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PRESENT AND POTENTIAL SUGAR PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION IN AFRICA 1/

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SUMMARY

In the decade 1964-1974, sugar production, consumption, exports, and imports in Africa have all grown; but each at a different growth rate. Production grew by an annual rate of 4.8%, consumption by 4.6%, exports by 2.8%, and imports by 1.8%. Africa's share in world production grew from 5.8% in 1964 to 7.1% in 1974; the corresponding rates for consumption were 5.6% and 6.1%; for exports about 10% for both years and for imports 8% and 7%.

Despite its potential, the share of Africa in each of these activities on a global scale is generally small, though somewhat high for exports than for the other three variables. During the decade, Africa managed to maintain its initial position as a net exporter of sugar.

The kind of sugar produced, consumed, imported and exported is of the centrifugal variety. Non-centrifugal sugar occupies a very insignificant place in Africa. Likewise, sugar cane rather than sugar best provides the main raw materials for Africa's mills.

Until 3 or 4 years ago, the world market for sugar was highly regulated by various types of international agreements and national legislations, and only 25% of the sugar that entered world commerce was transacted outside of these arrangements. Partly because some of the agreements have expired and have not been renewed, and partly because some of the national legislations have been liberalized, the amount of sugar transacted in the "free" market has risen from 25% to 75% of all sugar entering international trade.

By 1985, Africa's production, consumption of and trade in sugar will increase considerably. In that year, the continent will have expanded output by between 2.2 million tons and 5.4 million tons. The lower figure is based on the assumption that the continent's consumption will, as in the past, be partly met by demestic production and partly by imports; whereas the higher figure assumes that all consumption requirements will be met by demestic sille and that exports will continue to grow as in the past. The corresponding requirement for investment is about \$2.4 billion for the lower figure and \$5.4 billion for the higher; between 153,000 and 374,000 jobs will be created; and some 220,000 to 539,000 ha. may be required. If enough countries have the determination, sucrose - based industries could also be established to produce citric acid, and sorbitol for the continent's food, beverage, and pharmacoutical industries.

The export forecast assumed in the higher production figure is ambitious. The continent could of course produce that much and even more extra sugar; but importing countries (both in Africa as well as outside the continent) would have to adopt trade policies to enable the continent's mills to supply their respective markets. For those African countries which now get their supplies from extra-continental sources, this would mean a considerable undertaking in continental cooperation but, if realised, it would mean an equally considerable achievement. The developed countries today importing sugar from Africa and those capable of doing so also have a significant role to play im helping Africa realise its export target.

Introduction

In 1074, Africa produced a out 5.6 million cons of centric fugal sugar.* Ten years earlied, the figure was 3.5 tons. This represents a growth rate of about 4.8%. Consumption, exports, and imports have also grown, though of course at different rates. What are the specific components of this general picture? How does the continent compare with other regions and countries? And, more important, what are the prospects for the future?

The primary purpose of this paper is to examine thes and related questions. Chapter I explores the developments over the 1964-74 decade of the principal variables around which the paper's discussion revolves: production, consumption, experts and imports. Chapter II considers prospects for the succeeding decade, with 1985 as a convenient target year. Though in essence the variables remain the same, attention will mainly focus on the production/consumption relationship, and what it takes to close the gap between the present** level of consumption and that forecast for 1985. The implications of raising production to the anticipated level of consumption will be analysed in terms of investment, manpower, land area, and such other related factors as it is possible to raise for "secussion. The losing section

^{*}Much of the discussion in this paper will be in terms of centrifugal sugar (both refined and raw being given in raw equivalent). Non-centrifugal sugar production in Africa is insignificant, and both its level and relative importance in the world scene over the past decade will be examined briefly in Section A, Chapter I.

^{**}This refers to 197/1, the last year for which reliable and complete figures are available.

of Chapter II will consider the foreign trade dimension of the continent's sugar industry, i.e. the possibility of exports. As will subsequently be appreciated, the discussion would not go beyond some very tentative (but nonetheless essential) indications of the prospects that need to be exploited in this respect.

CHAPTER I

REVIEW OF PAST DEVELOPMENTS: 1964-1974

A. PRODUCTION OF SUGAR

1. The Level and Growth of Production: Africa, despite its potential, is among the less important sugar producers in the world. Its cubput hardly equals that of Cuba, whose population is less than 2.5% of the continent's. In terms of the world as a whole, it contributes a little over 7% of total production*.

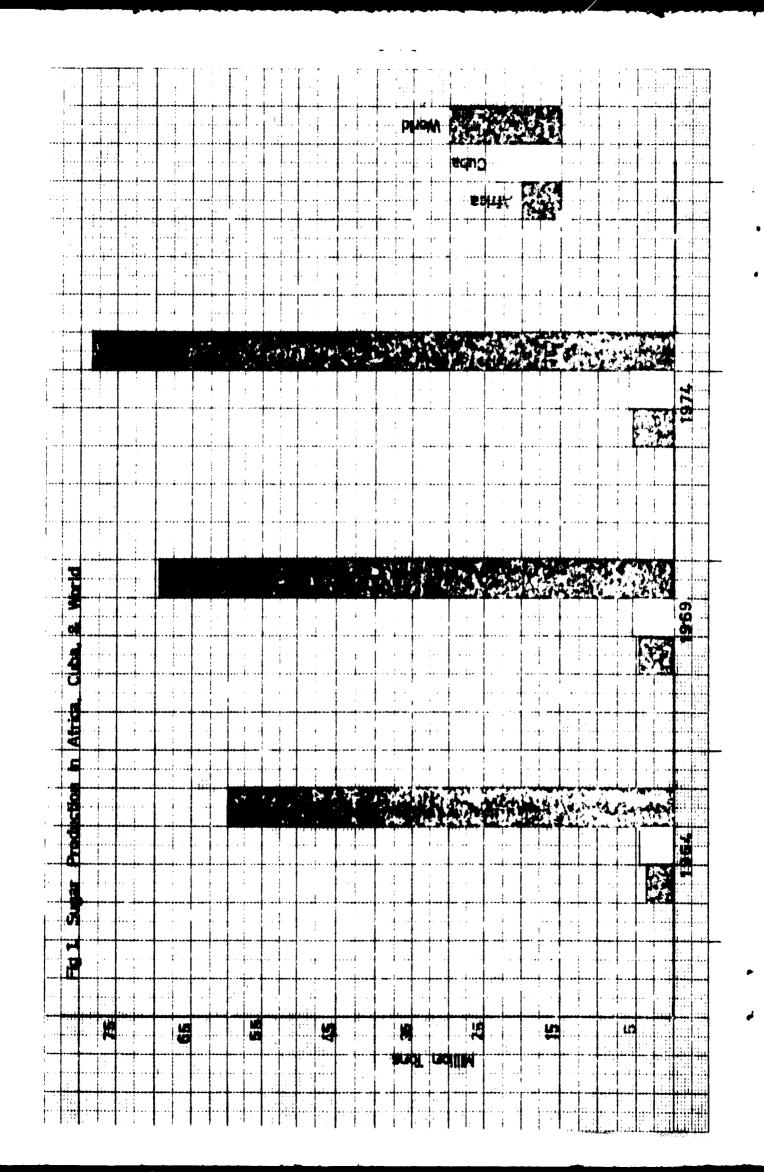
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of 197%. A comparable snapshot in the opening year of that decade appears basically the same. But over those ten years, the picture has changed somewhat. In the accompanying chart (Fig. 1), it can be observed that production in 1964 was about 3.5 million tons, or 5.0% of the world total Midway through the decade, the level rose to 4.6 million tons (6.6%), and reached 5.6 million tons (7.1%) at its close. A similar development can be seen vis-a-vis Cuba. Whereas the contiment was about 6.9 million tons behind Cuba in 1964, it was within 0.3 million tons in 1974. In terms of per capital production, the world level was 19.0 kg. in 1964 and 20.2 kg. in 1974; whereas Africa's rose from about 12.2 kg. in 1964 to 14.4 kg. over the same period**.

Africa remains a relatively unimportant producer, yet its position has improved marginally. The figures in the previous paragraph whow that both in absolute and per capita

^{*}A more exhaustive comparison of Africa and other world producers can be made by examining Tables 2 and 3 of Annex II.

^{**}These are very approximate figures because the population data are especially weak.



terms, sugar production in Africa has grown more rapidly than that of the world: viz, 4.8% as against 2.7% for total production, and 1.9% as against 1.8% for per capita production.

Distribution of Production Among Countries: Over half the total number of African countries produce sugar.* During the 64-74 decade, six countries joined the ranks of established producers,** raising the number to 26 in 1974. South Africa, with a figure of almost 2 million tons, leads the list followed by Mauritius (0.7 million), Egypt (0.5 million), and Mozambique (0.3 million). Tunisia is the smallest producer with 4,000 tons.

As can be readily observed from Table 4 of Annex II, production is heavily concentrated in a handful of countries. The four largest producers mentioned above collectively accounted for about 3.5 million tons and of the continental total of 5.6 million. This represents a share of 63%, as against their relative demographic share of just over 18%. The next four countries in importance are Morocco (260,000 tons), Rhodesia (255,000 tons), Reunion '228,000 tons) and Lesotho (204,000 tons). The combined output of these eight countries is about 4.5 million. Just under 80% of the sugar produced in the continent is thus contributed by countries which only accommodate less than 25% of its

^{*}See Table 4 of Annex II.

^{**}The six were Ghana, Malawi, Mali, Nigeria, Cameroun and Zambia.

population. Even among these, there is an imbalance.

South Africa alone with its 2 million tens accounts for roughly 36%, and Hauritius (0.7 million tons) for ever 13%; and the two for practically half of the continent's output.

Output per head is similarly varied. Not surprisingly Mauritius holds the record with 848 kg. per head, a level that is probably among the highest (if not the highest) in the world. Again not surprisingly, Reunion* comes second with 485 kg. per person. Lesotho* (206 kg.), South Africa (79 kg.), and Egypt (15 kg.) follow, with countries such as Tunisia, Nigeria, and Ghana coming at the end showing levels of considerably less than 1 kg. per head. This sharp contrast obviously reflects a pattern in which the smaller countries produce such more than the more populous ones. Mauritius and Reunion with populations of less than a million each produce 740,000 tons and 230,000 tons respectively, whereas Nigeria with a population of about 61 million only produces 40,000 tons.

With the exception of one country, sugar production during the decade did not suffer a reverse. The general picture is one of growth, with rapid in some instances, with only a few countries either showing signs of stagnation or marginal increase. The latter group consists of Angela,

[•]In 1974, Reunion had a population of 0.47 million, Lesothe 0.99 million, and Rhodesia 5.9 million.

^{**}In Uganda, output declined from 126,000 tons in 1964 to 44,000 tons in 1974.

Congo, and Madagascar. But by far the largest number raised production by significant amounts. Morocco's output was 21,000 at the beginnings ten years later it had grown to 260,000 tons, a rise of more than ten times. Kenya, Sudan, and Ethiopia raised theirs by between two-and six-fold. The more established producers also increased their production, though at rates somewhat less than those of the preceding countries. Mauritius output of 549,000 tons (1964) rose by 35% to 738,000 (1974). In Egypt and South Africa, the rise was 13% and 13.5% respectively. In addition, of course, six newcomers joined these and the other producers.

Nature of Sugar Production: As has been already pointed out, the date in the statistical annex all refer to centrifugal sugar, both refined and raw sugar being expressed in raw terms. There is naturally some non-centrifugal sugar production in Africa. But as can be observed from the following table, its place in global production is practically next to nothing. In the four-year period 1961-1965, production was

TABLE I: Production of Non-Centrifugal Sugar

('00 metric tons)

Country, Region	1961-1965	1972	1973	1974
l. Africa	110	150	140	160
-of which, Nigeria	(80)	(100)	(80)	(100)
Tanzania	(30)	(50)	(50)	(60)
2. India	62910	63340	69760	81100
3. World	104050	117300	120120	133420

Source: RAO, Production Yearbook, 1974, p. 160

11,000 tons as against the world total of over 10 million tons, which is about 1/10 of 1%. This level was more or less maintained throughout the decade. Even in comparison with India, Africa is a miniscule producer, accounting only for one-fifth of 1% of the former's output.

