minimum established communications.

On the other hand, Tanzania and Uganda are investing only about one-fifth of their investment funds in infrastructure and communications. Both are promoting industry although Tanzania has, at present, only about one-quarter of the per capita electricity supply of Uganda.

3/ Burundi: no railway and only 6,000 kilometres of roads; Chad: no railway and only 11,432 kilometres of roads; Dahomey: only 5,490 kilometres of roads; the Gambia: only 1,971 kilometres of roads; Malawi: 8,920 kilometres of roads out of which only 135 kilometres hard surface; Niger: only 6150 kilometres of roads; Rwanda: only 8,000 kilometres of roads; Somalia: 13,247 kilometres of roads. For power see Table VII.

4/ See Country Studies in Appendix I.

5/ See Country Studies in Appendix I.

Table VI. Current Development Plans: Allocation of Funds

Country and Period	Total Investment	Agri-culture	Industry	Infra-structure Communic-ations	Health	Educ-ation	Other
		Percentage of total investment allocated to:					
Afghanistan 1960-65	31353 m. Afghanis	23.5	33.5	25.5	11.2		6.3
Botswana	US$ m.96			75.0			
Burundi							
Chad 1966-70	US$ m. 106	32.0	17.0	26.0	24.0		3.0
Dahomey 1966-70	US$ m. 143	35.0	22.0	15.0		12.0	
Ethiopia	US$ Billion 1.2	10.0		55.0	8.0	10.0	
the Gambia 1967-71	US$ m. 14	42.0	17.0	30.0		2.0	
Guinea 1964-71	US$ m. 532	10.0	31.0	25.0			
Laos							
Lesotho 1967-72	US$ m.27.8	20.0	30.0	36.0			
Malawi							
Niger 1968-	US$ m.148	21.0		48.0	15.0		10.0
Rwanda 1967-72	US$ m.110	36.0	8.6	24.0		11.0	
Somalia 1969-70	US$ m.97.7	15.0	5.0	52.0	16.0	3.0	
the Sudan							
Tanzania 1969-74	US$ 1.1 billion	13.0	41.0	19.0	2.0	8.0	16.0
Uganda 1966-71	US$ m.670	8.0	18.3	21.7	5.2	7.0	33.0
Upper Volta 1971-75	US$ m.132	27.8	18.1	26.5	4.2	10.1	13.6

Table VII. Electric Power: Capacity and Consumption.

Country	Generating Capacity in Megawatts per capita	1960	per capita	1968	Change 1960–68 per cent	Kilowatts per capita	Energy Consumption: of Coal. 1960	1968	Equivalent in Tons Change 1960–68 per cent	kg Coal per capita
Afghanistan	3.6	46.3	17.2	275.0	24	1.7	.20	.44	10.4	1.5
Botswana	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Burundi	1.5	4.4	1.57	5.2	4.2	–	.02	.03	5.2	.6
Chad	2.0	6.1	2.9	9.8	8.2	.3	.04	.05	2.0	–0.1
Dahomey	2.8	5.9	3.9	10.2	11.6	.3	.08	.08	–	–1.3
Ethiopia	4.6	94.6	11.8	292.0	21.7	1.3	.16	.54	16.4	1.0
the Gambia	13.3	4.0	.15.6	6.3	6.7	.7	.01	.01	–	–0.5
Guinea	4.9	17.0	19.3	73.0	34.0	3.0	.2	.37	8.0	4.
Laos	1.6	3.8	3.5	10.2	17.9	.4	.04	.08	9.1	3.[illegible]
Lesotho	0.37	2.6	0.36	3.2	5.4	0.1				
Malawi	5.4	18.9	11.6	49.1	21.0	1.3	.13	.17	3.9	.9
Niger	1.0	2.9	1.6	5.9	15.3	.2	.01	.06	25.1	1.1
Rwanda	3.21	9.0	6.9	22.5	25.7	.9	.03	.03	–	–0.3
Somalia	1.15	2.3	2.2	6.2	13.2	.2	.04	.07	7.2	.6
the Sudan	3.7	43.5	6.7	97.4	10.6	.4	.60	1.31	10.2	4.[illegible]
Uganda	21.0	146.0	21.0	165.0	2.5	–	.22	.50	10.8	3.6
Upper Volta	1.0	4.4	2.1	10.6	11.6	.1	.03	.05	6.6	.4
United Republic of Tanzania	4.2	44.4	5.9	71.6	8.3	.3	.44	.65	5.0	.6
Yemen (People's Dem. Republic)							.03	.07	11.2	.9
Average for developing nations		36,199		73,980	9.3	2.3	292.36	479.35	6.4	9.6
Average for developed nations		500,000		900,000	14.3	22.5	3,200	5.200	10.2	353.0

Another feature of underdevelopment common to most of these lesser developed countries is the lack of known or explored natural resources. For example Southern Yemen has had up until now no known natural resources with the exception of salt and fish and no industrial tradition to draw on. On the other hand, in some countries like Guinea, which are rich in minerals like bauxite, gold, diamond, and iron ores, such resources are not fully exploited. The capacity to exploit natural resources has always been limited by the ignorance of resource-availability on the one hand, and by the priority given to the exploitation of these resources in other less under-developed countries on the other hand. In all of these countries, average incomes are so low and the propensity to consume being very high, little is saved for investment purposes.

Though data on manufacturing is hard to come by, the information given in Table VIII and IX provides a useful indication of the real situation: the prevalence of small-scale manufacturing, as measured by the actual number of establishments and numbers of workers therein, as well as the size of operation of different manufacturing industries producing largely consumer goods for a small limited (urban) market. However, manufacturing is in its infancy in most of these countries. Engineering is largely repair and maintenance work and in some countries there are a few firms engaged in relatively skilled activities.

Table VIII. Number of Small-scale Industries by Size of Establishment

Country	Year	Number of Establishments employing: under 100	100-500	500-1000	over 1000
Afghanistan	1962	31	25		
	1964	42			
Botswana	1967	1,295	38		
Burundi		n.a.			
Chad	1967	9			
Dahomey	1962	33			
	1967	55	(10,500 unstructured handicraft enterprises)		
Ethiopia	1958	59	30	5	
	1964	248			
	1967	395			
the Gambia	1962	6		2	
Guinea	1962	19			
Laos					
Lesotho	1967	17	6		
Malawi	1967	89	55		
Niger	1963	270	43		
Rwanda					
Somalia					
the Sudan	1965	189			
Tanzania	1955	366			
	1966	5,635	329	115	
Uganda	1965	525	52	3	
Upper Volta	1966	41			

N.B.: These figures are derived from partial surveys, estimations, etc. The incidence of inaccuracy is high.

Table IX. Type of Industry and Numbers Employed

Country	Type of Establishment	Year	Number of Establishments	Number of Employees
Afghanistan	- Food Processing	1960	5	1190
		1966	6	1408
	- Textile Manucture	1963		8780
		1966	3	11201
	- Manufacture of non-metallic products	1963	4	1190
		1966	5	1781
	- Repair of transport equipment	1963	6	1290
		1966	6	1399
	- Fertilizer	1966	1	
	- Porcelain	1966	2	
	- Building material	1966	6	
Botswana	- Soap factory	1958	1	
	- Dairy	1950	1	
		1960	2	
	- Bonemeal factory	1960	1	
	- Maize mill	1960	1	
	- Food Processing	1966	289	
	- Miscellaneous Manufactures: meat cannery, tannery, cap and helmet factory, small clothing factory, brewery.	1966	34	2420
Burundi	- Flour Mill	1960		9000
	- Dairy			
	- Brewery			
Chad	- Rice-husking	1961	3	4300
	- Cotton-ginning		25	
	- Abbatoir		3	
	- Dairy		1	
	- Joineries and Metal shops		7	
	- Shoe factory		1	
	- Perfume factory		1	
Dahomey	- Food processing	1967	7	
	- Miscellaneous Manufactures	1967	3	
	- Chemical plants	1967	3	
	- Textile plant	1967	T 6	
	- Manufacture of wooden articles			
	- Other			
Ethiopia	- Food Processing	1966	40	
	- Manufacturing	1966	771	38000

Table IX. Type of Industry and Numbers Employed (contd.)

Country	Type of Establishment	Year	Number of Establishments	Number of Employees
Guinea	- Manufacturing	1966	19	3644
Laos	- Sawmills	1956	32	1040
	- Cigarettes	1956	3	200
	- Matches	1956	1	30
	- Soft drinks	1956	3	120
	- Sandals	1956	1	30
Lesotho	- Manufacturing	1967	13	649
	- Construction	1967	10	736
Malawi	- Grain, tea and food processing	1954	32	2185
		1968	53	5009
	- Tobacco	1954	7	2519
		1968	8	4083
	- Manufactured Articles	1954	37	2056
		1968	152	16902
Niger	- Processing of Groundnuts and Groundnut Oil	1954		685
		1965		1374
	- Brewery			
	- Soft drinks factory			
	- Cement plant			
	- Leather goods factory			
Rwanda	- Various manufacturing enterprises	1966	14	
Somalia	- Manufacturing	1961	105	11,000
the Sudan	- Maccaroni and vermicelli	1967	30	
	- Oil mills and soap	1967	29	
	- Building materials	1967	21	
	- Textiles	1967	20	
	- Footwear	1967	13	
	- Perfumery and pharmaceutical	1967	13	
	- Ice and mineral water	1967	12	
	- Biscuits and candy	1967	9	
	- Household utensils	1967	5	
	- Flour mills	1967	4	
	- Paints	1967	3	
	- Packing materials	1967	3	
	- Plastic products	1967	3	
	- Alcoholic drinks	1967	3	
	- Decoration, sugar, fruit and vegetable canning	1967	8	
	- Cigarettes	1967	2	
	- Tanning	1967	2	
	- Refrigerators	1967	2	

Table IX. Type of Industry and Numbers Employed (contd.)

Country	Type of Establishment	Year	Number of Establishments	Number of Employees
Tanzania	- Processing of sisal, sugar and team	1954		208,000
	- Flour milling	1962		108,036
	- Cotton milling	1966	970	153,410
	- Manufacturing	1966	1	
	- Textiles			
	- Assembly of motor			
	- Vehicles			
	- Motor vehicle repair			
	- Tailoring and dress-making		981	2,533
	- Salt manufacture			
	- Fez-cap making			
	- Plastics			
	- Neon lights			
	- Aluminium goods			
	- Bricks and tiles			
	- Cigarettes			
	- Metal containers			
	- Soap		41	
	- Bakeries		37	
	- Total	1964		226,000
Uganda	- Processing:			
	Cotton-ginning	1952	138	7,176
		1960	146	4,030
		1964	120	3,401
	- Coffee	1960	50	2,820
		1964	122	4,856
	- Manufacturing	1952	378	25,081
		1964	788	31,264
Upper Volta	- Processing	1967	9	
	- Assembly industries		2	
	- Printing plants		3	
	- Cotton - ginning and textiles			
	- Shoes and leather goods		2	
	- Wood and construction materials		3	
	- Metal processing		2	
	- Vehicle maintenance		8	

An additional impediment to change is the extreme shortage of trained personnel at every level, from skilled workers to planners, administrators and, above all, indigenous entrepreneurs. The governments' educational policy in most of these countries has been typically directed in the past towards widening the primary base in preference to expanding secondary and vocational education, although in the second half of the 1960s numbers of secondary school children were expanding much faster than numbers of primary school children. A number of countries - Afghanistan, the Gambia, Guinea, Niger and the Sudan - had reached in secondary school enrollment in 1970 the level of primary enrollment of the 1950s. This data is indicated in Tables X and XI.