In world terms non-centrifugal sugar is of course not unimportant. If the 13.5 million tons in the preceding table is added to the corresponding figure of 78.7 million tons of centrifugal sugar production in 1974 [see Table 1 in Annex II], the total exceeds 92 million tons. And the share of centrifugal as against non-centrifugal sugar in this total comes to 85% and 15% respectively. The above table brings out one more significant fact - viz; that one country alone contributes to more than half of world output of non-centrifugal sugar. In 1961-1965, India was responsible for 60% of total output. This ratio comes down slightly to 54% in 1972 and 56% in 1973; but recovers its original level in 1974.

As Africa is an insignificant producer in this respect, comparing its combined production with the world total of 92 million tons pushes it even further fewn the scale of importance. Its world share of output when centrifugal sugar alone is taken was 7%. Now, it goes down to 4%. The earlier observation that Africa, despite its potential, is among the less important producers in the world is confirmed a forteriori.

Table II below gives another aspect of augar production in Africa, again with comparative global figures. The question as to what type of raw material the continent

TABLE II: Production of Sugar Cane and Beet in Africa and the World
('00 metric tona)

Type of Raw Material	1961-1965	1972	1973	1974
1. Sugar Cane - Africa	306630	510700	506710	5366 90
- World	4727690	5973250	6265990	6654140
-Share of Africa (%)	6.5	8.7	8.1	8.1
2. Sugar Beet - Africa	1320	18880	15620	22400
- of which, Algeria	(70)	(1800)	(2200)	(2300)
Morocco	(860)	(16770)	(12930)	(19500)
Tunisia	(400)	(310)	(500)	(600)
- World	1797620	2442750	2523310	2371900
-Share of Africa (%)	_	-	-	-

Source: FAO Production Yearbook, 1974, pp. 157, 159.

uses for sugar production is readily answered by a quick inspection of the table. Emphatically the more important is sugar cane. In 1961-65 sugar cane was used almost exclusively. Beet sugar made some headway in later years, but by 1974 it was still below 5% of the weight of cane sugar used by the continent's mills. Throughout the decade beet production was concentrated in three North African countries — Morocco, Algeria, and Tunisia. And of the three, Morocco was the most important producer (close to 90% in 1974).

On a world level, the insignificance of African beet takes sharper significance. As the table shows at no time in the decade did Africa's beet production reach even the level of 1%. The share of cane production, on the other

hand, rese from 6.5% in 1961-65 to 8.1% in 1974, implying once again the continent's prouth was more rapid than the world's.

B. CONSUMPTION OF SUGAR

Level and Growth of Consumption: As in the ease of preduction, Africa's consumption of sugar in world terms is quite low. In 1974, world consumption steed roughly at 79.8 million tons (Table 7 in Annex II). With 4.9 million tons, Africa's share was only 6.1%. India alone consumed 3.8 tons in that year. Figure II shows the relative position of these figures for three selected years in the decade under review.

Again as for production, this picture remains basically correct for the entire decade, but there appears to have taken place a marginal improvement in Africa's position. When the decade opened (1963), total consumption for the continent was about 3 million tens. World remainplies in that year was 53.3 million tens. In percentage terms, Africa consumed 5.6% of the world total. Halfway through the decade, this position remained une changed; i.e. 3.9 million tens compared with 68.4 million tens, or about 5.7%. In 1974, as has already been metade the level reached 6.1%. Visualvis India, a similar development took place; the gap between the Indian and African consumption widowing in favour of Africa. What this

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neans is that total consumption in Africa between 1969-1974 grow at a rate faster than both that of India and the world. The growth rate for Africa was 4.6%, compared with 3.7% for the world and 3.7% for India. To repeat, however, all this did not lift Africa from its position of unimportance in the world context.

Per espita concumption figures (Tables 8 and 10)
place the continent in more favourable light. In 1963,
consumption per head in Africa was 10.5 kg; the world figure
was 16.9 kg. In 1974, the figures were 12.7 kg. and 20.3
respectively. For both years, the continent was at about
62% of the world figure. A brief glance at table 9 also
shows that there are countries in other continents whose
figures are considerably lever than the African average.
Country for country, of course, a good number in Africa
show figures much higher than those of China (4.8 kg. in
1974), India (6.5 kg.), and Indonesia (8.2 kg.). Even
leaving aside the untypical case of South Africa, one still
sees high per capita figures for Morecce (28.4 kg. in 1974),
Algeria (20.3 kg.), Kenya (18.8 kg.), Egypt (17.0 kg.) and
the Sulam (15.6 kg.).

TABLE III: Per Capita Sugar Consumption (kgs)

Country	1964	1969	1974
Madagascar	6,2	6.1	14.5
Tansania	6.0	7.0	9.5
Ghana	6.1	9.1	5.4
Ethiopia	2.5	2.8	4.4
Camerous	1.4	1.6	2.9
Nigeria	•	1.7	1.8
)	Tansania Ghana Ethiopia Cameroun	Madagascar 6.2 Tammania 6.0 Ghana 6.1 Ethiopia 2.5 Cameroum 1.4	Madagascar 6.2 6.1 Tansania 6.0 7.0 Ghana 6.1 9.1 Ethiopia 2.5 2.8 Cameroum 1.4 1.6

The figures in Table III are far less reliable than those given in Table 8 of Annex II. First, they are compiled from the production and trade statistics given in the Annex. Consumption was consequently arrived at by adding production and imports and subtracting exports. This gives apparent rather than real consumption as it ignores changes in stocks. Secondly, population data for some of these countries are unavailable; hence rough estimates have had to be made. Thirdly, trade data were in some instances ouriously missing, and no clue could be obtained as to whether this meant that figures were unavailable, negligible, or unreliable. With all this in mind, if the figures in Table III (compiled from Tables 4, 6, 12 and 13 of Annex II) are taken as indicative of rough orders of magnitude, they partly confirm the statement made about the relative position of Africa's per capita consumption vis-a-vis the rest of the world. Madagasoars Tanzania, and Ghana compare favourably with the developing Asian countries mentioned. Partly also, they show some rather low consumption figures for such countries as Ethiopia, Cameroun and Nigeria, particularly for the earlier years of the decade. In 1964, for instance, per capita consumption for Nigeria was less than 1/10 of a kilogramme. No compara able data are available for low consumption Asian or Latin American countries. Even so; a figure of that magnitude is pretty low by any standard. And the fact that it had grown to 1.8 kg. by 1974 does not alter the situation radically.

For the continent as a whole, however, the rate of growth of per capita consumption can be said to be fairly satisfactory. Between 1963-1974, the level of consumption for the continent grew by 1.7% per annum, in comparison with 1.6% for the world level. With some exceptions, many countries have also witnessed significant increases. Kemya

raised its per capita consumption from 11.1 kg. in 1969 to 18.8 kg. in 1974; ever the same period Hadagasear raised its figure from 6.2 kg. to 14.5 kg; Tanmania from 6.0 kg. to 9.5 kg., Ethiopia from 2.5 kg. to 4.4 kg. Sudam from 12.0 kg. to 15.6 and Egypt from 16.0 kg. to 17.8 kg. A few countries remained stagnant: e.g. Algeria and Ghana. For some others; there was a doubline. South Africa's level dropped from 44.9 kg. to 41.5 kg. Morecce's from 32.4 kg. to 28.4 kg. Both of those countries already had high per capita figures and such declines in these figures as are seen during the decade were marginal. The case of Uganda is, however, somewhat more serious as the decline was from a respectable level of 10.3 kg. in 1963 to 4.4 kg. in 1974.

2. The Major Consumers in Africa:

Out of the forty odd independent countries, consumption is largely concentrated in just a desen. The five listed below plus the seven enumerated in Table 7 collectively

TABLE IV: Sugar Consumption in Selected Countries ('00 tens)

No.	Countries	1964	1969	1974
1.	Tenmenia	656	920	1400
2.	Bthiopia	559	660	1195
3.	Nigeria .	442	948	1122
4.	Madagasoar	368	403	1062
5.	Ghama	448	768	524
	TOTAL	2463	3719	5300

ratios for 1964 and 1969 were 80% and 75% respectively.

In a sense this is not surprising. Though small in number, these twelve countries represent a high concentration of population. The most populous countries (Nigeria, Egypt, and Sthiopia) are in this group. A number of medium sixed countries (Algeria, Morosco, Sudan, and Tansania) are also to be found here. All in all, their populations add up to 256 million (1974), which is 6% of the continental total. In 1964 also their demographic weight was just about the same - 68%.

Consumption concentration is not, however, entirely to be explained in terms of population concentration. While in 1974, these twelve countries accounted for 65% of the continent's population, their corresponding share in consumption was 74%. In 1964, the imbalance was even more striking; 68% of the population consumed 80% of the marketed sugar. The twelve countries obviously had more than their fair share of sugar.

Among these countries also, consumption did not correspond with demographic weight. By far the single most important consumer was South Africa. With just over 1 million tens in 1974, it had about 5 of the sugar consumed in the twelve countries and about 1/5 of the continental total. Its population was however far below that of Nigeria or Egypt or Ethiopia. The next important consumer in the group of twelve (again in 1974) was Egypt, which had a simeable population of about 36 million, but still way behind Nigeria's 61 million. Moreocc comes with roughly half a

million tons in 1974 followed by Algeria (330,000 tens) and Kenya (243,000 tons).

There is of course seme justification for expecting demographic weight to explain the location of heavy consumers. But this is only one factor. Income per capita is an equally valid guide. It is indeed where these two converge in significance that communption reaches high levels. Neither the most populous country if it is peer, nor the richest country if it is demographically insignificant is a good market for sugar, or steel or sandals for that matter.

Consumption by end-use: Paucity of adequate and reliable information prevents a detailed examination of consumption by end-use in the continent, both at country and continental levels. But a general exploration can be made of the bread pattern of end-users as well as the specific uses which can be made of sugar and its by products.

Households and food producers would be incomparably the most significant end-users of sugar. Practically the whole of the sugar that comes out of mills is probably consumed in this way. A wide range of end-uses, both direct and indirect, are also made of the single most important by product of sugar mills - melasses. As melasses rather than sugar provides the main basis for sucrose based industries, and as this may be of some significance to the continent's potential development, an analysis of the various aspects of melasses consumption and transformation will be given in some detail.

"Molasses is" the syrupy liquid that remains after the repeated crystallization of sucrose (usually in three phases) from the so called mother syrup. The mother syrup is the liquid obtained from the extraction of sugar cane or beet. Molasses is consumed in two principal ways. First, directly as animal feed, or as an ingredient by distilleries, yeast factories, and other industrial users. These two uses constituted about 7.3% of all the molasses consumed in France in 1971 and 80% of that consumed in the U.S.A. To the extent that molasses is consumed in African countries (some is exported and perhaps a lot more is thrown away as waste), this pattern seems to hold. In Ethiopia, for instance, about 43,000 tons of molasses was produced in 1975/76. ** Of this, roughly 8,500 tons went to local distm illeries and cattle-feed producers. (Of the remaining. 21,300 was exported and the rest presumably discarded as waste).

Secondly, molasses is used as a raw material in a wide spectrum of sucrose-based chemical products. As always, the theoretical possibilities are much wider than the practical, economic uses. Through fermentation, ester-ification, exidation, etherification, hydrogenation, acid degradation, alkali degradation, etc. a bewildering variety of products, can be obtained. But only three appear to merit practical consideration.

^{*}International Trade Centre, The Market For Sycrose-Based Chemical, Geneva, 1972, Much of the following discussion draws on this publication.

^{**}Planning Commission Office, Sugar Requirements For the Domestic Market, Addis Ababa, December, 1976.

- (a) <u>Citric acid:</u> This product is obtained through the fermentation of molasses, and is used in feed and beverage industries, pharmaceuticals, and other industrial applications. Citric acid is a principal feed acidulant, (e.g. in cheese) and is used as a flavour enhancer(e.g. in carbonated beverages), as well as an ingredient in the production of fresen foods. In dairy products, it is used as an important additive (e.g. as an emulsifier in ice eream). In pharmaceuticals, the acid is used as a selvent (e.g. expectorants), a flavouring agent, and as an efferencement when combined with bicarbonates. In industrial applications, it is used as a plasticiser and feam ince hibiter in the manufacture of plastics.
- (b) Sorbitol: This is a type of alcohol obtained by melasses hydrogenation. The main uses of serbitel are in pharmacouticals and cosmotics, food and beverages, in the manufacturs of vitamin C and in miscellaneous other industrial uses. Toothpastes, mouthwashes, various letions all use sorbitel in verying degrees. In the feed and beverages domain, scrbitol is used with other whipping agents in the more uniform production of whips and frappes for icings and fillings; and in low calcric foods, soft drinks, and frozen foods. When converted into vitamin C (ascerbic acid), it is used in the curing of meat and meat products, in the stabilization of foods and drinks, and in the improvement of the beking qualities of flour. Its ether miscellaneous industrial applications include leather manufacture, paper, textiles, shee polishes, glues and adhesives.

(c) Sugar esters: Through the esterification of melasses are optained a number of sugar esters such as sucrese monoacetate, sucrose octanitrate, sucrose octaacetate and others. Though less widely used than either citric acid or sorbitol these esters have applications in the manufacture of foods, detergents, plastics, herbicides and pesticides. Their food uses include the preduction of instant cocoa, chocolates, chewing gums, ice ereams, etc. In the manufacture of detergents, their main advantage over other competing products (e.g. phosphates) is in their biodegradability and nen-toxicity (important environmental considerations). Apart from their uses in the plastics industry as plasticimers and adhesives, esters are also used in the production of herbicides and pesticides, to increase the effectiveness of these products. Increased penetration of herbicides and pesticides into plants is facilitated by the use of esters, and additional non-toxicity is simultaneously provided.

Africa is of course not yet a major producer of sugar. A corollary to that is that it is not a major producer of molasses either. But just how much is the amount of molasses produced in Africa?

The two earlier studies quoted on page 15 previde a basis for an estimate. The Ethiepian study shows that for a total sugar output of about 123,000 tons in 1975/76 the countries mills produced 43,000 tens of molasses — a ratio of 350 kg. for every ton of sugar produced. The International Trade Centre study gives a semewhat different

ratio of 310 kg. to 1 ton. Based on the production figure of 5.6 million tons, these ratios give a range of 1.6 million to 1.8 million tens of molesses output for Africa in 1974. That much molasses could subtain a number of sucrose - based industries in Africa, as is evident from the data of developed countries. In France, molasses consumption for all purposes in 1970/71 was less than a million tons. Africa does have enough row material for sucrose based industries, and will have much more by 1985°, But what are the prospects for the establishment of sucrose - based industries, for there are hardly any in Africa today? A tentative exploration of this question will be given in Chapter II.

C. TRADE

1. Experts: World exports of sugar in 1964 were approximately 17.3 million tons. This figure rese to 19.6 million in 1969 and about 23 million in 1974. Throughtout the decede Africa's exports remained at about 10% of the world total (1.7 million in 1964, 2.0 in 1969 and 2.3 million in 1974). If comparison is made between this and the Africa/World production relationship, it would be observed that the relationship is essentially similar - i.e. that in both production and exports, Africa occupies a net so significant place in the world.

Monotholess, a closer examination of the relevant reties shows that marginally, Africa's share in global experts (10%) is higher than its corresponding share in

^{*}See Chapter II.

production (6%-7%). If one were pressed for an interpretation of this one would conclude that the sugar industry
in Africa is slightly more export-oriented than the world
'average'.

Africa as a continent is a more important exporter than any of the countries shown in Table 13, with the exception of Cuba and Brazil. The case of Cuba is self-explanatory. At the beginning of the decade, Brazil's exports were about 15% of Africa's. Five years later, they reached 55% and at the close of the decade they were 7% in excess - witnessing Brazil's phenomenal growth of a mine-fold increase in sugar exports.

Country for country, Africa does not cut a very impressive figure. Nonetheless, a little less so than the corresponding production comparisons would show. There are five major sugar exporters in Africa - South Africa, Mauritius, Reunion, Mozambique, and Rhodisa (in that order of importance according to the figures of 1974). Some of these countries compare favourably with middle - level exporters. Mauritius, for instance, was ahead of India, China, and Mexico (Tables 12, 13). South Africa was of course furthest ahead. But two points need immediately to be underlined. First, the special case of South Africa and Rhodesia where the developmental impact of the growth of exports (indeed of any economic indicator) on the indigenous population is far from significant; and second, the fact that these handful of countries which represent just over 10% of the continents

population dominated over 85% of its experts. This imbalance is indicative of the unexploited potential of the rest of the continent rather than of an imbalance in the distribution of resources.

One final point on experts. Between 1964 and 1974. Africa's exports grew at 2.8%; slightly loss than the world average of 2.9%. Compared with the perfermance of most of the major exporters, that of Africa appears also to be comewhat sluggish. The case of Brazil has already been noted. Leaving the U.S. and the U.S.S.R. aside (major producers and importers rather than experters), all the countries in Table 13 had on the whole higher growth rates than the five major exporters. Among the developed countries, the case of France (Table 14) is striking. During the period under review, Fronch augar experte climbed by an impressive 82% - a growth rate of just under 7%. This was a result of a conclous government policy of encouraging exports, and the implications of this for the future of world trade (perticularly of exporte from the developing to the developed countries) are evident*.

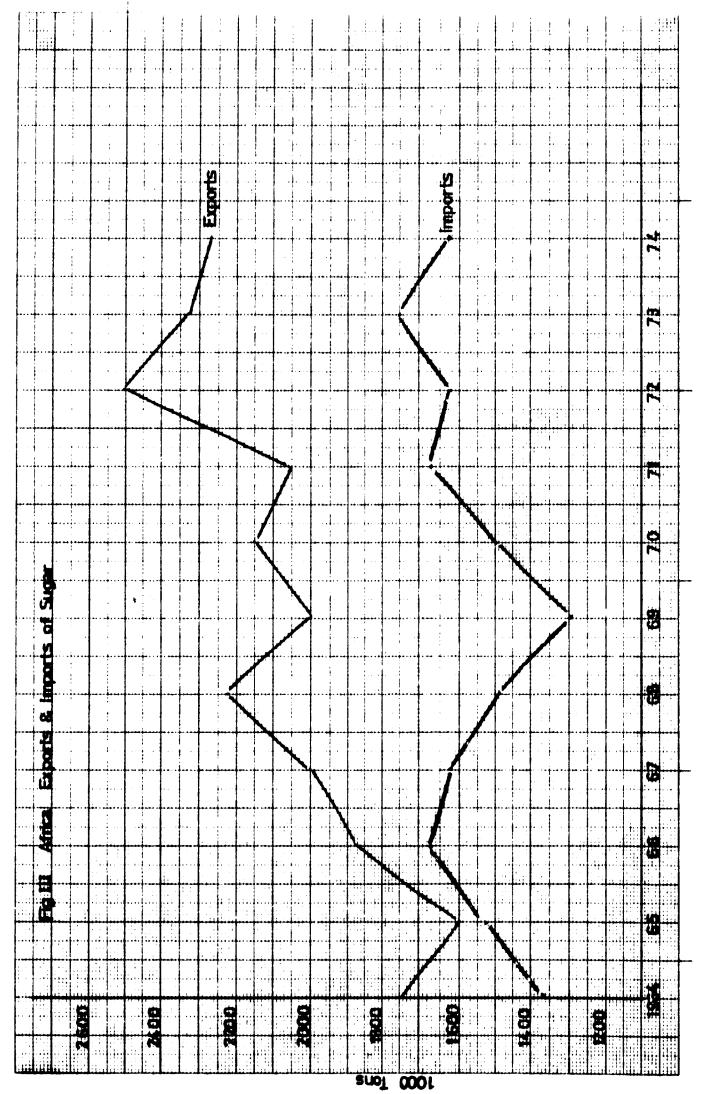
2. Imports: An examination of Africa's consumption and production performance in the last decade might seem to suggest that Africa is fully solf-sufficient and would handly require imports. That of course is not the case.

The Economist, Sept. 22, 1973. In Chapter II, this problem will be fecunsidered from the standpoint of the prespecte for Africa's experts in 1985.

Africa is as important an importer of sugar as it is an exporter. From 1.4 million tons in 1964, imports rose to 1.6 million in 1974 (See Figure III, and Table 15). There would seem to be two reasons for this development. There are in the first place countries which get their supplies from extra-continental sources because their domestic sugar industry is either virtually non-existent or not large enough to satisfy domestic demand. Inadequate transport facilities, lack of traditional trade contacts and obstacles in establishing new ones, the type of commodity required by domestic consumers, more attractive price and delivery conditions may be some of the main factors turning away these customers from their continental neighbours. In addition, some important exporters import sugar because, among other reasons, what they produce is probably only partically suitable for domestic consumer preferences, making it necessary to export the surplus so obtained and import what the local market additionally demands.

The level of sugar imports has, however, been lower than exports; so has its growth in the last decade - (See Figure III). The next section will take up this relationships and examine it in some detail. But before that, a few words on Africa's relative position in the world.

Between 1964 and 1974, Africa's imports declined from about 8% to about 7% of the world total. In other wards, total world imports grew by 3.1% per annum in that decade while those of Africa increased by about 1.8%.



Commission of the Section of

Compared with the consumption ratios discussed earlier where it was shown that in world consumption terms

Africa increased its share from 5.7% to 6.1%, the relative decline in imports means that Africa became relatively more self-sufficient in satisfying demand requirements.

This is corroborated by another set of data. In 1964, imports were 45% of total consumption.* During the succeeding nine years, 66-74 inclusive. These ratios were 48%, 46%, 42%, 34%, 37%, 38%, 35%, and 33%; indicating a marked downward trend. The picture portrays an emphatically more self-sufficient situation when imports and experts are examined together, as is done in the succeeding section.

Unlike exports, imports of sugar are more evenly divided among the countries of the continent. There are of course wide variations among importing countries, but no monopoly of a handful of countries. Algeria with 3.5 million tons, Morocco (2.9 million tons), Tunisia (1.1 million tons), Libya (0.9 million tons), and Senegal (0.8 million tons) were the front line importers in 1974 (Table 15). Kenya, Niger, Nigeria, Sudan and the Ivory Coast imported amounts varying from just ever 550,000 tons to just under 800,000 tons. On the lower rungs of the ladder were Ghana, Tanzania, Somelia, Mauritania, and South Africa representing imports of between 200,000 and 500,000 tons. A good number of countries also imported lesser amounts.

^{*}The consumption figure is for 1963.

Two countries show what appears to be a downward trend in imports accompanied by an upward trend in production, an evident case of import substitution. Sudan imported about 132,000 tons in 1964 (and produced 21,000 tens). In 1974, it imported only 72,000 tons (but produced 120,000 tons). Merecee started the decade with un import figure of about 384,000 tons (production: 21,000) and ended with 287,000 tons (production: 260,000). Among the new producers, Nigeria had reached a level of 40,000 tens in 1974, but this was not enough to stop the surge in imports. Zambia did better. reducing imports from 18,000 tons in 1964 (and even higher in subsequent years) to 13,000 tons in 1974. Meanwhile production had increased from 0 &u 1964 to 65,000 tons in 1974. There are other observable patterns (in Table 15) of growth, of stagnation, of marginal growth or decline, but more calling for any particular comment.

3. <u>Balance of Trade:</u> Figure III and Table V demonstrate the relative position of African opports and imports ever the

TABLE V: African Exports and Imports (100 metric tens)

Year	Exports	Imports	Surplus of Exports Over Imports
1964	1,7393	1,3731	3662
1965	1,6068	1,5318	750
1966	1,8778	1,6715	2063
1967	1,9958	1,6206	3752
1968	2,2300	1,4905	7395
1969 1970 1971 1972 1973 1974	2,0046 2,1565 2,0623 2,4677 2,3317 2,2850	1,2890 1,5004 1,6676 1,6333 1,7541 1,6347	7156 6561 3947 8344 5776 6503

decade under review. It is evident that through each year of this period, exports exceeded imports; sometimes, as in 1968 and 1972, by a considerable margin. In those years, experts exceeded imports by 834,000 tens and 740,000 tens respectively. With the exception of 1965, the surplus never declined below 200,000. In the feur best years of expert surplus, the figures ranged between 14% and 24% of experts. Evidently, gross experts show much higher permentages, reaching, as they did in 1964 for instance, a level of close to 50% of production. Because it is a most experter, Africa can be said to be self-sufficient in sugar.