Technical and vocational enrollment is still relatively minute, being about 10 per cent of secondary enrollment. Thus few secondary school children go on to acquire specific skills. Moreover, the skills they do acquire do not necessarily provide a relevant basis for job opportunities. Both secondary and technical educational often prove to be incompatible with, rather than inadequate for, the situation. For instance, in a country like Dahomey, young graduates have extreme difficulty in finding jobs, firstly because training continues to be patterned on the French model and fails to take actual conditions within the country into account, and secondly because graduates have exaggerated aspirations. A further difficulty is posed by the widespread desire among the graduates and the school leavers to enter the bureaucracy - a source of higher income and prestige - rather than professional specialized employment.

In short, the situation in most of these least developed countries can be summarised as one characterised by the dominance of the agricultural and crafts sectors using rudimentary techniques to produce simple goods in largely self-contained units, while the marketing of surpluses is of incidental economic importance. In general the outlook in these rural communities is traditional. There is an acute shortage of capital, only marginal participation by the majority of the population in the money economy, inadequacy or remoteness of markets and lack of infrastructure, and low levels of technical and professional education.

Table X. Education: Primary Level

Country	Year	Number of Schools	Number of Pupils	Number of Teachers	Enrollment as Percentage of Relevant Age Group
Afghanistan	1957	712	115,913		3
	1960	-	213,[illegible]76		5
	1965	1,537	276,904		9
Botswana	1950	149	16,070		22
	1960	229	35,590		41
	1967	252	71,577	1,[illegible]13	67
Burundi	1965		50,000		5
Chad	1960	389	123,600		14
	1967	620	164,962		19
Dahomey	1953		97,116		9
	1960		114,006		10
	1966				21
Ethiopia	1950		65,309		
	1960	1,278	237,336	7,664	5
	1966		313,240		6
the Gambia	1954	42	4,460	157	5
	1961	60	7,663	2[illegible]5	10
	1963	94	15,386	495	14
Guinea	1958		42,000		3
	1964		115,717		13
	1967		150,000		23
Laos	1952	696	37,165		11
	1962	1,021	119,986		20
	1967				27
Lesotho	1950		93,337		59
	1960		153,730		79
	1968	1,077	167,603	3,065	89
Malawi	1953		225,044		39
	1961		286,340		41
	1967		359,841		48
Niger	1959	68	7,902	211	1
	1963	192	21,054	531	4
	1967	513	54,[illegible]26	1,308	7
Rwanda	1954		173,688		11
	1960		263,639		22
	1967				53
Somalia	1950				1
	1963		20,848		4
	1967	211	21,050	738	4

Table X. Education: Primary Level (contd.)

Country	Year	Number of Schools	Number of Pupils	Number of Teachers	Enrollment as Percentage of Relevant Age Group
the Sudan	1953		146,583		6
	1961		171,954		11
	1966		280,510		14
Tanzania	1952		213,991		10
	1961	3,270	431,056	9,411	19
	1967	3,720	710,200	13,576	25
Uganda	1950	3,012	216,927	7,693	18
	1960	5,495	484,183	17,331	32
	1967	2,648		13,566	26
Upper Volta	1950				2
	1960		56,593		6
	1967				9
Yemen	1965		38,653		
(People's Dem. Republic)	1967				8

Table XI. Education: Secondary Level

Country	Year	Number of Schools	Number of Pupils	Number of Teachers	Enrollment as Percentage of Relevant Age Group
Afghanistan	1957	43	5,647		0.3
	1960		16,647		1.0
	1966	108			3.0
Botswana	1950	2	146		0.6
	1960	5	561		2.6
	1967	9	1,054	111	4.0
Burundi	1964		100,000		10.0
Chad	1950				0.1
	1963	17	3,450		0.7
	1967	29	5,597		1.0
Dahomey	1950		5,129		
	1966		8,359		
Ethiopia	1950		1,888		
	1962	56	9,440	938	0.4
	1965		33,048		0.8
the Gambia	1954	5	623	31	2.0
	1961	11	1,954	71	5.0
	1967	16	3,860	169	9.0
Guinea	1952		2,500		0.3
	1963		7,678		3.0
	1967		40,000		21.0
Laos	1950	5	700		0.5
	1960	7	3,226		2.0
	1967				3.0
Lesotho	1950		907		2.0
	1960		1,977		5.0
	1967	26	3,201	152	7.0
Malawi	1950		362		0.1
	1960		1,501		1.0
	1967		5,820		3.0
Niger	1950	2	277	12	0.1
	1961	8	1,040	34	0.5
	1967	19	2,504	150	0.8
Rwanda	1954		239		0.4
	1960		577		1.0
	1967				2.0
Somalia	1951				0.2
	1963		4,052		2.0
	1967	39	7,275	349	3.0

Table XI. Education: Secondary Level (contd.)

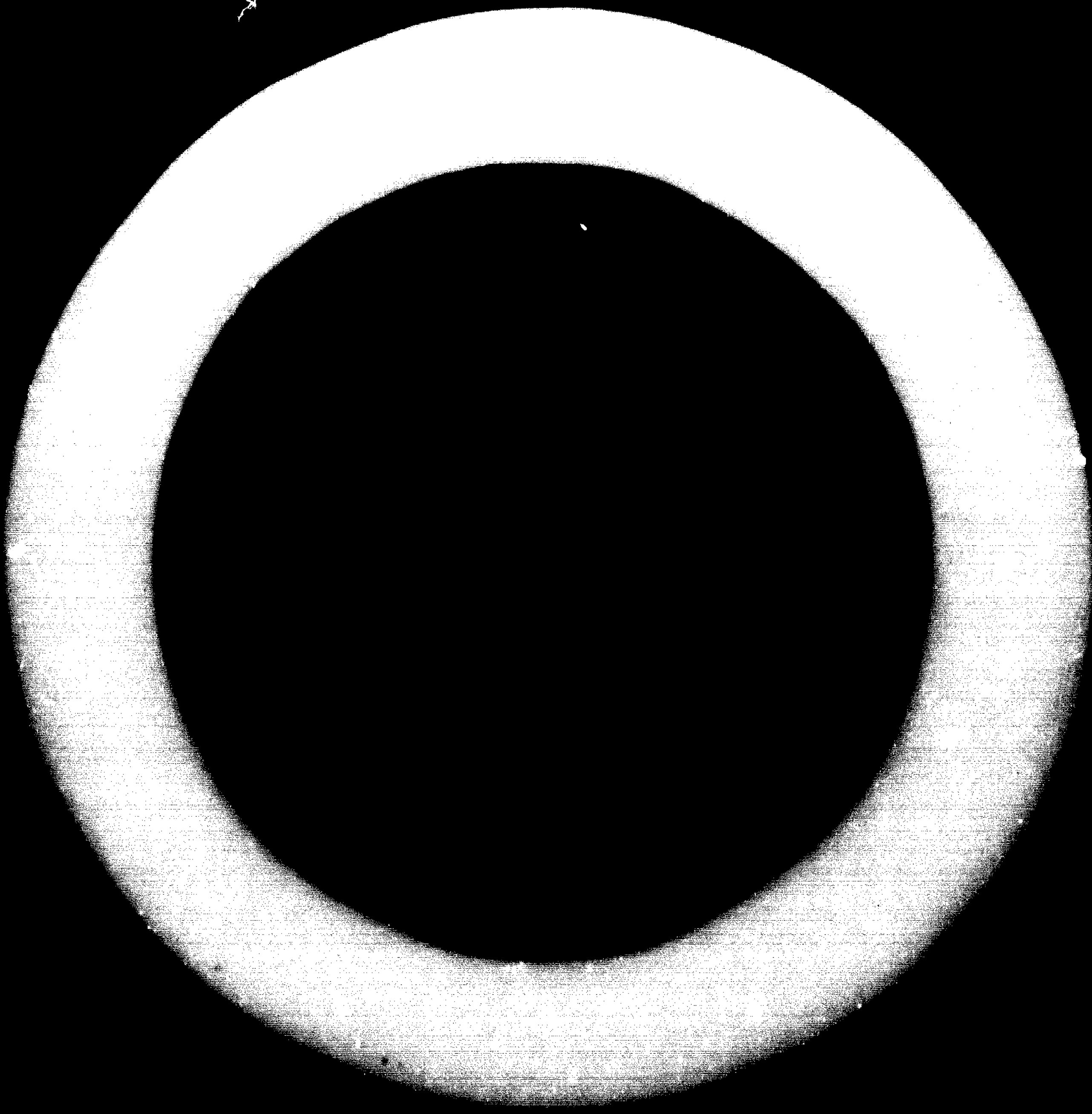
Country	Year	Number of Schools	Number of Pupils	Number of Teachers	Enrollment as Percentage of Relevant Age Group
the Sudan	1950		3,154		0.5
	1960		5,898		1.0
	1967		13,857		6.0
Tanzania	1950		2,817		1.0
	1960	94	4,645	716	2.0
	1967	76	22,860	1,223	3.0
Uganda	1954	128	9,254		2.0
	1961	263	28,862		6.0
	1966	71			8.0
Upper Volta	1953				0.1
	1961		1,480		0.8
	1967				1.0
Yemen (People's Dem. Republic)	1965		696		0.4

Table XII. Education: Technical and Vocational

Country	Year	Number of Schools	Number of Pupils	Number of Teachers
Afghanistan	1957	21	3,451	
	1960		2,193	
	1967	51	2,504	
Botswana	1950			
	1960	1	23	
	1961	3	252	4
Burundi	1964		160	
Chad	1963	3	650	
	1967	10	1,595	
Dahomey	1950		647	
	1960		301	
Ethiopia	1950		413	
	1962	22	5,040	371
	1965		5,626	
the Gambia	1961	2	50	3
	1967		121	
Guinea	1963		3,465	
	1967			
Laos	1960	2	603	
Lesotho	1950		260	
	1960		543	
	1967	11	389	26
Malawi	1950		71	
	1960		547	
	1967		751	
Niger	1961	1	78	5
	1967	5	240	11
Rwanda	1954		1,964	
	1960		1,358	
Somalia	1963		1,650	
	1967	13	2,093	135
the Sudan	1950		484	
	1960		4,375	
	1967		5,390	
Tanzania	1956		942	
	1960	17	2,075	178
	1967	3		

Table XII. Education: Technical and Vocational (contd.)

Country	Year	Number of Schools	Number of Pupils	Number of Teachers
Uganda	1954		3,366	
	1961	96	4,040	
	1966	52		
Upper Volta	1961		625	
Yemen (People's Dem. Republic)		no information available		



APPENDIX I - Country Studies

APPENDIX I

COUNTRY STUDIES

Afghanistan

Afghanistan is a large, land-locked country with a primarily agricultural and pastoral economy. Over 85 per cent of its population of 16.5 million is engaged in one of two activities, producing karakul or producing fruits and nuts, which altogether make up 56 per cent of the country's export earnings. Even so Afghanistan is not totally self-sufficient in this area, although this could be achieved if processing industries were better developed. Other important agricultural commodities produced are wheat, cotton and rice. Cotton is referred to as "spinzer" - meaning White Silver and is exported to Russia and Czechoslovakia.

The most important natural resources discovered to date are coal and natural gas in the north, with the possibility of oil. There is also great hydroelectric potential. Exploitation of this potential in all cases is severely hampered by insufficient investigation and lack of capital.

At the advent of re-gaining independence in 1919, industrial activity in Afghanistan was negligible, with three small factories producing wool and munitions. The following years saw the establishment of various small industries all in Kabul; a cotton mill, a knitting mill, a machine factory, carpentry and stone-cutting. Progress has been inhibited by the lack of infrastructure and communications especially due to the highly regional character of Afghan production, with coal from the north, rugs from the northwest, and structured industry around Kabul and Kandahar. However, through the construction of the highways connecting Kabul with all the major provinces, plus the network of telephone as well as telecommunications systems, overall communications have improved recently. Also, the first five year plan in 1956 assigned 49 per cent of its total budget to communications infrastructure, and the second five year plan 25.5 per cent.