In addition, both Figure III and Table V demonstrate that the underlying trend for exports is more sharply upwards than that for imports. A least squares regression line was fitted for each of the two series of data, and the following functions were obtained:

- (i) Export trend:- Yz = 2.69 + 0.068 X₉ origin 1969; X units, one year
- (ii) Import trend:- Y_H = 1.561 + 0.02 X₃ origin 1969; X units, one year

The slepe of the expert function (0,068) is greater than that of the import function (0.02); which means that experts were growing faster than imports. This can also be observed by visual inspection of Figure III.

Section C, I above shows where the bulk of the expert surplus was generated. Whether this surplus can be sustained into the future, and if so by what countries (the same half

- a dosen countries, or by additional new producers) is hard to say. In Chapter II, a number of alternative projections will be made for 1985 and the trade assumptions behind these will then be discussed in the light of the expected surplus; and what this means for trade policy.
- The World Market for Sugar: International trade in sugar was until recently very much governed by various multinational pacts or national legislations regulating imports into domestic markets. The main ones were the U.S. Sugar Act which periodically allocated import quotas for various suppliers; the Commonwealth Sugar Agreement which regulated trade among member countries, and the agreements between Cuba, the Soviet Union, and other East European countries. About three-quarters of sugar that entered world commerce was governed by these agreements. The remaining one-fourth was exchanged in the "free" market which was in turn regulated by the International Sugar Agreement of 1968. Sugar was consequently a highly centrelled commendity in world commerce.

This situation has changed in the last three to four years. At the end of 1973, the International Sugar Agreement empired and has not yet been replaced by another. In 1974, the U.S. Sugar Act under which 5 million tens of sugar were annually imported at preferential prices within allocated quotas expired and was not replaced by a similar Act. Instead, a Presidential Order fixed imports at 7 million short tens annually, without the previous price/quota arrangements.

As a result of these two developments, the "free" market for

Sugar new covers 75% of world trade. In addition, the Commonwealth Sugar Agreement also expired in 1974. Upon the entry of the United Kingdom into the European Economic Community, a special arrangement regulating the sale of Commonwealth sugar in the European Economic Community (about 1.4 million tons a year) was agreed upon. Special bilateral agreements have also been recently negetiated between Australia, Brasil, and Cuba covering periods of up to 5 years.

In the last 5 years, the price of sugar has undergone a major fluctuation. As the Table below shows, a major upturn took place in 1972 when the level was about 12¢ per peund, reached a level of 15¢ in 1974 and 47¢ in 1975. The 1974 figure was for the menth of January; and by December the level had dropped to about 13¢ per pound. This was partly attributed to increased production in the B.B.C. and the U.S. and partly to a decline in consumption in some major consuming countries. Until a new International

TABLE VI: New York Spot Sugar Price (for raw sugar, duty paid)

Year	Cents per pound	Year	Cents per pound
19 64 1966 1968	13 9 10	1970 1972 1974 1975	11 12 15 47

Source: 1975 Commodity Yearbook. Commodity Research Bureau, N.Y. p. 328.

M.B. These prices are approximate, as they were simply read off from a somewhat compressed chart given in the above publication.

Sugar Agreement is signed, prices are expected to continue to fluctuate. There is expectation in some circles, however, that in the long-run prices will stabilize at about their December, 1975 level.

CHAPTER II

PROSPECTS FOR THE FUTURE

Three main issues will be analyzed in this Chapter: an estimate of total sugar consumption in Africa for 1985, what it takes by way of additional resources to generate the additional production that this lovel of consumption requires, and finally the prospects for sugar experts. The difficulties of estimating any economic variable that far ahead and at such an aggregative level are widely understeed and any general varnings on the pitfalls relating to ferecasting or special factors frustrating the fulfilment of these estimates are scarcely required. Instead, a number of alternative assumptions will be effered for estimating consumption in 1985, the assumptions (and their meanings) fully discussed, and one of the alternative projections selected for further discussion in Section B.

A. SUGAR CONSUMPTION IN 1985

Two basically different approaches have been used for forecasting sugar consumption in Africa in 1985. The first is based on the assumption that the trend in the per capita consumption of sugar observed in the sine years 1966-1974 inclusive will continue into the following eleven years. In addition an arbitrary choice of the rate of population growth has been made to estimate this variable in 1985 and thus obtain a figure for total consumption. The second

approach centres around the relationship between the growth of per capita income and that of per capita consumption. In addition to the population assumption, an estimate of the probable growth in gross demestic product (again arbitrary) was made in this approach. On the resultant growth rate of per capita income was applied an income elasticity coefficient for sugar consumption to obtain an estimated level of per capita consumption in 1985. From two different assumptions concerning the probable growth in GDP were obtained two sets of projections. These, together with the estimate emerging from the first approach, gave three alternatives. A brief examination of these alternatives and the assumptions underlying them is now in order.

TABLE VII: Sugar Consumption in 1985

No.		1974	1985
1.	Alternative I		
	Per capita consumption (kg) Pepulation (millions) Tetal consumption ('00 tens)	12.70 389.4° 49460	16.48 505.9 83372
2.	Alternative II		
	Per capita consumption (kg) Population (millions) Total consumption ('00 tons)	12.70 389.4* 49460	15.45 505.9 78162
3.	Alternative III		
	Per capita consumption (kg) Population (millions) Total consumption ('00 tons)	12.70 389.4* 49460	14.32 505.9 72445

This figure is implied in the per capita consumption figure of 12.7 kg. But it is not much different from the 391 million given in Table 6.

The trend in per capita sugar consumption between 1968 and 1974 is obtained through the least squares method. The resulting function is

Y = 11.78 + 0.313 X origin 1970; X units, 1 year.

A number of factors are implied in this method which may east doubt on the wisdom of using it for the purpose at hand. The most potent of these is the fact that this method assumes growth to be linear, whereas sugar consumption is of course not. At lower levels of per capita income, sugar consumption (as is the consumption of all feed) is propertionally high. With growth, it too grows; at a fast rate towards the beginning, but slower subsequently and much slower at high per capita income levels. Eventually there comes a lovel at which per capita consumption is stabilised and hardly grows with further increases in income. All this means that the relationship between per capita income and per capita consumption is non-linear.

The one justification for using the least squares method in the face of such overriding arguments is that ever shorter periods of time, the relationship can be taken to be roughly linear; as is obvious from the observation of a short arc of a circle which has a huge circumference. The preceding argument of the relationship between per capita income and consumption implies long periods of time when it speaks of "earlier", "subsequently" and "eventually," so that the non-linear function spans half centuries and even centuries (closing the gap in the per eapita consumption of sugar between the least developed and the most developed countries of today is not to be viewed in terms of one or two decades). As indicated in

Table VII above, per capita consumption in 1985 projected by this method is 16.48 kg. (See Figure IV).

An estimate of population is required to obtain total consumption in that year. Between 1965 and 1975 the population of Africa grew at 2.7% per annum. If the ourrent concern ever population explosion means anything, it is that ever the coming years that pace of expansion will put a strain on resources and should not therefore be sustained. Indeed there is some fragmentary evidence already that a decline may have set in. In the latter half of the 1965-1975 period, population grew not by the 2.7% shown for the decade as a whele, but by 2.5%. What rate should be selected for the following ten years? There is obviously no reliable guide apart from the preceding indications. On that basis (and with a somewhat additional bias for a lower rate) a figure of 2.4% has been used. Alternative I now gives a total sugar consumption figure for Africa of approximately 8.3 million tons in 1985. which assumes a growth rate of 4.9% on the 1974 level.

Alternatives II and III use, as already indicated, the same methodology, but two different growth rates for gress demestic product (and naturally for per capita income as well). In this mouhod, an estimate is made of the probable growth in per capita income and, based on an estimate of the income elasticity of sugar, the resulting growth in per capita consumption obtained.

The growth rate in Africa's GDP over the last decade has been high. For 1964-1974, a rate of about 5.6% appears

^{*}UN, Statistical Tearbook, 1975, p. 161.

to have been achieved. In the period up to 1985, two different rates have been assumed: a low rate of 4.0% and a higher one of 5.0%. The growth rates in per capita income resulting from those are 1.6% and 2.6% respectively.

Alternative II is based on the higher rates (5% for GDP and 2.6% for per capita income). Data on the income claste icity of demand for sugar are not easily available. When PAO made commodity projections in 1967, it used a set of slasticity data for a wide range of agricultural producte, including ougar*: Though the projections for Africa have met materialised, *** the elasticities can be used at least as a point of departure. For Africa as a whole, the income elasticity of demand for sugar was estimated to be 1.0. **** The following figures are given for some African countries:-Madagasear 1.5, Somelia 1.5, Nigeria 1.5, Tammamia 144, Tunisia 0.8, Algeria 0.7, and Moreoco 0.5. With the exception of the last two countries, these estimates (imeluding that for Africa itself) would appear high for the present. Apart from their general appearances, there is the expectation of lower elasticity coefficients at higher income levels. How much lower than 1.0 one should reduce Africa's elasticity figure involves an arbitrary exercise.

This rate was obtained from index numbers of real gress demostic product.

^{**}PAO, Agricultural Commodities - Projections for 1975 and 1985.
Volume I, and Volume II, Rome, 1967.

^{***}Per a comparison of these projections with these of this paper, see Annex I.

^{****} PAO, Idema Vol. II, pp. 30, 32.

One way to guess is to estimate Africa's per capita inceme for 1974, and see the elasticity coefficients of these countries (both in Africa and outside) which then had per capita income level's close to Africa's level of 1974. From this, some idea of Africa's figure for the year in question may be estimated.

As the following Table shows, this method of guessing is in fact not very helpful. The first two countries with similar per capita incomes had widely different elasticity coefficients. The Philipines and Taiwan which had identical coefficients of 1.1 had somewhat different per capita incomes

TABLE IX: Elasticity Coefficients for Africa (1974) and other

Countries (1965)

Xo.	Country/Continent	Per Capita Income (\$US) = 1965	Elasticity Coefficient
1	Paraguay	172	0.6
2	Zambia	171	1.2
3	Morocco	156	0.5
4	Philippines	142	1.1
5	Egypt	141	0.9
6	India	134	0.9
7	Bolivia	128	0.5
8	Taiwan	118	1.1
9	Thailand	102	1.0
10	Africa*	131	0.7

^{*1974,} All incomes are in terms of constant 1961-63 prices.

Source: PAO, On 1st Vol. II, pp. 12, 13, 30, 32.

(\$142 and \$118 respectively). But there is also a tendency (though not a very strong one) for lower coefficients to be associated with higher incomes — e.g. Morocco, Bolivia, Thailand and to a lesser extent India and Egypt. On this basis Africa's coefficient may be placed at 0.7. That this guess is only marginally better than a wild shot in the dark cannot be over emphasized.

An income elasticity of demand of 0.7 means that if per capita income grows by 10%, the demand for sugar grows by 7%. On this basis and on the basis, further, that per capita income would increase by 2.6% per annum under Alternative III, per capita consumption of sugar in 1985 becomes 15.45 kg. (See Figure IV). And total consumption, following population projection of 505.9 million, reaches 7.8 million tons (See Table VII); implying a rate of growth of 4.2.*

For Alternative III in which all the other assumptions remain the same except that per capita income grows at 1.6%, (Figure IV) the corresponding projection is 7.2 million tons, giving a growth rate of 3.5%. The additional demand tonnage implied by the three Alternatives is consequently as follows:-

- under Alternative 1, (83372-56020**) = 2.7 million tons
- under Alternative II, (78162-56020) 2.2 million tons
- = under Alternative III, (72445-56020) = 1.6 million tons

^{*}An interesting comparison can be made between this rate and two others recently made by an international institution which has to remain unspecified. Between 1972/74 and 1980, demand for sugar in the developing world as a whole was expected to grow at 4.8% and at 3.6%, between 1981-85. If Africa were assumed to represent the average, and one convenient rate were derived from the preceding two, 4.2% is just the rate that would be ascribed to the continent; exactly what Alternative II implies.

^{*}This is the amount of sugar produced by Africa's mills. Strictly speaking, the capacity of the mills should have been used. Apart from the fact that this is unavailable, there is probably not much difference between the two as sugar mills mostly operate near capacity.