Development of industry assumed priority importance only in 1960, with the second plan allotting 32.5 per cent of the total funds for the establishment of basic light and consumer goods industries; an increase of 500 per cent over the previous five year period. This led to the establishment of factories producing textiles, building materials, vegetable oil, soap, sugar, tinned fruit, porcelain, matches and fertilizer. Well known branches of the textile industry in the country are Jabal Seraj, Poli Khumri, Gulbahar, the last of which, the most modern one, has a capacity of finishing and dying some 10 million metres annually. But this is far from the stage of being able to meet the needs of ordinary citizens.

The development of industry, among other things, is limited by the lack of trained personnel and foreign competition. Similar problems beset the whole of Afghan industry; no comprehensive over-all study has been made to determine industrial potential and possibilities. Feasibility studies are few and locally oriented, concentrating mostly on opportunities for small-scale industry in Kabul and Kandahar, notably an industrial estate near Kabul for the manufacture of plastic goods, glass ware, pre-fabricated building materials, the assembly of bicycles, and the cleaning of raisins. However, the reliability of such reports is reduced by the lack of experience and data. People capable of conducting such studies are in short supply. Recently, with the rapid expansion of the University of Kabul, there has appeared also the Institute of Industrial Management, dealing specifically with small-scale industries, but in the published reports there is little to be heard about it. On the whole there is no organised training and government educational policy favours widening the primary base for the later expansion of technical, vocational and university facilities.

There is no institution existing specifically to provide information on resources, working conditions, and so on, to the private investor, a situation which is rather at odds with the government emphasis on the importance of private enterprise.

Existing quite apart from the structured industry discussed above are the widely scattered cottage industries. These, with the possible exception of the carpet industry, consist of self-employed artisans and craftsmen working with outdated methods, with no financial backing and therefore prey to middlemen who exploit the lack of effective marketing facilities. An example of this is the high-quality cutlery produced at the village of Charikar. It seems likely that such work, as well as goods such as embroidered clothing and jewellery, if well and consistently produced, could be as successfully exported as the famous rugs.

It is difficult, on the basis of information available, to make many suggestions specifically geared to the country's small-scale industry. Projects designed to lessen Afghan dependence on some of the major consumer imports, that is, shoes, textiles and so on, which take account of the seasonal under-employment or unemployment of a large part of the agricultural and pastoral working force, may be worth recommending. Some of the other small-scale industries are woollen mills in Kandahar and Kabul, carpentry in Nangerhar. Most important to be developed in future is the leather products of the country with its close to 20 million sheep and about 2 million cattle. Recently, some tanneries, for processing hides and skins, have appeared but those are far from being sufficient. Other small bazaar industries - so to say - make hardwares, saddlery, waterpipes, straw articles, etc. Also some new fruit canning and preserving plants have been built recently and consequently the fresh and dried fruit export trade has improved tremendously.

Botswana

Botswana, with almost the same area as Kenya, comprises a vast dry table land entirely landlocked, bounded by Rhodesia, South Africa, South West Africa, the Caprivi Strip and Zambia. The north of the country is widely covered by mopane bush and the east is broken by a series of rocky hills. Adequate rainfall combined with the presence of underground water, makes eastern Botswana an excellent cattle rearing region. The main crop is grain sorghum but rain fed maize, beans and other crops are also grown successfully particularly in the South.

Botswana has a population of about 630,000 inhabitants from various countries in Africa, Europe and Asia. The density of population is low at 2.5 persons per square mile. Over 90 per cent of the population live on pastoral and agricultural activities concentrated in central villages like Serowe, Kanye and Molepolole. This has led to a surprisingly high percentage of the population, 28 per cent, being classified as urban dwellers. Livestock products account for some 8? per cent of total exports making cattle ranching virtually the most important economic activity in Botswana.

Although 90 per cent of the population depend for their food on cultivation of subsistence crops such as sorghum, millet, maize, and on other agricultural activities, the traditional system of agriculture and land tenure places a number of obstacles in the way of agricultural development. Efforts are however, being made at all levels to persuade the people to modify the present system of agriculture and land tenure, and to adapt them to modern conditions and the present requirements.

Although there is a considerable amount of mineral resources in the country, yet there has been a gradual decline in the value of mineral exports from Botswana. The mineral resources include asbestos and manganese-ore, diamonds, copper, nickel ores, salt, soda ash and sodium sulphate. The exploration of these minerals depended largely on the small-scale mining by various mining companies. In 1968, special prospecting licences were issued to a number of different mining companies for prospecting rights over various parts in the country for precious stones, semi-precious stones, brine, manganese, iron ore, talc, gypsum, limestone and other base minerals. It is hoped that certain deposits may be developed for agricultural purposes.

There is an acute transport and communications problem. Government maintains some 2500 miles of roads but there is no railway. The two main trunk roads - the north-south road and the Francistown-Maun road - have been greatly improved over the past few years with the assistance of the International Development Association. In the case of most of the other roads, surfaces are for the most part local gravel, clays and sand; and only meagre funds are available for the betterment of those roads. In the current plan, however, consideration is being given to the construction of better roads and also an all-weather road linking Botswana directly with Zambia via the Kazungula ferry. Such a road would provide an alternative route for trade with East and Central Africa.

Industrial development in Botswana is still in its infancy. The lack of known natural resources, poorly developed infrastructure, and low income levels have combined to impede investment in industry. Apart from a large abattoir and a meat cannery, there are few secondary industrial enterprises :

these include a brewery, a leather factory in the capital city, a maize mill and malt mill, two small textile concerns at Lobatsi, and a furniture factory at Kayne. But, because her manufacturers have access to the largest and richest market in Africa - lying between South Africa and the countries to the North, and because of her favourable tax arrangements and her encouragement of private enterprise - Botswana is very suitable for the development of light industry. In addition to her access to foreign markets, Botswana herself provides a market of about three-quarters of a million persons for certain consumer goods like processed foods and soft drinks, clothing and textiles which she imports at present.

Small scale industries and certain handicrafts are still in an early stage of development. Woodcarvings, toys, furniture, game skin mats and karosses, woven rugs, reed mats, baskets, straw hats, pottery, bead work, metal work are some of the traditional cottage industries and handicrafts which can be developed. Initial steps towards development of these industries have been taken by the Serowe Youth Development Association, by the community development department and by the Bakgatla Development Association. These efforts are being intensified in the current plan period and a small-scale industries expert is being recruited. It is expected that production of high quality handicrafts would provide considerable income to the economy.

Burundi

Burundi is a small, basically tropical country with an area of 27,827 square kilometres, located on Lake Tanganyika. Although comparatively free of the sort of ethnic conflict which troubles neighbouring Rwanda, Burundi has weathered one coup, in 1966, when King Ntare was deposed and the Republic of Burundi formed. It is, like Rwanda, densely populated (135 inhabitants per square kilometre), with a total population of 3.5 million inhabitants. The annual population growth rate of 2 per cent around 1967 has been increased in the past few years by immigration from Rwanda and the Congo.

The economy of Burundi is based on subsistence agriculture. It is estimated that 95 per cent of the population cultivate manioc, sweet potatoes, corn and bananas, or raise livestock. Approximately 70 per cent of the Gross National Product is derived from agriculture. Due to the shortage of arable land and rather inaccessible position of Burundi, cash crops must be low in bulk and command high prices to withstand the costs of transportation. Coffee is the main export crop, accounting for 85 per cent of export earnings in 1967, followed by cotton (10 per cent), then hides and skins (5 per cent). Its reliance for export earnings on one crop is therefore very great.

Burundi's principal mineral resources are cassiterite and china clay. Industry is minimal, consisting mainly of flour mills, dairies and breweries, producing for local consumption. Thanks to a generator installed by the European Development Fund, there is a tea factory at Teza. All industrial enterprise in the country is controlled by Europeans - mainly Belgians, but also Greeks and Italians. Possibilities for development do exist: Burundi's exports are primarily in the raw and unprocessed state, and there is scope for a fishing industry on Lake Tanganyika. However, with one of the lowest per capita incomes in Africa, at less than $ 40 per year, Burundi's development is affected by many adverse factors. Already mentioned is the excessively high cost of transport, due to the geographical situation of the country - its distance from the sea, and lack of navigable rivers - and its unsatisfactory infrastructure, with no railway and only 6,000 kilometres of roads. When still a Protectorate, Burundi formed part of a regional market, comprising Burundi, Rwanda and Kivu, and also reaching to a certain extent into Uganda and Tanzania. Since Burundi's secession, however, the country has had to depend to a large extent on its own domestic market, and this has created serious problems for the economy. Many firms had to go into liquidation; those remaining have had to reduce their production by 40 to 60 per cent. Thus, with industrial enterprises already established in the country producing only half their potential, there is little incentive for further foreign capital investment.

There is, however, hope that growth will be encouraged. The Five Year Development Plan (1968-72) aims to improve the primary sector, with such measures as provisions for canning and processing of agricultural produce, rather than to introduce further industrialization unrelated to agricultural output. Considerable attention has been paid recently to agricultural development and the possibility of instituting processing industries, with the collaboration of the F.A.O. It is hoped that further mineral resources will be discovered - prospecting has begun under the "Mission Géophysique". An industrial zone has been established at Bujumbura, with its lakeside port, asphalted road network and abundant fresh water and electricity supply. Perhaps of most importance for the future are the summit talks which have recently been taking place between the three neighbouring governments, Burundi, Rwanda and the Congo, and which, it is hoped, will lead to industrial harmonization in the region so essential if Burundi is to develop.

Chad

Chad is a very large landlocked country with an area of 495,750 square miles. The north is desert and the south tropical; arable land is limited. The infrastructure is seriously inadequate, especially since the two main centres, Fort Lamy and Fort Archambault, are located 1450 and 2900 kilometres from the sea, respectively. There is no railway, and only 11,432 kilometres of roads, few of which have a hard surface. Road construction is therefore a major objective in development, notably the Fort Lamy - Fort Archambault - Abeche triangle, due for completion in the early seventies. Air service, however, appears to be sufficient for present needs.

Chad has a population of 3.5 million with an annual growth rate of 1.5 per cent. The majority of the population is engaged in livestock raising and cotton farming, cotton and cattle accounting for 80 per cent and 10 per cent of exports, respectively. Recently, the government has encouraged crop diversification in wheat, millet, sorghum, tobacco, sesame, gum arabic, maize and manioc, as an import substitution measure.

Chad has only limited mineral resources: quartz, and some gold and uranium. Natron (salt) is another mineral now produced and exported.

The annual gross national product amounts to $ 67 per head. The industrial sector of the economy is very small and consists of processing industries of one kind or another. Furthermore, 80 per cent of its financing comes from abroad. The cotton industry is controlled by the French Equatorial Cotton Company, a private concern which owns 25 cotton ginning plants. Chad's First Five Year Plan, covering the years 1966-70, provides for the establishment of several food processing industries; a sugar refinery, a tobacco-processing plant, and a meat and fish processing factory, in an attempt to reduce Chad's excessively heavy dependence on this type of import. There are already two abattoirs, one refrigerated. There is hope, too, of developing a fishing industry around Lake Chad.

Not surprisingly, the Plan concentrates 32 per cent of its budget on improvements in livestock-raising, with the goal of improving methods and facilities, as well as increasing production. In addition to agricultural development, the Plan places emphasis on the transport industry, on education and professional training, nutrition improvement, and urban development.

Small-scale industry is represented by only two establishments: a shoe factory and a perfume factory. There is also a dairy, as well as several joineries and metal shops. Unfortunately, plans for the expansion of these and the launching of new projects have lapsed, due to lack of development capital. In no sector will more than 66 per cent of Plan aims be achieved by 1970. The First Five Year Plan has proved unsatisfactory in many respects. It lacked a solid foundation insofar as it was not based on a detailed analysis of the economy of the country, and was to a certain extent too rigid to allow modification as the situation developed.

However, in 1969, a project was instituted under the aegis of the United Nations, aimed at the establishment of a more rational policy for economic and social development. An interdisciplinary group of international experts is to study the situation in the country and to produce a new development plan and propose methods for instituting and controlling this second plan.

Dahomey

With an area of 43,480 square miles, Dahomey is flanked by Nigeria and Togo. The country has a population of approximately 2.5 million with an annual population growth rate of 2.1 per cent.

In discussing Dahomey it is difficult to decide which of its many problems to approach first. Since independence in 1960 there have been four coups d'etat. Situated on the Gulf of Guinea, with 60 per cent of its population concentrated in the south, Dahomey is, more than most countries, divided by marked regional disparity between the economically favoured, modernizing south and the traditionalistic north. The situation is aggravated by the presence of an over-large bureaucracy, with resultant budgetary drain. Unemployment among the educated is a source of social tension.

The economy of Dahomey is agricultural, with the majority of the population engaged in subsistence farming or the raising of cash crops: palm trees, coffee, groundnuts, and cotton. The country is virtually completely dependent on one source of export earnings: the palm; palm oil, palmetto, palm kernals and palm nuts, at constantly deteriorating terms of trade. For these reasons the Second Five Year Plan, 1966-70, emphasised both increased production through irrigation of export crops as well as diversification into rice, coconut palm, tobacco, vegetables, and fruit. Measures are being taken for the development of the livestock and fishing industries. Secondary importance is attached to infrastructure, especially road construction, to supplement the existing 5490 kilometres of road and three railway lines.

Mineral resources are the unexploited deposits of iron, chrome, phosphates, lignite and limestone. Standard Oil Co. is conducting drilling operations for a small amount of oil. Other natural resources are very meagre. The agricultural land is about 4.9 million acres, only 18.1 per cent of the total area. Twenty per cent of the area is covered by forests mainly in the north. Low grade iron ore and limestone deposits are also found in the remote north.

The industrial sector at present is composed of a few large-scale processing plants; palm oil mills, peanut-husking factories, cotton ginneries, a coconut fibre factory, and a soap factory. Present plan policy is concerned with the construction of a few large-scale enterprises, with an eye to import-substitution: a 100,000 ton capacity cement plant, a 100 ton integrated textile mill, and a 300 ton cashew nut plant. Otherwise there are an estimated 18,500 unstructured handicraft enterprises employing 52,000 people, an inflated figure which is the result of the Dahoman apprenticeships system, but one that indicates a potential source of qualified labour for small-scale industry. Unfortunately there is a pervasive lack of entrepreneurial interest, although the Government detects possibilities in such areas as vegetable oil extraction, distilling, manufacture of cigarettes, manufacture of agricultural implements, detergent production, made-up clothing and canning.

However, there are at present no special organisations to offer advice and aid to prospective entrepreneurs. It is hoped that a branch of the Office for Promotion of Ivory Coast Enterprises will open soon. The Dahomey Development Bank's chronic losses nearly necessitated liquidation, indicating that some alterations are needed before it can act as a reliable source of capital.

There is a great need for a co-ordinated effort, involving an industrial extension programme to deal with handicrafts, an industrial promotion center for small-scale industry, and the formation of industrial estates. An existing investment code gives privileges to the medium, small scale industry. The general investment strategy of the Dahomey Five Year Plan 1966-70 gives priority to rural development, industrial development and infrastructural development.

Ethiopia

Ethiopia, the oldest country under study, is also one of the poorest. Its economy is agricultural, with at least 89 per cent of the population of almost 25 million engaged in subsistence farming or pastoral activities. The main cash crop is coffee which accounted for 30 per cent of export earnings in 1970; and 2.72 per cent of the world's market. As agriculture takes second place in current plan policy, continued increased production is the goal rather than the more complex diversification policy. Emphasis is to be placed on research, the setting-up of commercial farms and ranches, and the Awash Valley Authority project for the construction of dams and other facilities as well as for the re-settlement of small-holder families.

Top priority goes to the expansion of industry; total product is to double by 1973. The strongest push will be to the formation of new, large-scale industries, producing steel and metal products, leather and shoes, and chemicals. Even so, at the end of five years, processing of agricultural goods and textiles will still account for a significant part of total output. In fact, total annual sugar production is expected to rise 35 per cent as a result of completion of a new factory at Metahara in 1969. While government programmes of incentives to industry are fairly comprehensive, including tax and import concessions, financial aid, tariff protection, managerial training centres, and organizations offering advice on design and marketing, special measures particularly in favour of small-scale industry are a new thing. The program is seem to be one of convincing small entrepreneurs to take advantage of the help at hand, something they often fail to do due to inexperience or ignorance.

Mining output is expected to increase steadily from 1968 to 1973, mostly in potash production. A programme of surveys and prospecting is also in operation. Other objectives of the industrial development plan of Ethiopia have been to increase the productive capacity of the economy, to diversify production, and to secure a better utilisation of available resources. Various measures are being taken to create the pre-conditions for faster industrialisation in the future. A diversified consumer goods industry, based on local raw materials and an iron and steel complex using local raw material have been developed. A chemical industry, using local minerals and wood and by products of the oil refinery has also been developed, as well as a building materials industry to meet the increased demand associated with the implementation of the investment programme.

Major obstacles to change in Ethiopia are the lack of power facilities and infrastructure. Present demand for power far outstrips supply. The Fincha Falls Electric Project, to be completed in 1972, will double present supply to 530 kw. In addition, 17 new power systems are to be constructed in urban areas.

Improvements in transportation and communications will concentrate on road construction. Further projects include purchase of new locomotives, aircraft, and two ocean vessels, and the extension of the urban telephone system.

Lastly, primary enrolment, especially in the rural sector, is to be doubled in an effort to overcome the very high rate of illiteracy among the population.

The general policy and investment strategy, during the present and the future plan periods, would emphasise investment in those productive sectors which will in the shortest time generate additional income and savings. The development of infra-structure would be closely related to the growth of the productive sectors. Special considerations will be given to the factor intensity of various projects. But the programme for industrial development must be co-ordinated with the programmes of agriculture, mining, transport and commerce so as to achieve balanced growth.

The Gambia

The Gambia, with an area of 11,295 square kilometres, is the smallest country in Africa. Completely surrounded by French-speaking Senegal, with which it shares many ethnic affiliations, it is one of the more striking examples of arbitrary colonial border-setting.

Over 90 per cent of the population of less than 400,000 is rural, engaged in growing the groundnut crop which forms 95 per cent of experts, the remaining 5 per cent composed of palm kernels, hides, and beeswax. Grain, sorghum and rice are cultivated for subsistence, but food products must still be imported. The extent of the progress made in agricultural development, which is the keystone of the country's production, cannot be measured immediately, but the high and rapidly rising tonnages of groundnuts, together with the indication of declining rice imports and of an increasing cattle population, are evidence of growing output. However, it may have been difficult to justify the basis of the 1964-67 programme which postulated economic growth at the rate of 5 per cent per year. The Four Year Development Plan 1967-71 further stresses increased groundnut production and improved peanut storage facilities. Rice cultivation and livestock-raising are encouraged as well.

The Gambia has 1971 kilometres of roads and these are in the process of being improved and extended. In fact most of the government sector projects in the 1964-67 Plan have been completed. They include the important infrastructural-works of the South Bank trunk road; the large new generator for the Bathurst electricity undertaking; extension of the Bathurst-Kombo water supply; telephone extensions and harbour improvements, including the new slipway and new harbour craft. The Gambia River, which is navigable the entire length of the country, is the main medium of transport. $ 4.8 million has been spent on the construction of a new wharf at Bathurst.

In the current Plan the secondary goal is the augmentation of the power supply; another 2250 KW generator is to be installed at Bathurst Power House, and a new station to be built at Brikama.

Industrial activity in the Gambia is limited to groundnut decortication and the production of groundnut oil. It seems to be a classic example of a country where the inhabitants concentrate on the output of one product to which their physical conditions and skills are suited while relying on outside sources for their own requirements. In spite of the vulnerability of this monocrop economy there clear advantages, especially in the short run, in concentrating energy on something more familiar and useful. There are, however, a few village cotton industries producing made-up clothing. As the latter is presently imported into the Gambia, this industry might be a good target for expansion.

The general policy and investment priorities in the current Plan are to encourage agricultural development on the one hand and to encourage projects designed to improve infrastructure on the other. The agricultural development programme is designed to increase the peasant output primarily of groundnuts and secondly of rice and livestock. The development of infrastructural facilities will, in most part, be left to private enterprise but will be fully encouraged and supported by the public authorities.

Guinea

Over 85 per cent of Guinea's 3.9 million people remain dependent on subsistence cultivation of rice, corn, millet, palm, and bananas. Once a major crop, rice must now be imported. Bananas, citrus fruits and coffee are the main export crops accounting for 29 per cent and 15 per cent of total exports, respectively. Tobacco is also a principal cash crop. Livestock-raising is important in Upper Guinea where arable land is scarce, despite the continued threat of various tropical animal diseases. The current Five Year Plan, 1964-71, aims to diversify production through extensive study of rice and corn culture. An oil palm plantation of 4900 acres is to be created in the Boffa Boké area. However, in general agricultural methods are as yet not sufficiently advanced to allow for transformation of the subsistence sector into a cash economy. On the other hand, there is much smuggling of some goods with neighbouring countries where produce fetches higher prices.

Guinea is rich in mineral resources, with bauxite and the alumina product constituting the major source of export income. There is also gold, diamonds, and iron ore. Output is expected to increase with the Boké Bauxite Project and the resumption of iron ore production at Conakry.

A major goal of the current Plan is to expand and improve infrastructure, and transport facilities. Expenditure of $ 122 million is allotted for the construction of 1340 miles of roads, a new port, and a railway. Several new dams and power stations are planned, the most important being a giant complex on the Konkouré River.

Industrial activity in Guinea is limited to a large alumina plant and several small enterprises producing bricks, plastics, textiles, fruit juice and explosives. There has been some advance in the processing area, notably the new canning factory at Mamou. The Five Year Plan promotes the development of various small-scale industries: factories for the production of glass, salt, and bicycles, candy, suitcases, lubricants and soap, as well as two bakeries and an oil refinery. One million dollars has been set aside for the promotion of handicrafts.

Guinea has suffered severe setbacks in the implementation and achievement of plan goals. The emphasis on self-reliance and decolonisation in all her goals is perhaps too great a demand for the present capacity of the country.

Laos

Laos is a landlocked country with a tropical climate and abundant rainfall. It has a population of almost 3 million and has one of the lowest population densities of these countries. But approximately 50 per cent of its total area is covered by forest. The majority of the population live in small self-contained villages in the Mekong River Valley, engaged in subsistence cultivation of rice, coffee and cotton. Once exported, rice must now be imported. Yield is low due to the prevalence of primitive methods, as well as the absence of a large part of the male working force in the army and the general depopulation of the countryside owing to the bombing. Under normal circumstances there would be ready labour for handicrafts and industry.

Mineral and fuel resources are present but nowhere near fully exploited. Tin, lead, rocksalt, copper, gold, molybdenum and silver ores are present, and perhaps coal and oil. The development of fuel resources is a prerequisite to progress elsewhere. Salt, phosphate, gypsum, limestone, kaolin, mica, and clay abound, the last in sufficient quantity to support expansion of Laos' small brick and tile industry. The reserves of raw materials for the manufacture of lime, cement and plaster are inexhaustible, in view of the size of the known deposits. However, the exploitation of these mineral resources is dependent on the sources of energy.

It is estimated that 50 per cent of the country is covered by forests, of which at least 25 per cent has economic potential. There are many tree species available which are suitable for the peeling of veneers. The plentiful supply of high quality bamboo favours the expansion of the paper industry. Logs are floated down the Mekong river, which possesses great hydro-electric potential as well.