Any of these final figures could be used to work out the required investment, manpower, land area, etc. needed to generate that much production. A reasonable choice would seem to be the result emerging from Alternative II. Hence that figure would be used in the following discussion.

B. REQUIREMENTS & CONSEQUENCES

Most tentative of all the forecasts and conclusions presented in this paper are those falling in this section. To attempt to estimate the investment, the manpower, the amount of land and the other attendant factors that are required to set up a large number of sugar mills in Africa to generate the additional 2.2 millions tons of sugar required by 1985 from simple arithmetical manipulations is not merely unwise, but highly unrealistic and may even be considered misguided. How many sugar mills will be required? What will be their different sizes? Where will each be located? Under what soil conditions will the raw material be grown? And what are the precipitation and temperature conditions? These and dosens more questions face anyone trying to make a realistic estimate of the foregoing factors. Clearly, one cannot even begin to deal with these questions in a paper of this sort.

The purpose of this section is to give the roughest of rough ideas of what is implied in the consumption projections of the preceding section. A fundamental policy problem (and eption) needs to be posed before a closer examination of these implications is attempted, however. Before putting up the mills

to produce the additional sugar required, each country needs to explore (if not to resolve) whether there is not an alternative to the conventional mills and large scale plantations that are normally and perhaps automatically considered whenever new projects come up for decision. A number of studies do suggest that there are such alternatives. Big sugar mills accompanied by large estates are efficient, but employ relatively less people. Small came farms are relatively less efficient, but provide an opportunity for more employment. Given the pressing demand for more and more jobs in almost every country of the continent, there is some justification in considering employment maximizing options. The calculations which follow, largely because of the complexity of the problem but also because of the simplicity of their arithmetic, are based on large scale plantation - type establishments, based en the experience of only one country.

Ethiopia in 1975 was considering various options to increase sugar production. One of these was the establishment of a large plantation of about 150,000 tons per annum. Based on the calculations for this proposed mill as well as on the experience of the country's existing two mills, the investment, manpower, and land area required for the 2.2 million tons that will have to be produced by the continent by 1985 are as follows:

^{*}Per a more thorough discussion of this problem see, for instance, Barnett, D.F, and Valle, P.A.D., "An Analysis of Sugar Production in a Changing Political Environment." The Devoluting Economies, March, 1976, number 1.

TABLE X: Capital, Land & Manpower Required for 2,2 million tons

No	•	Rate	Total
1	Total investment (\$'000 million)	\$1.100 per ton	2.4
2	Total manpower (000)	14.7 tons per person	152.7
3	Total land area (000 ha)	10 tons per ha.	220.0

The investment estimate of \$2.4 billion, apart from the fact that it is based on one country's experience, does not take into account unforescable jumps in the price of capital goods, especially in the years furthest away from the year in which these estimates are made (e.g. 1983, 1984, & 1985). A sudden jump in the price of commodities (such as that witnessed in the last 3 or 4 years) could add anywhere between 25-50% to the \$2.4 billion. The productivity figure of 14.7 tons per person is a very crude one obtained by dividing annual output by total employment. The latter includes seasonal employees who, although regular, only work during the case cutting season. And most serious of all, the estimate of the 220,000 ha. assumed to be required for the production of the additional sugar, is based on the climate, precipitation, soil conditions, etc. of a specific area which was expected to yield 10 tons per hectare. There are areas not far from this location whose yield is half as much. Obviously that means a doubling of the land area.

Despite these and other weaknesses, the estimates do give a rough idea of the scale of the investment required, and the level of employment opportunities that could be generated by the industry. As Africa's land potential for growing sugar cane is not yet fully developed, an erroneous estimate of the land area required poses no serious obstacle to an appreciation of the problem. If the land area required is even trebled (say 660,000 ha.) that is still a small fraction of the unutilized area waiting to be exploited. In so far as the employment figure is concerned that, as has been pointed out already, is an indication of the opportunity to create jobs, rather than of a manpower constraint. The investment figure of \$2.4 billion may look large. Even this cannot pose serious problems. Two or three of the larger countries in Africa can invest that much in the industry over a ten-year period. In many African countries, the capital constraint has now become much less severe. As is widely appreciated, the limitations lie in the paucity of viable projects, which often reflect underlying constraints, such as inadequate market outlets, inadequate transport systems, and not well developed technocracies. All in all, therefore, it can be safely stated that the requirements to generate an additional 2.2 million tons could be made available without great difficulty.

Once the mills begin to operate, other consequences immediately follow. One such consequence manifests itself in the balance of payments. Fuel, chemicals, and spare parts for wear and tear as well as repatriation of capital, profits, and personal emoluments create pressures on the payments side of the balance of payments. On the opposite side would be import saving (if there is import substitution) and export earnings (if sugar is sold abroad). The net effect depends on

whether receipts exceed payments, or vice versa. In general, it could be taken for granted that such industries have a net positive impact on the balance of payments.

Another important counequence is in the area of bym products. The major by-product of sugar mills is molasmes. Based on earlier ratios, 2.2 million tons of sugar gives rise to between 700,000 to 800,000 tons of molasses. Some of this will go to waste, but some of it will be exported and/or used by producers of animal feed. Other producers, and activities, will also be encouraged. Those engaged in transporting and distributing the commodity as well as those producing bags and other packaging materials for sugar will increase their activity and new ones will join their ranks.

Molasses, as discussed earlier, can also be used as a raw material for the establishment of sucrose - based chemicals. Citric acid, the major chemical product manufactured from molasses, is largely produced and consumed in the developed countries. In 1972, Western Europe is believed to have produced between 70,000 and 80,000 tons of the chemical. The largest producers were the U.K.,

Belgium, the Netherlands, Italy, France, and the Federal Republic of Germany. A similar amount was produced also by the U.S.

Japan was reported to have produced 5,000 tons. All of these countries are either net exporters or are fully self-sufficient with negligible trade. The exports partly go to developing countries, so that many of there are dependent on the developed countries.

^{*}Once again, the following discussion draws mainly on the International Trade publication quoted on page 15.

There are a few exceptions, however Nigeria in Africa, China, India, Pakistan, and Israel in Asia, and Brazil and Mexico in Latin America produce citric acid for domestic consumption and, in the case of Mexico and Israel, for exports. Botween 1966 and 1970 Israel exported 800 to 1,000 tons of the chemical, and Mexico between 280-700 tons per year.

What are the prospects for Africa, apart from Nigeria which already has a plant, for establishing citric acid producing plants? Raw material is of course no problem as can be confirmed not only by the Nigerian case (one of the less important sugar and molasses producing countries in Africa), but also because there is already enough of it and there will be much more by 1985. Unlike so many other instances, scale of operations is also not a problem. The minimum capacity for the establishment of a citric acid plant is some 3,000 tons. At that level of operation, a plant is expected to make a good return on investment. The problem is one of markets. Taken individually, there probably are a few African countries whose food and beverage industries could support such a plant. Firstly, such countries should join Nigeria in producing citric acid. And secondly, countries whose domestic markets are too small could go into joint ventures and set up citric acid plants for their collective markets. Not only will this enable them to put to use part of the molasses which would otherwise be thrown away, but also to save on imports.

Generally the same situation applies also to sorbitol, the second most important chemical that is derived from molasses. Once again Western Europe, Japan and the U.S. are the major producers. Western Europe is basically self-sufficient

with some exports to the developing countries in Latin America. The U.S., with its annual production of 70,000, supplies other countries (e.g. Brazil) with its supplies. Japan with an annual consumption figure of some 50,000 tens but with a capacity of ever 80,000 tens has considerable excess capacity. Among Eastern European countries, Czecheoslovakia produced about 1,000 tens in the early seventies, and Hungary about 1,600 tens with an additional capacity of 3,600 tens planned for the early seventies. In the developing world, Brazil, India and Mexico produced varying amounts, with Brazil manufacturing 2,000 tens, India 1,000 tens and Mexico 900 tens. Each of these countries was, however, a net importer of rorbitol.

As in the case of citric acid, the minimum capacity of a sorbitol producing unit is not large; raning as it does between 1,000-2,000 tons a year. It is thus possible for a number of African countries to produce the chemical for their domestic market. Two or three may go on their own, but most need to put up cooperative schemes.

C. BEYOND CONSUMPTION REQUIREMENTS

The prospects for the growth of Africa's sugar industry have so far been discussed solely in terms of meeting domestic requirements. There is of course the supplementary (but in terms of economic development the very central) aspect of production for experts. In Chapter Is Africa's contribution to world experts was shown to be about 10%. Another way to measure the importance of sugar experts is to relate them to domestic production. Table XI shows how Africa compares with five leading experters in terms of its experts/production ratio. If experts are compared with production without

subtracting imports (the gross exports column in the table), Africa ranks fourth with 41%. That is quite a significant portion to export. If imports are taken into account, however, the other countries do not show any change at all, with only France dropping by 6 percentage points. But Africa drops by 30 percentage points and falls to last place. This manifests the weakness of Africa as a net exporter of sugar.

TABLE XI: Production and Export of Sugar in Africa and Selected

Countries (100 tons); 73/74 average

		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
No.	Countries	Production	Gross Exports	Net Exports	(2) as % of (1)	(3) as % of (1)
1	Cuba	56545	49691	49691	88	88
2	Philippines	23875	15085	15085	63	63
3	France	29300	14286	10221	49	35
4	Brazil	693 40	25611	25611	37	37
5	Mexico	28240	5169	5169	18	18
6	Africa	55845	23084	6140	41	11

The projections for 1985 presented earlier in this Chapter were given in terms of Africa's total consumption and thus imports are subsumed in the projected figures. But two revisions could be made in these figures whose effect will be to add to the continent's production requirements.

The first is an adjustment of the figures by an amount representing not exports in 1985. In the past Africa has been a not exporter of sugar of varying quantities. Table V on page 23 gives the record for 1964-1974. As can be observed from column 4 of that table there was a significant surplus in almost all years. In 1972, 1968 and 1969 especially record levels were reached as the surpluses stood at 34%, 33% and 37% of exports respectively. What will the surplus be in 1985?

As has been observed earlier, a projection of the export and import trends of 1964-74 to 1985 gives the following results:

- (i) For exports the regression line assumes the function Y_E = 2.069 + 0.068 X; the origin being 1969 and X being units of one year. In 1985, therefore, exports will be 3.157,000 tens.
- (ii) For imports, the trend line is Y_M = 1.561 + 0.020 X₈ where X and the origin are as before. Imports in 1935 will hence be 1.881.000 tons.

Net exports in 1985 will hence amount to 1,276,000 tens. Africa needs act only to produce 2.2 million tens, by 1985, but an additional 1,3 million tens for its exports surplus. The investment, the manpower, etc. required for additional output will thus be for 3.5 million tens.

On past performance, that is the least that should be expected. In addition, however, Africa may replace all its imports by domestic production and maintain its trend of experts. This is a very optimistic assumption. But it is worth exploring it, for there are many countries that do just that. (That is what the figures tell for Cuba, Mexico,

Brasil and the Philippines in Table XI). On the basis of this assumption, the figure to be added to 2.2 million is 3.2 million. Additional output will consequently be 5.4 million tons.

TABLE XII: Capital, Land, & Manpower Required Under Different
Assumptions.

No.		Requirements Under Alt. II	Requirements Under Export Surplus Assumption	Requirements under total solf- sufficiency + gross exports
1	Investment			
	(\$000 million)	2.4	3.8	5•9
2	Manpower (000)	152.7	242.8	374.1
3	Land Area (000 ha.)	220.0	349.8	539.0

Table XII summarizes the implications of these estimates in terms of the required capital, land, and manpower. The second column gives, for comparison, the results obtained under Alternative II; column three is based on the export surplus assumption and the last column under the assumption of total self-sufficiency (i.e. no imports) plus the maintenance of exports at the past trend.

As suggested earlier, the export surplus assumption is not unrealistic; rather a development which should be expected to come about if past performance is an indication.

More difficult to achieve (though not impossible) is the target of producing 5.4 million tons by 1985. That is about as much as Africa produced in 1974, and represents an annual rate of growth of 6.3%.*

This two-fold increase will, of course mean, a much higher amount of investment (close to \$6 billion). Other resources will also be put to strain. The most difficult problem is not, however, in the area of resource mobilization. It lies in the domain of trade policy.