In relation to its size, Laos has a very poorly developed road system. The main artery linking the main provincial centres with the capital is Highway 13, which follows the Mekong from the Cambodian border to the royal city of Luang Prabang. Out of its length of about 1600 kilometres half is usable all year round. However, this important road artery of Laos is being integrated with the Asian Highway project by an extension to the Burmese border. The principal waterway in Laos is the Mekong which provides communication between the main provinces of the north and the south covering a distance of over 1000 kilometres in Laotian territory.

Existing industries in Laos are all small-scale. Thirty-two sawmills make up the largest industry, employing perhaps 1290 workers. In addition there are factories manufacturing cigarettes, matches, soft drinks, sandals, as well as a cement plant, a brickworks, a rice mill, and a tobacco factory. The establishment of further processing industries to serve the domestic market, such as a pineapple juice plant, a brewery, a fruit preserving plant, might act as a stimulus to diversification within the primary sector. It still remains for the country to explore the possibility of manufacturing the products of the current handicrafts and small-scale industries, such as silk yarns, silver wares, wood carvings, musical instruments and pottery.

There are two institutions in Laos which offer advice and financial backing for industrial undertakings, the Laotian Bank of Development and the Credit National Lao. In the private sector in Laos there are as yet no important institutional arrangements for industrial promotion.

Even so external assistance is badly needed, in the form of capital and advisory services to aid in carrying out surveys, feasibility studies, and training programmes.

Lesotho

Lesotho is a small landlocked enclave within the Republic of South Africa; three quarters of the country is covered by the Maluti Mountains, so that over 80 per cent of the population of 930,000 people live in the lowlands. The capital and by far the largest urban centre Maseru has a population of only 9000.

Stock-raising and other agricultural pursuits are the main occupations of the majority of the population, although it is necessary to keep in mind that almost half of the male working force works in the South African mines. Only 12 per cent of the land area is arable. Crops are sorghum, beans, peas, wheat, barley and oats, mostly for subsistence. A small quantity only is exported. Livestock and livestock products bring in 75 per cent of export earnings compared with only 4 per cent for crops. There are serious problems with soil depletion and over-grazing. To improve the situation, the Five Year Plan 1967-72, emphasises livestock development, formation of agricultural co-operatives, land use planning, establishment of farmer-training centres, and incentives to cash farming through agricultural loans.

Having no mineral resources to speak of, Lesotho must utilise its hydro-electric potential. The Oxbow Hydro-electric Project, 1968, was largely financed by South Africa for its own needs, and a similar project is now underway in the Maluti Mountains. Additional surveys are being carried out, and nearly $ 500,000 is being spent on improvement of Maseru's water supply.

Although there has been relatively greater emphasis on agricultural development during the previous plans, industrial development was not neglected altogether. The need to diversify the economy by establishing secondary industries was given direct impetus by certain proposals, namely the Industrial Sites (BAFFD) Scheme, the development of the Cottage Industries Scheme and the development of the Tourism Scheme. The two latter schemes are described as "direct schemes" where private enterprise will take over after the initial stage of financing by the government of specific industrial and commercial measures. The first of these schemes has been intended primarily to create conditions within which private concerns will be more likely to establish industrial enterprises. This scheme makes provision for the construction of road and rail sidings and the supply of water, electric power and sewerage services to industrial sites.

Industrial development, however, faces obstacles on every front: lack of cheap power, lack of resources, a tiny domestic market. The economy is incapable of financing development from within, but can do a considerable amount of investment from foreign savings (see Table III). A recent revision of the tax system may bring in more revenue. At present the industrial sector is made up of two printing plants, a building materials factory, a meat canning factory, and cold storage facilities. As most manufactured items are easily obtainable from South Africa, the only commercial enterprises are shops.

Nevertheless an attempt is being made to improve the situation, under the auspices of South Africa. The recently created Lesotho National Development Corporation has decreed that any firm established with its help must offer 50 per cent of its shares to Lesotho, and employ only nationals. It will bring in experts to guide the setting-up of labour-intensive light industries. Its first project is a mohair carpet factory.

In addition, the Five Year Plan provides for the formation of an Industrial Development Corporation, a businessmen's advisory service, and the Lesotho Handicraft Development Organisation. Projects include a slaughter-house and cannery, a brick factory, and a farm implements factory.

Lastly, mention must be made of Lesotho's growing tourist industry. The Maluti Mountains are a great attraction, and a large hotel has just been completed in Maseru to accomodate increasing numbers of visitors.

Malawi

Malawi, independent in 1964, is a small landlocked country bordering on Lake Nyasa. The population of 4.4 million, while concentrated in the south is fairly spread out on individual farms.

The economy is based on subsistence agriculture. Agricultural products are the main source of export earnings. Tea and tobacco are the main cash crops, the former grown on European-owned plantations, the latter cultivated by Africans, along with cotton and tung. A scarcity of arable land and the traditional land tenure system interfere with increased production policies. The fact that the agricultural sector still holds the greatest potential for increasing national income has meant that the development plan of 1968-70 has given emphasis to the development of natural resources. Twenty three per cent of the total investment in 1968 has been provided for this purpose. Agriculture, the largest single sector in the natural resources group, received 16 per cent of the total investment budget. Also a considerable increase in resources was allocated to livestock production.

Mining is at present limited to stone-quarrying, which provides granite for road construction, an important project as only 135 of Malawi's 8920 kilometres of roads are hard-surfaced. Limestone is present in sufficient quantities to support expansion of the infant cement industry.

Malawi's very small industrial sector has always been and still is dominated by the processing of agricultural products; tobacco, tea, cotton and tung. In recent years a number of small scale industries have been established, producing soap, cigarettes, furniture, bread, rugs and clothing for the domestic market, as well as cement, bricks, and roofing tiles. Small quantities of butter, cheese, and meat products are prepared for local consumption. Increased output in this area would be a step towards decreasing the substantial imports of these items. In the current development plan, 1968-70, apart from the government scheme of developing industrial areas, the other main projects in the industrial field are sponsored by the Malawi Development Corporation. These include hotel projects and the small industries development projects. The Government is also undertaking further investment in the various industrial projects.

Over 25 per cent of Malawi is covered by forest. The presence of conifers, bamboo and yellow-wood at higher altitudes points to the possibility of a paper and wood products industry, if adequate transportation methods could be found.

In the current plan second priority, after natural resources, has been given to the development of transport and communications. About 45 per cent of the total expenditure in 1968 was earmarked for this purpose. A large allocation has been made for the development of roads. Main roads include the I.D.A. financed Zomba - Lilongwe Road, sections of the Lakeshore route, the Blantyre - Chikwana Road, and Feeder roads. The major rail project has been the Nacala rail link, connecting Malawi with the Portuguese railhead at Nova Freixo. Water and sewerage development includes continuation of the Blantyre sewerage scheme, soche sewerage, and pumping equipment and extensions.

A further source is Lake Nyasa itself, which could provide the base for a fishing and fish-canning industry.

As with Botswana and Lesotho, the difficult position of Malawi vis-à-vis its neighbours, Rhodesia and South Africa, cannot be overemphasized, nor can its fundamental dependence on the members of the former Central African Federation. Manufactures, readily and cheaply available from South Africa, are a steady deterrent to local initiative.

Niger

The Republic of Niger, with an area of 1,267,000 square kilometres is a vast, landlocked plateau; arid desert in the north and semi-tropical in the south. The majority of the population of 3.9 million live in the Niger River Valley and are engaged in farming, fishing, and livestock-raising. The limited arable land is used to grow groundnuts, as groundnuts and groundnut oil make up 50 per cent of Niger's exports, followed by animals and animal products. Recently cotton and rice have been introduced with some success as cash crops.

There are few mineral resources in Niger: only small amounts of salt, sodium sulphate, tin and tungsten. The French Atomic Energy Commission has prospected for uranium deposits north of Agedes.

As is to be expected in such a poor, sparsely populated country, infrastructure in Niger is very poor. There are 6150 kilometres of roads and the Dahoman-owned railway between Dosso and the Dahoman port of Cotonou. The ownership of the railway is explained by the fact that Niger's capital and main economic centre is 650 miles from the sea. This has brought about dependence upon Dahomey for trade routes out, a difficult situation since relations between the two countries are not always friendly. The Third Development Plan 1968 allocates as much as 42 per cent of its $ 148 million to the improvement of roads and transport facilities.

At present the industrial sector is small, engaging under 3 per cent of the total working force. Niger's industry accounts for a very low share of national productive activities. The share of the industrial sector in the gross domestic product is almost insignificant. It was 5 to 6 per cent in 1967 and 8.5 per cent in 1968 and it is expected that it would be 13.5 per cent by the end of 1974. This is somewhat less than the average for these countries discussed here. These figures give an idea of the underdeveloped state of industry in Niger. There are a few large industries including a cement plant and an agro-industrial sugar complex, besides many small concerns. Most important are the small joinery workshops, making wood and metal furniture, windows and doors. The Government has great hopes for the expansion and transformation of such family-run enterprises into small factory units. Similar expectations are held for the development of handicrafts.

The Government is aware of the importance of developing industry; however lack of capital in face of more pressing needs limits activities in this area. Efforts are being made to attract foreign investment to the country. In Niger measures are being taken to increase productivity and standards in the primary sector through the establishment of processing industries, and of the manufacture of simple tools and fertiliser, with the ultimate goal of increasing export earnings.

The Industrial Expansion Office offers assistance in evaluation of potential projects and the Development Bank of the Republic of Niger advances financial aid. In the planning stages only is an Office for the Promotion of Small Scale Industry and Crafts. The policy of the Government of promoting small-scale industry and handicrafts is embodied in the system of bringing together small industrialists and artisans in a location set aside for economic activity - the industrial estate.

The present plan provides for the establishment of an industrial estate at Niamey, where facilities will be available for twelve small factories, including a bottling plant, a tannery, a dairy, a dried onion plant, and a match factory. The establishment of the industrial estate at Niamey will be the first step towards organising and developing small-scale industry by these means. It should then be possible to develop the private sector, to select and train heads of enterprises, and to enable them to take their places in industry and to participate in the industrial development of Niger. Nevertheless, much external assistance both financial and advisory will be required for the accomplishment of these goals.

Rwanda

In 1962 the United Nations Trusteeship of Ruanda-Urundi ended, and two new states were formed, Rwanda and Burundi.

Rwanda, in Central Africa, is a small (10,169 square miles) country with a population of 3,380,000 (1968). It is markedly more densely populated than most of the other countries discussed with a high growth rate of 3 per cent per year, so that it is expected that the population will double within 10 to 15 years. The population is not concentrated in any one area; rather people live on individual farms scattered throughout the country. Conflict between the Watusi, the former elite, and the Bahutu, who constitute 85 per cent of the population, was and is a source of serious disruption.

Over 90 per cent of the population are engaged in subsistence agriculture, growing mainly bananas, corn and beans and livestock-raising, although only 52 per cent of the land is arable; coffee and cotton are the principal cash crops, followed by tea, tobacco and pyrethrum. Coffee accounts for about 55 per cent of export earnings. Increased and diversified agricultural production is the major goal of the Five Year Plan, 1967-72, and a cotton-ginning plant is to be built.

Rwanda's climate, because it is unsuitable for the tsetse fly, is particularly favourable to commercial livestock raising, but not until the Government overcomes the owners' reluctance to slaughter their animals, which are a source of great prestige, can livestock raising be commercialized.
The mining of tin is an important part (36 per cent) of export income; Rwanda provides 1 per cent of the world's supply. Other minerals include gold, tentalite, wolfram and beryl.

Although there is no railway, Rwanda has 8000 kilometres of roads. Expansion of the infrastructure, with special attention to the road network, is a secondary goal of the current Plan. With no outlet to the seas, Rwanda depends on the ports of neighbouring countries; via Mombasa in Kenya and Dar es Salaam in Tanzania, and on the Atlantic side, Matadi in Congo Kinshasa. Lake transport links the Rwandan and Congolese ports on Lake Kivu.

Education follows, with 11 per cent of total investment devoted to improvement of technical and secondary facilities.

At present Rwanda has little in the way of industry. Several small enterprises, located mostly around Kigali, the capital, produce various items geared for local (urban) consumption: beverages, soap, bricks and tile, and furniture. The Plan gives lowest priority, and only 6.8 per cent of its budget, to industry but it does provide for the formation of three industrial estates involving 26 separate projects. These are primarily geared to beginning local production of presently imported items, such as dairy products, wood and paper products, clothing and footwear. The main industries in the economy are food, including coffee and tea factories, flour mills, dairy and brewery industries; textiles including garment factory; chemicals including soap works, laboratory of pharmaceutical products, a paint factory; and printing presses, transistor assembly, suitcase, plastic sandals and cigars factories.

The order of priority in the development plan has been for the development of agriculture, infrastructure, industry and services.

Somalia

Somalia, with an area of 637,661 square kilometres is one of the larger countries in Africa, and possessor of the longest coastline, facing both the gulf of Aden and the Indian Ocean. Until recently there has been a lack of port facilities. But the Berbera port in the north of the country and the Kismayo port in the South, whose constructions were financed by the U.S.S.R. and U.S.A., respectively, were both inaugurated in early 1969. The former is important for livestock exports to the Arabian markets, and the latter for bananas, cattle and canned meat exports to Europe, particularly to Italy. Also, a feasibility study has now been completed for the construction of a modern port for Mogadishu, the capital. The project whose cost was estimated at $15 million will be financed by the IDA and the IBRD.

The semi-arid northern plateaux are generally cooler than the southern agricultural areas, but the bulk of the population is concentrated in the southern areas between Juba and Shabelle rivers.

Somalia's economy is based on subsistence agriculture and livestock raising. Over 70 per cent of the population are nomadic or semi-nomadic pastoralists, dependent wholly on their cattle, sheep, goats, and camels. The main subsistence crops are corn, sorghum and vegetables. Sugar, oil seeds, cotton and bananas are the major cash crops grown for export. Production could be increased by changing the present very primitive methods and by providing irrigation facilities.

Since the bulk of the population are pastoralists and agriculturalists, the country's third plan (1971-73) places priority on programmes geared to developing the livestock sector - which has now superseded bananas as the chief foreign exchange earner. Also a massive agricultural crash programme was launched in early 1970 aimed at achieving self-sufficiency in food production within the shortest possible time.

The country is believed to be rich in undeveloped mineral deposits, notably iron ore and gypsum and some tin and bauxite. In early 1968, uranium deposits were discovered in the Bur area of the south. American, West German and Italian firms are now engaged in assessing the commercial value of the mineral and are expected to submit their final report to the Government soon.

The industrial sector is very small, consisting of mainly Italian-owned plants which process agricultural products for export. Most of these plants owned by expatriates, were nationalised along with the banks in May 1970. The main industries include a sugar refinery, a fish and meat cannery, a fruit preserving plant, a textile mill and a sesame seed oil plant. Government policy is primarily concerned with expansion in the processing area, though diversification within the industrial sector is beginning. Current plan projects include a 100,000 ton capacity cement plant.

Although some traditional small-scale industries have declined in importance due to the influence of modern skills, there are others which have withstood the test of time. Even today, it is fashionable to wear hand-made clothes in the southern part of the country. There are many small tanning firms scattered throughout the country although efforts are being made now to combine them into a few large co-operative type enterprises. Since the military Government came into power in October 1969, it has been spelt out very clearly that Somalia will largely opt for small-scale nterprises rather than large-scale prestige projects at this stage of evelopment. Specialized leather works, hand-made clothes, local Baravani ats, wood carvings, and so on, are the most common small-scale industries n Somalia. Predicting the future of small-scale industries in Somalia n the basis of other countries' experiences, one would suggest that the endency is for these industries to decline rather than expand, as ndustrialisation and modern techniques gather momentum and as small-scale roduction is superseded by large-scale production. But thanks to recent omplementary policies, small-scale industries in the traditional sector re likely to grow rather than decline in importance. These complementary olicies include:

(i) The Government's policy to give priority to small-scale industries as against large-scale.

(ii) The declared policy to place due emphasis on the exploitation of the country's immense tourist potentialities.

It is a well-known fact that whenever a country's tourist importance rows, small-scale industry, especially traditional crafts, also prosper s a collateral activity.

Progress, however, is impeded by chronic deficiencies in infrastructure nd shortage of skilled manpower. There is no railway and much of the 3,247 kilometres of roads are unuseable in certain seasons. Therefore 0 per cent of the 1968-70 short-term plan expenditure is allotted for road onstruction and improvement of facilities in the ports. More pressing in sense is the improvement of the living standard of the population, from he point of view of health and education as much as per capita income. aws, malaria, tuberculosis, and other disorders are constantly present. he illiteracy rate is one of Africa's highest. For these reasons projects imed at improving social welfare are of key importance, notably construction f a water supply system costing $ 16.4 million, and new primary schools osting $ 3.8 million.

The Sudan

The Sudan, the largest country in Africa, borders on the Red Sea. In the north there is arid desert while in the south a tropical climate prevails. The Sudan had a population of 15.2 million in 1970 with a high rate of population growth of 2.9 per cent per annum. Although the distribution of population is very uneven, the density of population is very low, viz. 6.0 persons per square kilometre. The population is concentrated along the coasts of the White Nile and the Blue Nile. Conflict between the comparatively advanced North, long subjected to foreign influence and domination, and the more traditional South is a legacy of centuries.

The natural resources of the country are primarily agricultural land and water. There is a plentiful supply of good land for cultivation and grazing. The most important agricultural area consists of a wedge-shaped fertile clay plain situated in the centre of the country. This plain produces almost all the cotton grown in the country.

The economy is agricultural, almost totally dependent on cotton cultivation which provides 50 per cent of exports. It is grown mostly in the irrigated triangle between the White Nile and the Blue Nile, site of the famous Gesira scheme for increased cotton production, a co-operative movement involving some 30,000 farmers who receive 41 per cent of the scheme's total annual revenue, the rest going to the Government. Nevertheless, fluctuations in world cotton prices place the economy in a constantly precarious position, necessitating expanded production of other export crops, such as gum arabic, cottonseed and groundnuts. A large part of the national product is still produced in a traditional way although the modern type of production is spreading rapidly.

Livestock-raising, the sole occupation of the nomadic tribes, plays a considerable role: cattle are raised in the south, camels in the north. Efforts are being made to expand livestock-raising in the hope of increasing exports of hides, skins, and leather.

Considering its size, the Sudan possesses only modest mineral resources; gold and salt in the Red Sea area, plus the recent discovery of copper near Port Sudan. With exploration of minerals far from complete, there is further indication of some high grade iron ore and magnesite in the Red Sea Hills and in Southern Kordofan, and of copper and uranium in the Hofrat El Nahas districts in the borders of the provinces of Darfur and Bahr El Ghasal. Exploitation of these minerals is inhibited by lack of transportation and lack of organisation rather than by deficiency in deposits. There is an almost complete absence of established roads in the northern and central provinces of the Sudan. However, railways have played a dominant part in the transport system of the country.

Industry is dominated by the processing of cotton, gum arabic and cotton seed for export. Secondary industry is making some headway, with factories producing cement, paper, and fertiliser. There is an oil refinery near Port Sudan. The Government is well aware of the worth of small-scale industry, which is defined as those industries employing under 30 workers and having less than £S 50,000 capital. In this category fall workshops, small oil mills, bakeries, tanneries, and numerous other concerns mentioned in Table IX of Chapter II. Many measures have been taken with the aim of promoting small-scale industry: the Industrial Development Act of 1967 offers incentives in the form of a five year exemption from the Business Profits Tax, customs duties on capital imports, and so on. The Industrial Bank of the Sudan and the Industrial Research Institute offer both advice and financial aid to prospective entrepreneurs. The Management Development and Production Centre provides managerial and technical training. In addition the construction of five industrial estates in five large towns is underway, where all necessary facilities will be available.

In general investment priorities in the national development plan seem to lie in the fields of agriculture including livestock, fishing, forestry; industry, including public utilities and building and civil engineering; and transport and social services, including health care and education.

In spite of the above, lack of capital, lack of know-how, and lack of materials supply continue to thwart industrial expansion.

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United Republic of Tanzania

Tanzania, part of the East African community formed by Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, is one of the larger countries in Africa. Its infrastructure, though comparatively well-developed with 2,700 miles of main-line railway and 30,000 miles of roads, remains inadequate in view of the size of the country. The population of 12.6 million is concentrated in small areas at great distances from each other.

The economy of Tanzania is based solidly on agriculture. On the mainland, principle subsistence crops are corn, rice sorghum, and pulses. Cash crops, which accounted for 60 per cent of exports in 1968, are sisal, cotton, and coffee. However, future prospects for these items are not good, due to both falling world prices and domestic problems. In 1967, coffee production fell drastically because of bad weather and disease. It was also discovered that a ton of sisal selling at £ 50 costs £ 56 to produce. While a programme is now in effect to cut the costs of sisal production by 20 per cent and thus save the industry, such measures do not lessen the necessity of diversification in the primary sector to insure upward trend in export revenues. The possibility of large-scale wheat production is under consideration, and action has been taken to encourage the growing of tea, various nuts, and pyrethrum. In all cases production is held up by the prevalence of inefficient methods. For this reason the policy of the Second Five Year Plan, 1969-74, centres on overall modernisation of the agricultural sector, with emphasis on farmer-training, research, the setting-up of farmer-controlled co-operatives to ease marketing, and the establishment of new villages, state farms and ranches to break through subsistence tradition. A further tactic will be expansion of the network of transportation, marketing, and other distributive services to hasten monetisation of the subsistence sector.

The major goal of the current plan is to establish an industrial base for Tanzania's economy, beginning with the domestic manufacture of consumer goods as an import-substitution measure. Although the Government is relying heavily on the private sector to undertake investment, it is increasing the chances of success by offering incentives in the form of tariff protection of infant industry, financial aid and research services from the government-owned Tanganyika Development Corporation, and provision of adequate industrial sites. However, within the industrial sector, highest priority will be given to the establishment of large-scale concerns, notably a fertiliser plant and a steel-rolling mill. Further projects for the manufacture of food products, beverages, tobacco, textiles, clothing, leather, wood and wood products, are not being approached from the particular standpoint of small-scale industry.

This is not to say that promotion of small-scale industries and handicrafts is entirely neglected, but rather that recognition of their special qualities and problems is very new although gaining ground. The Cottage Industries Training Centre, offers courses in bamboo and metal work, carpentry, weaving, and basketry. The National Small Industries Corporation occupies itself with the establishment of industrial estates, and the provision of advice, research facilities, and financial aid. Under its auspices over 140 industrial workshops have been set up in Dar es Salaam, for the encouragement of particularly artistic handicrafts and woodcarving. The processing and handicrafts industries, which are now run mostly within a co-operative framework, will be expanded under the plan.

High priority will, however, be given to those small-scale industries which are economically viable on an indigenous basis and for which an adequate market exists.

Industrial development policy, on the whole, is restrained by the limited domestic market, lack of capital, and a tendency to rely on more industrialised Kenya for manufactured goods and services.

Uganda

Uganda is the landlocked member of the East African community, at no point nearer than 400 miles to the Indian Ocean.

Smaller and in every way more traditional than Kenya, Uganda's economy is based on its large, relatively prosperous agricultural sector. Urbanisation is very low, with a high percentage of the population living on small independent farms. Coffee is by far the most important cash crop producing 53 per cent of the value of exports, followed by cotton, with 23 per cent of exports. However, constant fluctuation in world coffee prices has made diversification a major goal of Uganda's Second Five Year Plan, 1966-71, "Work for Progress". Emphasis is laid on the purchase of tractors and other equipment, together with irrigation programmes, to expand production of cotton, sugar and tea.