Two principal issues are involved in this regard.

First, those African countries which are total or net importers would have to re-crient their imports towards surplus producers in the continent. This is a considerable taks in continental cooperation, but if realized, it would also represent an equally considerable achievement. Those obstacles and situations that in the first instance drove sugar-deficit countries to import from outside Africa would have to be overcome and rectified.

The second issue involves world trade as a whole. To continue to export 41% of production (as Africa did in 1973/74) without the special considerations that some developed countries give to such countries as Cuba, and the Philippines is a formidable undertaking. As in so many other

An estimate of the expected growth of production in the developing countries made by the international institution mentioned earlier projects growth rates of 4.0% for the period 1972/1974 to 1980 and 4.3% for 1981-85. It is not unreasonable to expert a somewhat higher growth rate for Africa in this third-world average.

areas, the developed countries would have to adopt less restrictive trade policies towards exporters in the developing world. The 1967 FAO study cited earlier said that prospects for sugar exports would become very premising "if policies were modified to limit relatively high cost domestic production In the developed countries and to lower consumer prices in order to increase imports from the developing countries. For example, if high income countries would adopt policies, as a result of an international agreement to limit future production to the degree of self-sufficiency achieved in 1961-1963, this net import demand could increase by 35 percent over the 13 years period (i.e. up to 1975); a significant expansion could be achieved also by reserving all future consumption growth for imports. Again total consumption could be increased substantially by reducing retail prices through elimination of tariffs, duties and excise taxes and other fiscal imposts". Though ten years have elapsed since these wards were written, the situation remains essentially the same. Recent developments in some developed countries do not appear to indicate that a re-orientation of trade policies in the proposed direction is about to take place. From a net importer in 1967, the EEC became a net exporter in 1972 with about 1.5 million tons; and current EEC policy is to be at least self-sufficient in 1980:

The International Sugar Agreement of 1968, on the other hand, did give some hopeful signs about trade and production policy in the developed countries. In an Annex to that

^{*}FAO, Agricultural Commodities-Projections for 1975 and 1985.
Vol. I, p. 67

^{**}The Economist, Sept. 22, 1973.

agreement, Canada undertook not to provide incentives to producers of sugar beyond 20% of domestic production; Finland and Sweden to limit sugar beet growing to 25,000 has and 40,000 has respectively, Switzerland to import not less than 70% of its domestic production; the U.K. and Japan to import a minimum figure of 1.5 million tons in addition to 35% of future growth in domestic consumption over and above 1.8 million tons (1.8 million tons for Japan); and New Zealand to import all its requirements.

Such policies, wore generously conceived and more widely adopted, could enable the continent to achieve its target of exporting an additional 3.2 million tons by 1985.

he International Sugar Agreement, Annex A. United Nations Treaty ories, Vol. 654, Nos. 9369-93724-ps-106.

ANNEX I: Consumption Projections of Alternative II

Compared with FAC Projections

Projections Compared

		FAC Projection:1985 (Highest Variant)	Alt. II Projection:1985
A	Assumptions		
	1. Initial Level of Consum-		
	ption (million tons)	1.83	3.45
	2. Growth rate of GDP (%)	5.6	5.0
	3. Growth rate of Population		
	(%)	2.7	2.4
	4. Elasticity	1.0	0.7
В	Final Estimates		
ı	1. Total Consumption		
Į	(million tons)	5 .3 0	7.82
ı	2. Per Capita Consumption	12.50	15.45

Sources: (1) See Chapter II.

(2) FAO, <u>Agricultural Commodities-Projections</u>

<u>for 1975 and 1985</u>, Rome 1967, Vo. I, pp. 9, 1931

Vol. II, pp. 30, 185.

The FAO projections are given in four variants. Two assumptions each were made for population growth and GDP growth, a high and a low rate of growth. Four combinations were obtained from these. The projections shown above take the high population and the high income variant.

As can be easily seen, the final results are at variance. While most assumptions are not too dismilar, the points of departure are very different. FAO started with a total consumption figure of 1.38 million tons; Alternative II with 3.45 million. And that of course is the basic cause of the divergence. The consumption figure of Alternative II was re-checked, first against the source, and secondly by adding production to imports and subtracting experts (a rough indicator of consumption). And no errors were apparent. It seems, therefore, that since 1967 consumption data were drastically revised.

Though not too disimilar, the other assumptions are such that Alternative 11's are more conservative than FAO's. Higher results could have been obtained, ceteris paribus, with FAO's.

The revisions made on the consumption projection of Alternative II after the discussion on trade are not shown here because FAO's projections do not make allowance for such additions.

ANNEX II: STATISTICAL TABLES

Note to Statistical Tables

- 1. The figures for production, consumption, experts, and imports are all given in terms of centrifugal sugar, the appropriete conversions having been made into their raw equivalents.
- in compiling data have made it necessary for the data to be expressed in 100-ton units.
 - 3. Unavailable figures for specific years have when necessary been extrapolated or interpolated from their respective series. This is particularly true of the population data of Table 6 where figures so obtained are shown in parenthesis.
- Rememic Community are given collectively (See Table 11, for example), and it has not been possible to continue the individual country data series beyond that year.

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TABLE 1. Forld Production Exports, & Imports of Sugar

(100 metric tons)

786900	076620	231525
781310	218138 213781 221694 232141 329940	234004
757450	7571694	218236
739590	213781	212144
728960	218138	521439
68 500 69 69 728960 739590 757460 781310 786990	195989	190846 221439 212144 218236 224004 221525
68 68₹00	204879	200559
000599	203218	201580
65 65 66 648850 640500	187969	191727
	193410	187956
602100	172506	170456
1. Production	2. Erports	3. Imports

Sources: 1) FAO Trade Yearbook, 1074 pp 220,223

2) =

1970 pp 228,230

5) UN Statistical Yearbook, 1974 pp 232,233

4) UN 4 1975, pp 249,250

TABLE 2 AFRICA and Major Sugar Producing Countries

			(in c	(im 00 metric toms)	tone)						
-	\$	65	3 8	29	89	\$	2	2	75	22	*
1. U.S.S.R.	76430	97000	90190	91880	98150	100780	88470	84020	6740	6000	85260
2. U.S.A.	20680	48720	47900	44020	51040	49710	53270	52780	04645	55010	51350
3. Cuba	45900	60820	48570	62560	53150	55340	75590	59500	7,6880	53830	59260
4. Brazil	33910	46140	38420	42750	43820	04214	50190	52980	51510	02269	69310
5. India	28390	34930	36330	23570	23750	0061;	46340	3.4590	370%	39880	44890
6. Chima	20000	22000	24000	25750	26 50c	27000	29002	30500	31500	33.00	29000
7. Mexico	19330	21210	35660	24110	23350	25640	24050	24890	25370	28.00	23580
8. Philippines	17330	16580	14470	15990	16120	15780	19800	21710	20990	22:300	25250
9. Africa	35350	34920	39790	43990	46200	45880	48150	51300	55240	55670	56020
	-		•	-	-						

Sources 1) U.N. Statistical Yearbook 1974, p. 232,233 2) " " 1975, p. 249,250

TABLE 5. Production of Surar - Selected European Countries (30 metric tons)

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	.	63	99	29	68	69	Ċ	2	72	۲,	4.
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2. Fed. A. of Jermany	21080	16010	19170	20490	20180	21300	21000	23760	22640		24230
3. Italy	10800	12410	13420	16610	12900	14070	11900	11230		···	9680
4. U.K.	3890	9730	0586	9760	9×70	10060	9250	105501		0806	6160 ·
		• •·	Pingura a	****				• · ·			

Sources 1) FAO Froduction <u>Terrbook</u>, 1074 p. 141 2) UN Statistical Yearbook, 1974 pp. 232,233

1975 200 249,250

3 Gi

Ifricam (Countries
African
Sugar Froduction in (00 metric tons)
TABLE 4

1. Algeria 20 2. Amgola 650 3. Congo 300 4. Egrpe 4110 5. Ethiopin 680 6. Ghama 0 7. Kenya 250 9. Malawi 0 11. Mauritims 5490 12. Horocce 210	*	0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0	30	3	2	-			1	,	
Congola Congo Bthiepin Bthiepin Ghasa Kenya Malawi Mali Mali Mauritina	-	2,5		3	2	100	25	190	200	250	250
. Ethiopia . Ethiopia . Ghama . Kenya . Madagasca . Malewi . Mali . Mali . Mali	4	_	999	029	650	099	290	260	840	86	38
. Ethiopia . Ethiopia . Ghama . Kenya . Madagasca . Malawi . Mali . Mali . Mali	- Parallel Control of Control of Control of Control	8	520	066	920	950	850	1 200	004	380	280
. Ethiopia . Ghama . Kemya . Madagasca . Malawi . Mali . Mali . Mauritias	Miratina sana ilian a sana	0404	3600	3640	4140	4890	5200	5500	5500	5720	1 5340
. Ghama . Kemya . Madagasca . Malawi . Mali . Mali . Mauritias . Horocce		750	550	270	200	200	1030	1200	1310	1400	1300
. Keaya . Madagasca . Malawi . Mali . Mali . Mauritias 5		0	0	20	30	30	80	80	9	901	50
. Medagasca . Melawi Mali Mauritias Horocce	_	290	390	660	880	1250	1 1410	1400	1000	1150	1790
. Melawi Meli Mauritias		1030	1050	1030	1050	066	1080	066	1100	1050	1220
Mali Mauritias Morocce	•	0	30	1.70	200	280	330	330	340	500	420
Mauritime	0	•	0	30	3	8	8	9	8	9	150
Morocce		2040	5930	6780	6320	7080	6100	6570	7270	7610	7380
	_	320	200	330	006	1430	1530	2270	2450	2300	2600
5. Mozambique 1510		1640	1760	2000	2140	2260	2870	3260	3280	3350	3000
14. Nigeria		80	170	220	220	270	270	310	280	8	00,7
15. Reumion 2090		2480	2240	2300	2530	2600	2110	1860	2320	2400	2280
16. Somalia 160		170	350	320	360	510	200	7 490	410	28	330
17. South Africa 14560	0 10140		15360	17320	17880	14980	16490	17200	21110	19530	19700
Rhodesia	~ 		2500	1500	1500	1200	1350	2000	2000	2250	2250
•	-		560	220	1010	870	820	790	066	1000	1200
ZO. Lesotho	<u>-</u>		1430	1730	1620	1550	1800	1780	1920	1760	2040
· Uganda	17		1270	1370	2005	1510	1540	0 × 0 × 0 × 0 × 0 × 0 × 0 × 0 × 0 × 0 ×	0 7 7	0,7	3 5
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		670	710	250	820	920	870	960	2 6	1000	10.0
31		စ္ဆ	350	1,70	430	400	94	480		200	26
Zambia	_	<u> </u>	0	0	220	300	004	450	510	040	650
Total 35330	0 34920		39790	05664	4 5200	45880	43150	51300	5624)	55670	55020
Sources:		Tage in	3t tistica	1 Yearboo	1974	50 C3	230,233				•

TABLE 5. Estimates of Mid-year ropulations for relected Countries (in Millions)