Uganda is fairly well endowed with natural resources. Four large lakes support a growing fishing industry, and forests supply mahogany wood for export. Mineral resources are minor, with the exception of Uganda's few remaining copper deposits as yet unexploited. However, the absence of natural fuel resources may be more than compensated for by the tremendous hydro-electric potential of Owen Falls, where presently $ 44.8 million is being spent on the construction of a new station.

Industrial activity in Uganda is dominated by processings cotton-ginning, coffee-milling, oil-milling, and the preparation of tea and sugar. The current Plan attaches most importance to expansion in this area, with investments in the food-processing industries totalling $ 17 million, over half of which goes to tea processing. Other projects include a milk-processing plant, a meat products factory, and a fish cannery. Elsewhere, the Government is concentrating on the establishment of factories producing textiles, clothing, furniture, footwear, as well as paper bags and hessian bags. Lastly, a steel factory and a nitrogenous fertiliser plant are under construction. Recognition of the special role of small-scale industry is very recent, but a four point programme has been worked out: extension of easy credit, provision of promotional and extension services, training advice and research, provision of industrial sites and facilities, and the setting up of a Management Training and Advisory Centre. The small-scale industry programme is expected to play an important role in training Ugandans in entrepreneurship, the lack of which seriously inhibits faster industrialisation in Uganda. Also the entire programme of small industries development will be administered by one central body which would provide loans to small industrial enterprises out of a sizable fund at its disposal.

The basic industrial strategy, however, is to promote import-substitution of consumer goods in the local market. Certain other industries producing particular items geared to the exploitation of potential export markets in adjacent East African countries will also be developed. Other objectives of the long-term perspective plan of Uganda, are to transform the economic and social structure, to increase per capita domestic product to $172 by 1981, to diversify production by a rapid expansion of manufacturing and the development of cash crops, and to strengthen agriculture and to develop the country's infrastructure.

Change has been impeded by the lack of adequate infrastructure and manpower. Accordingly, $100 million is allotted for the construction of new roads and railways. Uganda is unusual in its educational policy, which emphasises expansion of technical, vocational, and university facilities, as opposed to widening the primary base.

Upper Volta

Upper Volta is a landlocked country in West Africa, with no point less than 325 miles from the sea. The majority of the population of 5.3 million is rural, living in the centre and south. There are three main cities, Ouagadougou with 100,000 people, Bobo-Dioulasso with 53,000, and Koudougou with 25,000. Population density is high for Africa, so that many people seek seasonal or permanent employment in neighbouring countries.

Farming and herding are the occupations of over 90 per cent of the population, livestock accounting for over 50 per cent of export earnings. Efforts are being made to expand cultivation of cotton, sesame, and tobacco, and wild shea nuts for oil and butter. Before the 1967-70 Plan, processing industries were of little importance in the economy. There was, in fact, no industrial development programme as such, but a whole series of industrial projects some of which did not enter into production during the period covered by the overall plan. The main industrial enterprises existing before the plan were in the fields of food processing, textiles, metal processing, paper, leather and footwear, wood and building materials, and vehicle maintenance and repair. Their economic impact was very small. The present Five Year Plan, 1971-75, gives top priority to increased production in and commercialisation of the primary sector, concentrating on soil improvement and reclamation, and irrigation. The primary sector accounts for 24 per cent of output in the economy. Thus future industrial expansion is to be pursued by promoting industries processing local raw materials or producing equipment goods for the primary sector.

Upper Volta has minor deposits of gold, quartz, and significant deposits of bauxite and manganese. It is planned that exploitation of the latter will be well under way by 1975.

Industrial development in Upper Volta is severely handicapped both by its location and its limited supplies of electric power, fuel, water, and qualified manpower. Nearly $ 26.5 million are allocated to improvements in infrastructure, with emphasis on road construction. Since 1967, various new enterprises have started: two ginning mills, a brickworks, a match factory, a cigarette factory, an agricultural equipment and fertiliser factory, a sugar cane complex, and factories producing textiles, footwear, paint, dye and varnish. Further projects include a milk-processing plant, a paper industry, a flour mill, an electric dry battery factory, an oil works, and a metal components factory. The Industrial Development Authority has taken measures to create incentives and services for prospective entrepreneurs.

It must be emphasised, however, that while industrial production is expected to double, its total volume will still be very small. Most attention will be given to those industries which supply goods and services to the primary sector, the development of which remains the major objective.

People's Democratic Republic of Yemen

The People's Democratic Republic of Yemen is a small country with an area of 130,000 square miles and a low number (1.5 million) of scattered inhabitants. Most of them are nomads with different degrees of medieval economy, living in wide desert areas with little transport and practically no other facilities.

The main base of the economy of the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen is trade mainly because of its favourable geographical position and the erection of the major oil refinery. The port of Aden which serves as a centre of collection and distribution to the neighbouring territories became one of the busiest bunking ports of the world. Crude oil and its refined products form the bulk of the import and export trade of the country. But export items also include textiles, manufactured goods, hides and skins, gums and resins, cotton seed and dried fish.

The economy of the country is not very strong. The Central Government has suffered a loss of major income sources due to the end of British spending on the British Military base in Aden and of U.K. Government aid, the closure of the Suez Canal with its damaging effect on Aden as a bunkering station, and the loss of its traditional tourist trade. Also since independence most of the expatriates who worked for the Government have left the country and there is an extreme shortage of qualified and experienced indigenous personnel to run the economy.

Large-scale industrial activity seems to be negligible apart from the B.P. oil refinery which is the only important industrial enterprise in the economy. The B.P. oil refinery, however, accounts for about 10 per cent of GDP and over 60 per cent of the export earnings of the country, as well as providing employment to about 2000 employees. It seems that the location, climate and the geographical surroundings of the country do not favour large-scale industry. The small size of the market, the low purchasing power of the population, the low number of scattered inhabitants, and the lack of a raw material base are the main handicaps for the development of large-scale industry in the country. These facts also explain the under-utilization of the existing industrial capacity.

Small-scale industry, on the other hand, has its own problems such as unutilised capacity, deficiency in technical and managerial skills and lack of industrial entrepreneurs, high cost and low productivity of labour, and lack of financial resources. Total small-scale industry accounts for only 1 per cent of GDP and provides employment to about 3000 workers or about 50 per cent more employment than the B.P. refinery. Such industries include consumer goods industries such as soft drinks and dairy industries, tiles and cement block industries, aluminium ware factories, a soap factory, a cotton seed oil extraction factory, a tannery, a paint factory in Aden, a fish meal factory, and the salt industry which is the traditional export industry in the country. As pointed out above some of these industries are running at a much reduced capacity (at nearly 20 per cent of their original working capacity), while others closed down entirely shortly after starting production. In some cases the machinery and equipment have arrived but have not yet been set up for lack of transport and infrastructural facilities.

It seems that there has been no proper government machinery for development planning and programming in the country. Under the circumstances there has been no coherent Government policy for the encouragement of small-scale industry until recently. A policy of registering commercial and industrial enterprises has been induced recently. Also a draft investment law allowing for various incentives for the encouragement of local and foreign investment in industry has been prepared.

A special emphasis should, however, be placed on the development of infrastructural facilities in general and coastal sea transport facilities in particular, for expanding the national market. The government should also provide assistance to small-scale industries by enabling them to hire, rather than having to buy, land and certain types of equipment at reasonable terms. This may be relatively easier if the plants are grouped in an industrial estate. Aden is, in fact, the most appropriate place for a small industrial estate with facilities like electricity, gas, water and large number of barracks and buildings (left after the evacuation of the British military base).

APPENDIX II - Tables I to V

APPENDIX II
Additional Reference Tables

Table I

Per Capita Income, 1958, 1963, 1967; Average Annual Rate of Growth of GDP, 1960-67, 1967-68; and Planned and Actual Rates of Growth of GDP over Specified Periods:

Country	Per Capita Income (US $) 1958	1963	1967	Average annual rate of GDP 1960-67	1967-68	Planned rate of growth of GDP per annum over given years		Actual rate of growth of GDP from start of planning to 1963
Afghanistan	72	60	90	2	3.6	(67-71)	4.3	[illegible]
Botswana	na	na	95	5.6	-	(68-73)	6.0	-
Burundi	38	40	52					
Chad	54	66	71	2.8		(66-70)	5.9	3.0
Dahomey	70	75	82	1.4		(66-70)	4.0	
Ethiopia	41	49	63	4.2	4.4	(68-72)	6.0	4.8
Gambia	77	81	89	9.4		(67-70)	4.2	
Guinea	89	99	100	7.8		(64-70)		
Laos	65	67	70					
Lesotho	-	-	78	11.8		(67-71)	5.0	
Malawi	36	41	66	4.8	2.4	(65-69)		6.4
Niger	72	81	86	4.2		(67-70)	4.7	
Rwanda	38	40	43	3.6				
Somalia	60	69	50					
Sudan	88	104	99	4.3	1.0	(61-70)	5.0	4.0
Tanzania	56	65	65	3.8	4.9	(64-70)	6.7	4.2
Uganda	70	74	88	4.5	3.0	(66-71)	6.3	3.1
Upper Volta	39	47	47	2.7		(67-70)	4.0	
Yemen (People's Dem. Rep.)	48	-	110					

Appendix II
Table II

Value and Percentage of Total Value of Principal Exports, 1950, 1955, 1960 and 1967

Country and Unit of Currency	Principal Exports	1950 Value	1950 % of Total Value	1950 Total Export Value	1955 Value	1955 % of Total Value	1955 Total Export Value	1960 Value	1960 % of Total Value	1960 Total Export Value	1970 Value	1970 % of Total Value	1970 Total Export Value
Afghanistan m.U.S.$ (m.Afghani)	Karakul				15.36	27.7	56.40	11.93	18.1	66.05	879.3	16.6	5198
	Fruits + nuts				12.72	22.9	(2775.4)	8.89	10.5	(1949.5)	1682.4	33.3	(5017.6)
	Cotton, wool, rugs				22.50	40.0		22.82	41.6	1/14	2167.0	43.4	
Botswana Rand'000 (£ 1000)	Cattle + goats			3252.0	(1990.9)	71.2	(2887.6)	6232.3	71.4	8797	8517.0	76.8	11.319
	Food + abattoir prod.				(432.0)	14.8		1435.6	24.4		1438.0	12.7	
	Sorgum, talc manganese				(407.0)	14.0		3649	4.2	3/11	327	2.8	
Burundi m.Burundi Francs	Coffee										709.5	80.0	914.6
	Cotton										91.5	10	
	Hides										24.0	5	
Chad m.Francs CFA	Raw cotton			3246				2229	67	3271	3754.0	87.0	[illegible]
	Cattle, hides							652			740.0	8.3	
	Meat, abattoir prod.									1/17			
Dahomey m.CFA Francs	Oilseeds + nuts			2233	2430.8		2888.9				1834.0		3.083
	Cotton				182.4						206.0		
	Green Coffee				275.7			(1962)			130.0		
Ethiopia Eth.$ m.	Coffee			66.5	110.8		154.0	138.6	76.0	210.7	200.3	80.1	2[illegible]9.1
	Fuels				38.2			50.6	23.		58.2		
	Manufactures									1/11	4		

Appendix II
Table II (continued)

Country and Unit of Currency	Principal Exports	1950 Value	1950 % of Total Value	1950 Total Export Value	1955 Value	1955 % of Total Value	1955 Total Export Value	1960 Value	1960 % of Total Value	1960 Total Export Value	1970 Value	1970 % of Total Value	1970 Total Export Value
Gambia £ '000	Decorticated Groundnuts			2286.0	2356	96	2472	3077	90.9	3374.0	2265	52	6318
	Unrefined g'nut oil, G'nut cake				85			45		1/3	2054	36	
											1320	10	
Guinea m. Guinea Francs	Bananas, Pineapples			1875.0				4050		13603.0			
	Green coffee							2224					
	Diamonds							1758		1/5			
	Iron+Aluminum							3398					
Lesotho m. Rand	Livestock, skins										33.4	76.0	43.8
	Wheat, beans, peas										1.8	4.3	
	Diamonds										6.9	15.0	
Laos m. Kips	Tin										377.4	43	
	Timber										285.5	33	887.9
	Green coffee										150.3	20	
Malawi £. m.	Unmanufact. tobacco												
	Green groundnuts												
	Raw cotton												
Niger m. CFA. Fr.	Groundnuts			530.0				2851	75	3824	5707.0		8226
	Groundnut oil												
	Livestock							591	18		845.0		1/6
Rwanda m. Francs	Coffee (green + roasted)			267.5						178.5	774.3		1403.8
	Non-ferrous ores + concentrates (tin)									(1963)	528.8		
Somalia m. Somali	Bananas, etc.			n.a				102.8	86	139.2	149.8		198.5
	Crude mat. fuels							14.3	11.2		22.1		
	Manufactures							3.2	1.1		2.4		

Appendix II
Table II (cont'd)

Country and Unit of Currency	Principal Exports	1950 Value	1950 % of Total Value	1950 Total Export Value	1955 Value	1955 % of Total Value	1955 Total Export Value	1960 Value	1960 % of Total Value	1960 Total Export Value	1970 Value	1970 % of Total Value	1970 Total Export Value
Sudan	Cotton	24.8		33.1	21.1		40.4		46.	72.7		60.	83.7
£ sud.m.	Gum Arabic	2.7			3.5				11.			10.	7/30
	Sesame G'nuts								7.			7.8	
Tanzania	Sisal	11.8		24.1			37.4	15.4	28.2	56.5	12.2	22.7	65.
£ m.	Cotton	1.4						8.8	16.1		12.2	19.5	
	Diamonds	.8						4.6	11.9		7.1	11.3	
	Coffee	3.4						7.3	12.9		8.5	13.3	
Uganda	Unroasted Coffee	8.3		47.2	20.1		41.9	16.9		42.9	34.6		65.4
	Raw Cotton	16.6			16.8			14.9			15.1		13/30
Upper Volta	Livestocks			789.0				589.0		882.	2271.0		4429
m.CFA Frs.	Ginned cotton							100.0			842.0		

Appendix II
Table III
...ue and Percentage of Total Value of Principal Imports for Selected Years

Country and Unit of Currency	Year	Principal Imports	Total Value of Imports	Value and Percentage of Total Value of: Consumer Goods V	Consumer Goods %	Basic Materials and Manufatures V	Basic Materials and Manufatures %	Machinery Capital Goods V	Machinery Capital Goods %
Afghanistan	1956	Textiles, foot-	2500.9						
m.Afghanis	1960	wear, tyres,	3392.1						
	1966	rubber prod. metal manuf. machines	11270.8	1064.9	9.4	4092.5	37.1	6025	52.6
Botswana	1954	grain, live-	(2935.1)						
Rand'000 (£st'000)	1961	stock	(3287.7)	(982.5)	29.0	(117.5)	4.0	(2182.7)	66.0
Burundi m.Burundi Fr. (m.US$)	1967	Fuels Vehicles	1713(15.8)		15.0		57.0		28.0
Chad	1951	Food, bev. +tob-	3095						
m.CFA.Fr.	1961	acco/constr.	11559						
	1967	mat./transp. and energy	13950	8557.	62.	3689.	25.0	1600.	12.0
Dahomey	1950	Liqueurs, cars,	2137.0						
m.CFA Fr.	1961	cement, petrol	3899.1	765.1	13	1671	45.0	1463	37.0
	1967	iron, lorries	8000.0		25.		42.0		33.0
Ethiopia	1953		138.4	15.8	11.6	17.6	12.4	104.7	77.0
Eth.$ m.	1956		168.0	13.6	8.7	21.2	13.5	123.2	77.8
	1966		307.6	11.7	8.0	64.6	32.0	222.2	60.0
	1967		357.0	27.0		81.6		245.3	
Gambia	1955	tobacco, sugar,	3710.0	856.0	23.0	840.0	22.0	1903	55.
£st.'000	1961	textiles, cotton	4592.0	1694.0	35.	1059.0	25.0	1819.	40.
	1967	piece goods, radios, metal goods, mach.	7125.0		36.		28.0		37.

Appendix II
Table III (cont'd)

Country and Unit of Currency	Year	Principal Imports	Total Value of Imports	Value and Percentage of Total Value of: Consumer Goods V	%	Basic Materials and Manufactures V	%	Machinery Capital Goods V	%
Guinea m.guinea francs	1950	rice, petroleum prod. textiles, machinery	48.4						
	1959		60.0		15.4		29.0		55.6
	1966		55.						
Lesotho m.Rand		Food, drink + tobacco							
Laos m. Kips	1967	transport equipment, minerals + oils, cereals +vegetables, food base metals machinery	22.9	10.7	48.5	3.6	38.8	2.4	11.9
	1968	Textile fabrics	10036.7						
Malawi m.Kwacha	1954	Meat, cereal, sugar	7.5						
	1963	Rubber, wood and paper, textile	19.7	5.6	32.	9.5	48.	3.4	19.6
Niger m.CFA.Fr.	1952	Rice, flour, candy	657.0						
	1957	Fertilizer, soap	1379.0						
	1961	cement, glasswork	6617.7	69.5	11.	3819.2	52.	2723.0	37.0
	1966	clothing, footwear, textiles, furniture	11115.0	737.1	14.	8117.0	50.	2174.0	36.0
Rwanda m.Francs	1963	meat, dairy prod.	242.15						
	1966	rubber, wood and paper products, textiles, footwear	2022.15		8		45.		31.0

Appendix II
Table III (cont'd)

Country and Unit of Currency	Year	Principal Imports	Total Value of Imports	Consumer Goods V	Consumer Goods %	Basic Materials and Manufactures V	Basic Materials and Manufactures %	Machinery Capital Goods V	Machinery Capital Goods %
Somalia thous. Somali shillings	1961	Rice, canned fruit and vegetables, textiles, clothing footwear, furniture	210,284.0	87460.0	32.4	33782.0	12.5	146746.0	54.3
	1967		300,339.0	97749.0	33.4	51000.0	17.0	147484.0	49.1
Sudan £ sud.m.	1950		27.0	18.3	78.0	4.3	12.0	4.2	10.0
	1954		48.4	13.8		7.5		15.8	
	1965				62.8		8.5		2.7
	1968				48.3		9.1		42.6
Tanzania £ Tan'000	1950	Machinery + transport equipment Textiles	24173.0						
	1955		43531.0						
	1966		37817.0	2565.0	7.1	5258.0	14.2	27171.0	75.3
	1968		48752.0	3795.0	7.7	4957.0	10.5	38697.0	73.0
Uganda £ster.'000	1951		24296.0						
	1955		33572.0	1834.0	5.5	3327.0	9.9	25327.0	75.5
	1959		24692.0	1809.0	5.3	3541.0	14.5	18381.0	74.4
	1968		40422.0	2541.0	6.3	4688.0	11.2	32023.0	76.7
Upper Volta m.CFA.Fr.	1950	Flour, sugar, textiles, leather goods manufactures, machines, clothing	n.a.						
	1960		8569.0	1268.0	15.0	2323.0	26.0	2096.0	25.0
	1967		11924.0	3271.0	29.0	3991.0	35.6	4028.0	34.4

Appendix II
Table IV

Population, Crude Birth and Death Rates, and Rate of Natural Increase

Country	Year	Population '000	Crude Birth rate per 1000	Crude Death rate p.1000	Rate of Natural Increase per 1000	Rate of Natural Increase around 1967 Percentage
Afghanistan	1960	13,800				
	1970	15,586				
Botswana	1946	377				3.0
	1960	483	21.7	6.3		
	1968	629				
Burundi	1950		48.5	26.5	22	2.0
	1960	2,908	46.7	17.4	29.3	
	1970	3,475		26.0		
Chad	1955	2,900	48.0	28.0		1.4
	1965	3,307	45.0	31.0	28.0	
	1970	3,510				
Dahomey	1960	2,050	54.0	26.0	28.0	2.8
	1968	2,640				
Ethiopia	1953	19,000				1.8
	1960	20,700				
	1969	24,769		22.0		
Gambia	1953	261	39.8	18.0		1.8
	1960	299	38.7		17.7	
	1969	357	46.9	12.9	34.0	
Guinea	1955	2,570	62.0	40.0		3.0
	1960	3,510			22.0	
	1969	3,890		35.0		
Laos	1950	1,445				2.4
	1960	2,337		23.0	24.	
	1967	2,893	47.0			
Lesotho	1955	642	40.0		17.0	
	1965	835		23.0		
	1970	930				

Appendix II
Table IV (cont'd)

Population, Crude Birth and Death Rates, and Rate of Natural Increase

Country	Year	Population '000	Crude Birth rate p.1000	Crude Death rate p.1000	Rate of Natural Increase p.1000	Rate of Natural Increase around 1967 Percentage
Malawi	1945	2,049			55.0	2.4
	1965	3,908	53.7	4.5		
	1970	4,398			49.2	
Niger	1955	2,547	52.1			
	1965	3,513	52.0	27	25.0	3.1
	1970	3,909				
Rwanda	1952 *	2,114		25.9	26.2	3.1
	1965	3,110	56.0		38.3	
	1970	3,550		14.0		
Somalia	1960	2,010				2.9
	1967	2,730	66.0	29.0	37.0	
Sudan	1950	8,766		18.5	33.2	2.9
	1960	11,770	51.7	20.0		
	1970	15,186				
Tanzania	1950	7,641		24.0		2.5
	1960	10,454	46.0	22.0	24.0	
	1970	12,557				
Uganda	1950	5,102	24.8	12.1	12.7	2.5
	1960	7,016	42.0		22.0	
	1970	8,100		20.0		
Upper Volta	1960	4,400	53.0	35.0	18.0	1.8
	1970	5,278				
Yemen	1960	5,000				

* Joint figure for Rwanda-Burundi

Appendix II
Table V

Literacy and Communications

Country	Year	Percentage illiterate of total population	Year	No.of Newspapers in circulation per 1000 persons	Year	Radios in use per 1000 persons
Afghanistan	1950	98	1950	1	1955	.8
	1968	94	1965	4	1965	2.
Botswana	1950	79.5	-	-	1955	1.
	1965	70	-	-	1965	9.
Burundi	1960	90	-	None	-	-
Chad	1965	80	1954	.1	-	-
			1964	.3	-	-
Dahomey	1967	89	1960	.8	1965	15
			1967	1.		
Ethiopia	1950	95	1950	.5	1955	1
	1967	90			1965	15
Gambia	1960	90	1950	2	1955	2
			1965	5	1965	95
Guinea	1965	90	1965	.9	1965	15
Lesotho	1946	65.1	1963	48	1955	.9
	1965	46			1965	7
Laos	1950	98	1960	11	1955	6
	1968	90	1965	12	1965	12
Malawi	1950	93.5	1962	None	1965	3
	1967	85				
Niger	1960	99	1965	.3	1955	.5
	1967	90			1965	12
Rwanda	1965	90		None	-	-

Appendix II

Table V (cont'd)

Country	Year	Percentage illiterate of total population	Year	No. of Newspapers in circulation per 1000 persons	Year	Radios in use per 1000 persons
Somalia	1965	90	1950	.8	1950	3
			1965	2.	1965	13
Sudan	1955	90	1955	.6	1950	.5
	1960	88	1965	17		
Uganda	1960	68	1960	5	1955	4
			1965	8	1965	14
Upper Volta	1963	93	1950	.6	1965	.1
			1965	11		
Tanzania	1964	83	1950	.5	1965	11
			1963	3		
Yemen	1956	90				

APPENDIX III - Sources of Statistical Data

APPENDIX III

SOURCES OF STATISTICAL DATA

GENERAL

United Nations Statistical Yearbook - various issues

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