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Brazil 78.77 91.89 194.30 196.56 198.71 200.71 202.68 204.88 207.05 205.84 210.40 2 Strazil 78.77 81.01 87.34 85.75 58.22 00.77 92.79 05.08 08.85 170.56 1 0.5.6	w.	U.3.3.R.	228.15	230.94	233.53	235.99	238.32	240.55	242.76	245.09	247.46	249.75	1 252.06
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Germany, A.R. 58.29 59.04 59.68 59.87 60.17 60.84 60.65 71.29 41.67 61.09 Germany, A.R. 58.29 59.04 59.68 59.87 60.17 60.84 60.65 71.29 41.67 61.09 Finitiprines 30.75 31.67 32.63 53.63 49.01 50.32 50.57 51.25 51.70 52.13 Finitiprines 30.75 31.67 32.63 53.63 49.01 50.32 50.57 51.25 51.00 Finitiprines 30.75 31.67 32.63 53.63 34.66 35.74 36.85 37.92 70.04 40.12 Finitiprines 30.75 31.67 32.63 53.63 34.66 35.74 36.85 37.92 70.04 40.12 Italy 51.57 51.94 52.28 52.41 52.91 57.23 53.67 54.01 Juba 7.51 7.72 7.89 6.05 8.20 8.74 8.47 8.40 8.75 7.02 Juba 19.53 19.58 20.05 20.41 20.73 21.03 21.32 21.60 21.85 32.13 Sources: Uii Dero Trivite Hearbook, 1972 37 119,141,142,143	r.	Srazil	78.73	81.01	82.34	35.75	58.22	22.00	02°20	36.08	38,85	100,36	103.45
Germany, 2.R. 58.29 59.04 59.58 59.57 65.17 66.84 62.65 71.29 71.67 61.07 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	\$		54.01	54.37	54.65	60.47	53.30	=5.55	55.73	55.57	55.79	55.93	25.97
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Canada 19.33 19.58 20.05 20.41 20.73 21.03 21.32 21.60 21.85 22.13 2 orld 3162.0 3289.0 119.141,142,143 2 10.32 21.60 21.85 22.13 2 ources: Uit Deno 'ranking Yearbook, 1972 and 119,141,142,143	12.	- Cuba	7.51	7.72	7.89		•	4× 8	24.6	ω. • ΛΟ	8.75	0.05	8,6
<pre>deright</pre>	13.	Canada	19.33	19.68	20.05		20.73	21,03	21.32	21.60	21.85	22.13	27.00
1972 37 1975 pp	14.	orld	3162.0	3289.0					_				1
qq 7975 H		Sources	s: UN Deno	e oranga.			119,141,14	2,143			-		
			2) "	=			161,162,16	2,164,139					

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CABLE 6 Satirate of Mid-Year Forulation for African Jou tries (million)

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1. Al eria 2. Or eroun 3. Saire		r.	ø,	``	F 1)	3 .	_	``	4	71.
	11.8	17.02	12.55	17.08	7 * 0	17.51	47.	44.70	75.77	15,40	1 00 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
3. Saire	5.11	F.	5.42	5.55	5.03	5.74	₹0° ¥.	70 .	¥0.9	6.17	6.28
	16.84	17.5	19.29	30 *61	10.35	20.70	. 21.64	22.48	22.85	23.55	56.45
4. Conso	€ 0 0	0.34	0.86	g t • O	0°°0	Se.€0	40.0	90.0		60 01 0	1.51
5. Benin	2.31	1 2.37	2.42	5.40	2. R. 7.	c3.	2 .73	2.76		۱۵ و .	k O•k
6. Sthiopia	27.40	22.70	24.74	25.87	23.24	24.02	12. A	25.25		2€.55	27.24
7. Garbia	() () ()	0.3¥	46.0	# € • 0	0.35	0.45	0.36	1 0.37		0.50	0.51
8. Thama	(7.35)	•	•	:	:	(3.70)	49*3	90.0		85.0	0.61
9. Suinem	245	5.51	3.61	3.70	1. S.	3.83	3.92	4.01		4.21	4.31
10. Ivary Coart	2.75	5.84	3.92	4.02	4.11	4.21	4.31	4.45		# 6 A	4.77
11. Nenya	(6.5)	:	6.78	10.12	10.40	10. 3	11.22	11.67		12.40	12,01
12. Liberia	1.04	1.07	8.	1.11	1.14	1.15	1.32	1.57	1.59	£9°,	1.67
13. Libya	3 i • L	1.52	1.68	1.74	0	1.87	1.04	2.01		2.25	2.75
14. Nada ascar	5.91	80• 9 ;	(•20	6.33	54.5), •,	6.75	•		•	(2.36)
15. Mali	4. 10	4. 58	4.5	7.54	MY CC .t	4.93	5.05	±1.=		(F) (F)	55.
16. Mauritania	1.04	1.05	1.07	1.10	1.12	1.14	1.17	1.20		1.26	1.29
17. Faurities	0.74	0.75	0.78	0.70	60	0.82	0.83	78.0	1 0.85	90.0	. 20.0
18. Morecco	12.96	13.32	13.73	14.14	14.58	15.03	15.52	15.23		16.31	35.88 80.31
19. Nozambique	6.03	7.01	7.10	7.19	1 7.27	7.36	:	5.33		3.82	6.03

1001: 100	3.42	3.51	3.61	3.71	7.81	7.91	4.02	4.13	4.24	7	07
21. Niceria	64.64	89.84	49.88	51.12	52.39	53.70	55,07	56,51	200		
22. Malawi	3.79	3.91	4.03	4.12	4.22	4.33	77.4	4.55	4 63	00.60	7.2.10
23. Rwanda	3.02	3.13	3.26	75.37	3.46	3,57	3,68) O) e	4.92
24. Seneral	3.40	3.49	3.57	3.62	3.69	3.78		4.02	4.10	0 ° t	4 t
25. Sterra Leone	2.33	2.37	2.40	2.44	2.48	2.51		2.50	1, C		0,00
26. Somalia	2.45	2.50	2.56	2.61	2.67	2.73	2.79	2 88	76.2	70.8) · v
	17.89	18.43	19.00	19,58	20.16	20.77	20.82		00.20	24.31	40.40
	13,33	13.73	14.12	14.50	14.94	15.31	15.70		16.40	16.30	17.30
29. Irmania	11.39	11.67	11,96	12.26	12.59	12.93	13.27		14.30	14.37	14.76
30. Tore	1.66	:	•	:	•	(1.92)	1.97		60.0	7.0	2.19
31. Tunisia	(4.51)	:	4.721	4.82	4.92	5.03	5.14	5.24	, ac	4t, 7	7. 64
32. Uranda	8.17.	*****	•	:	:	9.55	- τα · c		10.4K	10,41	11 42
33. Ervet	28.66	29.39	30.14	30.91	71.69	¥2.50	53, 23		34.84	C.C.): • ; ;): • ; ;
34. Upper Volta	4.76	4.86	96.4	5.05	5.18	5.28	5.38		3,61	30.0	7 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
35. Zembia	3.60	3.70	₹.80:	3.90	4.01	4.06	4-12	•	4.42	, Q	7.75
36. Other	11.8	:	•	:	•		344.0	- W	364.0		391.0

この人は言う形象 ロップ ちんぎょう おおおおっきつ おおう ぶんしょけっさん 佐藤 佐藤 解析 整定的数学 こうなん

Sources:

Sources: (1) UN Demographic Yearbook, 1972 pp 119,1140,141

(2) Idem, 1975 pp 179,160,161

TABLE 7 317ar Consumption in Africa & the Jorid (in 30 metric tons)

	1961	1946	6,	63	6,	2	77	72	74	7.7
1. Alveria	2230	320	2550	0:2	2350	24:00	0545		2390	3300
2. Kenva	380	1320	1420	14.40	1530	17.0	2140		2230	, 02 hc
Morocco	4110	7780	3790	300ck	0.07	4110	Cost	0094	1,00%	0087
4. South Africa	2650	3110	2000 2000	8120	8=90	9150	0556	10000	10-30	11390
acpnc .	15.0	1750	1880	2000	2210	2460	2730	2770	2850	2730
Unanda	3.5	1050	1020	1010	1210	05 T j.	0791	1330	2,0	C97
404-104 101-101-101-101-101-101-101-101-101-101	0247	5510	0267	1320	020≥	5200	~580	5800	6010	(370
Africa	50330	24510	35040	25730	₹8120	41070	74250	46050	48350	05404
Jorld	533490	623290	642720	17 310	£84020	721190	743780	760030	786850	26.926

10.0 0 0 485	1974 € 540	1975 p =87
ical Yearbook.	7	3
Strtistical	=	=
E E	=	=
7	5	3
Sources: 1)		

* includian deta for Lecotic

RABLE 8 Per Contrar Consumption in Africa and the corld

(im kilogrammes)

Lemia 19.5 19.1 20.4 17.7 16.9 16.7 16.5 16.7 17.8 Morocco		1963	9961	27	,, (J)	6,	20	71	72	73	42
		! !		1		}	•			 	
Morocco	1.Al-eria	19.5	19.1	4.02	17.7	16.9	16.7	16.5	16.7	11	20.3
Morocco 32.4 33.1 26.8 26.7 26.7 26.4 28.7 29.0 29.5 South Africa 44.9 14.5 42.7 42.7 42.7 40.3 40.2 42.1 South Africa 12.6 17.1 17.5 14.4 15.7 40.3 40.2 42.1 Sudan 10.5 13.6 17.9 12.4 17.7 14.6 16.2 16.9 16.9 Scypt 16.0 18.2 16.1 17.2 16.6 16.4 16.6 17.0 Scrypt 16.5 10.9 10.7 10.7 11.2 11.8 12.4 17.0 12.7 Scrypt 16.9 16.8 10.7 10.7 11.2 11.8 12.4 17.0 12.7	2. Kenya	11.1	15.7	14.2	F. 7.	14.1	15.7	16.3	17.4	17. h	13.8
South Africa 44.9 14.7 42.7 5.5 70.7 40.3 40.2 42.1 5.0 14.4 15.7 16.9 16.8 16.9 16.9 16.9 16.9 16.9 16.9 16.9 16.9	3. Morocco	32.4	_ ວິວ .1	28	2.72	24.7	26.4	28.7	29.0 1	29.5	4.5≤
Sudan 12.6 12.1 12.5 14.4 15.7 16.9 16.8 16.9 16.9 16.9 16.9 16.9 16.9 16.9 16.9		5.44	£ 4:	42.7	45.4	ነል. (Q) • R -	70.7	40.7	2.07	42.1	41.5
Unada Seypt 16.0 18.2 16.1 15.2 15.6 16.4 16.5 17.0 Seypt 16.5 10.9 10.7 10.7 11.2 11.8 12.4 12.0 12.7 Sorld 16.9 18.9 1.9.4 19.3 19.0 20.7 20.4 20.7		12.0	12.6	14.1	4 • R.	14.4	15.7	16.9	16.8	16.9	4π.€
Saypt 16.0 18.2 16.1 17.2 15.6 15.4 16.5 17.0 [17.0] Ifrica 10.5 10.9 10.7 11.2 11.8 12.4 12.0 12.7 12.7 10.1 19.0 20.7 20.4 20.7 20.7 10.1	6. U Bida	10.3	13.6	13.9	12.4	12.7	14.6	16.2	12.7	α ς νο	- 1 -1
frica 10.5 10.9 10.7 11.2 11.8 12.4 12.0 12.7 10.1 10.2 10.4 10.7 10.2 10.4 10.7		16.0	18.2	15.1	וני ני	n.	15.A	16.4	16.6	17.0	12.0
iorld 16.9 18.6 18.9 4.6. 19.5. 19.0 20.4 16.9 10.7		10.5	10.9	10.7	10.7	11.2	11.8	12.4	12.0	12.7	12.7
	9. sorld	16.9	18.6	18.9	1. €.	19.3	0.00	20.3	7°0c	20.2	¥. €

485	240	587
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10.69	726L	1075
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7	5)	3
Sources		

[·] includes dote for Lesothe

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TABLE 9 Sugar Consumption in selected Countries of the Jorld

			(1m 00 m	metric tons	~					
	1963	1963 66	- 63	89	69	20	71	72	73	74
1. U.S.S.R.	68110	102000	106000	112000	98890	102470	103500	107500	112000	112500
2. U.S.A.	92360	0:;296	96850	102180	98000	104010	103770	104600	104840	1032501
3. Cuba	4560	5410	0629	6820	09£9	6190	6160	4710	0494	5220
4. Brazil	27360	2735.0	28990	35410	24040	34950	27960	41250	42560	45770
5. India	26730	31440	25600	24000	31220	37.570	144780	5911:0	38270	37900
6. China	1904c	25500	29000	28000	29600	31500	1 35400	35500	38000	42000
7. Nexico	13120	15550	16500	17670	18750	19220	19200	20750	22950	23440
8. Philippines	4260	528)	0809	6450	6270	6130	0299	0676	8000	3500
9. Japan	16870	19990	22230	23320.	26440	30290	31010	32490	3294c	33360
10. Canada	8590	9200	10250	0896	10730	10740	10540	10370	12120	0486
11. Indonesia	3860	5480	7250	2400	8120	8870	8720	9610	10000	10500
							-			-

984,684 0	540,541	587,586
Q.	ā,	ğ
1969	1974 pp	1975
UN Statistical Yearbook	±	2
E	2	
7	2) "	3
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- 60 -

MABLE 10 Per Capita Surar Consumption in Jel-cted Countries (in Milontames)

	1263_	99	- 25	£3	69	70	71	72	73	7,4
1. H. L. L.	30°4	43.8	1 45.9	1 27.1	41.1	42.2	42.1	45.4	8-4-7	44.6
2. USA	148.2	48.3	O• 83	50.0	43.5	51.0	50.3	50.3	8 6	, x
3. Juba	63.0	69.1	78.4	81.9	76.3	72.4	71.2	54.8	1 CH	7 6 5
4. Brasil	74. 75.	72.3	33.8	40.1	37.5	47.4	30°	+1.7	42.1	42.5
5. India	κ/ κ/	6.3	5.0	₩.	5.9	6.9	დ) 	2.0	6.2	7 4
6. China	2.8	9.5	5.0	W\	0.4	4.2	4.3	1.	- 1	00
7. Kexico	32.9	2.5%	1°72	77.4	2.6z	41.2	-3 (C) (M)	40.1	4. 2.4 4.	41.7
8. Frilippines	14.1	15.8	17.5	17.9	17.5	16.6	17.5	19.2	19.9	
9. Japan	17.4	0°05	22.0	22.9	2=.5	20.0	4.62	4°02	M 0.	405
10. Canada	4.74	46.2	50.0	46.2	50.9	500€	9.84	47.0	35.0	44 00 64
11. Indonesia	φ. r	r.	5.5	ڊ . جَ	80	7.2	K. C	7.8	0 •€	(V)
•		-	it timtica	UN otherical Yearbook	1949 nn	. 787 - 187 184 - 184		· ·•		
		2	=		1974					
		3) "	:	2	1975 25	587,539				

TARES 11 a. Surar Jonsumption in Selected Burgoesn Countries (In 00 metric tons)

	1953	1956	67	ر 8	56	70	71	72	73	*
1. France	16340	17710	18560	19370		!]. 		
2. Fed. dep. of Jernany	19290	21650	21720	24320				• - •		- • •
3. Italy	12830	14540	14750	15080	_		- • •	A-800 A		-
4. U.K.	29740	28910	18700	28870	**************************************		•		- •	
parobe	151930	162420	156360	175040			•		•	
Suropean Economic Conumity	2			T	104450	106920	104610	104750	111160	116980
	Table	11 b. Fer	b. Fer Capita Jon	_	unption (in kilo rkines)	(6 6 6 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	······································			
1. France	34.1	35.8	37.2	_ •	. —		-	-		
2. Fed. 3. of dermany	33.5	36.3	36.3	40.2	-			-	•	-
3. Italy	25.3	28.0	28.2	23.6						•••
4. U.X	55.2	52.6	51.9	51.9	D-12-10-0		•	•		
Sarope	34.7	36.2	36.8	38.4	•••		Provided in the Control of the Contr			
Barepean Economic Jornanity	i t				41.4	42.1	6.04	6.04	43.5	45.5

Sources 1) Uff otatistical Yearbook 1969,p 486
2) " " " 1974,p 541
3) " " " 1975,p 588

TABLE 12 Tyports of Sugar from Africa (00 Metric tons)

	1961	65	99	29	ا ھا	69	20	- 21	72	- 23	74
1. Agrola	246	335	274	263	137	144	4	8	104	26	8
2. Congo (Bra)		72	17	809	35	145	508	694	964	281	230
3. Ethiopia	131	.	1	1	12	8	133	166	223	352	105
4. Ivary coast	1		1	-	-	N		-	12		··· •• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
5. Kenya	•		<u></u>	39	_			1		<i>ا</i>	-2
6. Medagascar	489	360	426	662	222	249	520	354	389	394	156
7. Mali	-	W	ĸ	~	1		•	• •••	•		
8. Mauritims	5757	2694	5799	5158	5961	2965	5750	4893	6720	7017	6699
9. Morocco	148	98	51	28	.	t	7 6	306	150	2	2
10. Mozambique	833	646	1421	1095	1318	1701	1786	2070	1971	1744	1500
11. Migeria	1	1	1	9	9	1	···•		1	o de	· ·
12. Reunion	2073	1910	2217	5066	2834	2095	2707	1793	1718	5624	1974
13. Malawi	1		•	30	1	25		of the Constant		-	-
14. Rhodesia	116	2535	9	045	1 751	64/2	899	8	950	1200	1200
15. Zambia	12	- 81	-	· ·	1	ı	1				
16. Semeral	ĸ	9	.	2	•	1		ı 	1	7	
17.South Africa 5860	5860	3754	7247	8834	9613	7143	6335	6802	9975	7266	8270
18. Tanzania	n	-31	-	w			-	4	2	1	
19. Tumisia	ı		•	•		69	May word				· · ·
20. Ugenda	472	194	8	332	364	472	223	·	1		
21. Egypt	560	161	22	120	633	862	867	1196	203	393	909
Total 1	17393	16068	18778	19958	22300	20046	21565	20623	24677	23317	22850
				FAO							

Sources: 1) Trade Yearbook 1970, p 228
2)FAO Trade Yearbook 1974, p. 223

TABLE 13 Exports of Sugar for Selected Tountries (00 metric tons)

	*	₹9	\$	67	%	69		7			74
1. U.S.S.R.	3781	6567	10792	11221	14127	11748	11731	10893	538.	7994	1035
2. U.S.A.	5	23	59	4	14 K,	6		·• IV			418
3. Cuba	41145	52,09	43610	5831	46122	48005		55110		72627	51407
b. Brazil	2525	2600	10046	10013	10262	10987		12512		28217	23027
5. India	2645	2725	0544	1776	1536	050		4155		1684	5351
6. China	3617	3898	5220	1887	2440	1452		6405		6301	6241
7. Merico	5250	2577	4756	5503	6412	6039		5462		9909	4272
8. fhilippines	11227	10477	0£46	1440	950c	10109		14221		14748	15421

Sources 1) 340 <u>Trade Megroook</u> 1970 pp 227,228

TABLE 14 Exports of Sugar for Selected Juropesa Countries

(30 metric tons)

	さ	55	44	63	တ္	69	2	7	22	23	74
1. France	9659	9920	7777		7135	5829	10339	11788	14178	16591	12021
2. Fed. Rep. of Jernany	154	.	6	219	1259	1183	1360	624	2957	2419	4187
3. Italy	•		•	1	1103	692		1		•	1
4. U.K.	4823	3786	4289	3551	6± 2 2	5209	2058	2525	3297	1667	3284
•											
					•						

Sources:

1) FAO Trade Yearbook, 1974 pp 225,224 2) FAO " " 1970 p. 227

	7	3°	7,7	7.7	(J)	Z0	20	71	72	7.	42
1. Alreria	6115	11911	2117	2131	2427	1 2000	2071	2611	1 7601	25.17	L4425
2. Carerous	75	109	₹o.	15.	124	С.	f. K/	- 10g	167	6.6	701
4. Congo	*	1	-		•	•	•	l 		` t	
4. Jenin	HAN In	0; 1f,	89	6	126	10	100		22	ن 0۰	65
5. Erpt	인 발	₹. I	2635	1687	1193	1113	107	••••		, 	125
6. Sthiopia	•	*	199	0,	18	,	•-		,-		
7. Tambia	4	35	1-1	92 .	6 0		2	86	 24	- 4 2	×
R. Ihene	१ कक	619	717	757	950	. 738	1416	649	064	70,	471
9. Guinen	101	170	150	113	121	140	132	452	147	141	109
10. Ivory loast	258	g) K,	388	1 350 1	400	412	551	534	. 66°	65,	572
11. Kenva	771	1024	1161	1 227	1,8 A	284	405	184	1129	842	269
12. Liberia	34 1	70	€ <u></u>	·	6	L 4	Ķ	σ .	cy -	4	4:
13. Ltbys	202	ħóL	475	626	9 1, K	701	651	363	764	626	5 k0
14. Mada ascar	N .	η.	•	-	•		F-		-		
18. Kali	152	111	231	471	40 60 10 10	124	183	233	22	272	217
16. Mauritania	27	12	25	179	304	115	199	180	9,	223	61 61
17. Mauritims	•	•	•	1	1	···	•				1
13. Norocco	30.08	1722	3411	3007	2014	1 2=30	2596	カンカン	2220	: 2779	2865
19. Sozambique		1	245	0,7	ı			₹ ••• •		a, a.	••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••
20. Niger	: 65	2	95	78	27	. 92	છ	75	116	109	192
21. Higeria	142		£52	372	390	728	446	11534	1274	69±1.	722
22. Malani	108	172	157	cs	4.1	77	17	ج الا	59	t. In	73
23. Juranda	ιν 	10	31	*	45	15	22	. 22	2	. 17	16
St. Sept. 2	27.0	346		200	-		- -	1		•	

	?	(()	600	C#2	22	992	31	92	25		53
Somalia	161	52	93	-		-	1	· -	163		272
27. South Africa	456	1029	9	8	80	112	132	142	149	208	216
Sudan	1318	2030	910	822	1747	873	1368	2168	1453		715
Tanzenia	84	144	99	62			50	594	242		350
Togo	45	*	82	8	122	121	82	4	73		54
Tunisia	1052	619	629	806	958	298	1099	1142	1144		1152
Uganda	-	2	190	-	-		•	118	86		
Upper Volta	35	98	96	6	133	108	129	132	185		92
Zambia	184	509	227	471	349	223	238	148	156		128
Zaire	1		57	101	. 0	29	136	202	142		170
Other	149	223	288	261	332	762	1167	1127	1045		1 590
Total	13731	15318	16715	16206	14905	12890	15004	16676	6333		6347

Sources: 1) FAO Trade Yearbook, 1970 pp 230,231
2) FAO " " 1974 pp 220

TABL 15 Imports of Surar for Selected Countries (on Setric tons)

	84	8	99	63	ស្ល	Ģ	۶	,	Ę	č	
4. USSN	7277	5254	-087	4887	3853	-324	SLyz	1 1758	205×	4102	8c07
e of servi	avi 644 2433	2433	3153	3107	5849	1 1312	1945	1776	. 1252	1309	-
Ŀ	4264	¥605	1465	955	524	40°C	3868	5381	. 5785	5611	7660
• 11 • 1	23049 21707	21707	22154	90614	26402	51496	21000	21278	21630	20501	2269
lotal		er. m						<u> </u>			

Sources: 1) FAO <u>Trade Yearbook</u> 1970 p 229

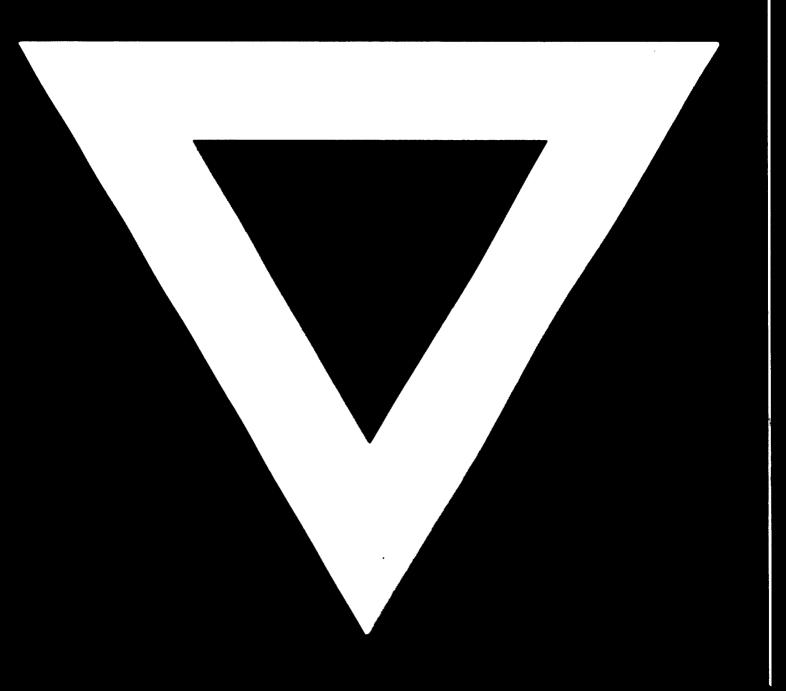
Till 17 Imports of ourar - Salecter Europern Countries (30 matric tons)

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