

**SURVEY OF
BRITISH COMMONWEALTH
AFFAIRS**

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SURVEY OF
BRITISH COMMONWEALTH
AFFAIRS

VOLUME II
PROBLEMS OF ECONOMIC POLICY
1918—1939
PART 2

BY

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To some of them I owe an apology. It has been difficult during the past year to find time for writing, and I have actually lost notes and criticisms which were submitted by some readers of my first draft. I have remembered and used what I could; but under present circumstances I felt unable to delay the work of preparing these chapters for the Press. I must apologize to my readers if I have not everywhere smoothed away the marks of haste.

W. K. HANCOCK

1st May 1941

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APPENDIX A

A NOTE ON MARY KINGSLEY

MARY KINGSLEY went to West Africa to study fish and 'fetish'. Biologists of our own day testify that her work was sound, and anthropologists testify that it was inspired.¹ An historian may be permitted to add his testimony.

She wrote very little history; yet she possessed the three cardinal virtues which distinguish the great historian from the crowd of journeymen. These virtues are attachment, justice, and span. Attachment means self-implication in the thought and emotions and actions of the life which is being studied; it is that capacity for self-forgetfulness and sympathetic insight which enables the historian to handle the actual stuff of the lives which others lead, and to share their experience from the inside. Mary Kingsley made herself a comrade of the 'palm-oil ruffians' and went trading among the cannibal Fans. By direct experience or imaginative understanding she implicated herself in the society which surrounded her and made herself a partner in its way of life. But she did not make herself a partisan for any way of life. Partisanship is the perversion of the virtue of attachment. It is a perversion which occurs so frequently that many timid historians seek refuge in aloofness, and try to persuade themselves that *detachment* is their proper virtue. By a similar process of reasoning, men have sometimes argued that emasculation is the proper safeguard against passion. Attachment is a virtue which must not be eradicated; the cure for its perversions and excesses is justice.

Throughout Mary Kingsley's writings, justice may be seen constantly at work redressing the balance which attachment has threatened to upset. Her attachment to the traders and the Natives threatened for a time to involve her in an unjust vendetta against the missionaries. She disliked the Pharisees who were blind to the achievement of the traders but sharp-eyed in spying out their faults; she detested the 'Man and Brother' cant which covered a contemptuous ignorance of African institutions and religion and was seemingly content to sweep away the traditional restraints and dignity and rationality of primitive society, and put 'rubbishy white culture' in its place. She never ceased to fight this shallow and conceited folly; but she did cease to lay it at the door of the whole missionary brotherhood and sisterhood in West Africa. She discovered the courage and wisdom of Mary Slessor, Mr. Kemp, Dr. Nassau, and other missionaries, and she found that she could work with the Wesleyan missionary organiza-

¹ On the usefulness of her work on fish I have the direct testimony of a biologist in West Africa who has made similar studies. For her anthropological work there is Rattray's tribute to 'that great Englishwoman, Mary Kingsley'. He ascribes to her 'an intuition that seems almost inspired'. See R. S. Rattray, *Ashanti* (Oxford, 1925), p. 81.

tion for the good of the West African people.¹ The justice which ruled her mind was rooted in a loyalty to fact and the habit of criticizing first assumptions in the light shed by new fact. There was another justice which ruled her whole being: it was an ideal of conduct which she pursued with passion:

'We must not', she cried, 'be content with relying on our material wealth and power, and morally on catch phrases. All we need to look to is justice. Love of our fellow men, pity, charity, mercy, we need not bother our heads about, so long as we are just. These things are valuable only when they are used as a means whereby we can attain justice.'²

Mary Kingsley struggled to attain justice by means of knowledge. In the pursuit of knowledge she remained ardently attached to the particular and concrete; but her breadth of sympathy and interest saved her from the specialist's myopia and gave her the quality of span. Span reveals itself in historical or sociological work as an awareness of background; it places the object of immediate and intense study in its proper perspective with the other objects, near or distant, to which it is necessarily related. Attachment is to the particular thing; span is a consciousness of the relations of things. Mary Kingsley hated ambitious generalizations and preferred a wild exaggeration which nobody would take seriously to the impressive formulae which earnest people so often confuse with truth;³ yet all her anthropological inquiries were probing at the relations of things, particularly at the relations between each separate West African custom and the governing logic and emotion which she called 'fetish'.⁴ She recognized with equal insight the distinct but related aspects of British enterprise on the West African coast. She saw that 'the genus coaster'

¹ Mary H. Kingsley, *Travels in West Africa* (Macmillan, 1904 ed.), pp. 23, 147, 296, 324, 488. These references show her hostility to certain sides of the missionary movement and her appreciation of other sides. It may be mentioned (see *ibid.*, p. 296) that she disliked the 'Child race' cant no less than the 'Man and Brother' cant: indeed, she waged constant war against all the different kinds of people who used words 'as if they were Ju Ju'.

² Mary Kingsley, *West African Studies* (Macmillan, 2nd edn. 1901), p. 331.

³ e.g. her classification of mankind into 'Englishmen, Foreigners and Blackmen'! It enabled her to make an important point and at the same time indulge her sense of fun and warn off the pedants who, by applying their concepts of racial classification prematurely, might mislead people into believing that a subject of great complexity had been explained. Her writing is full of similar extravagances or energetic statements which are meant to be only provisional; but all the time she was attempting to compress the essential truth of what she had learnt about African society into ever-shorter statements. She came nearest to success in her Hibbert lecture of 1897 at Oxford: it is reprinted as Chapter xx of the *Studies*.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 96: 'I mean by Fetish the religion of the Natives of the West Coast of Africa, where they have not been influenced either by Christianity or Mohammedanism.' Cf. p. 393: 'The essential thing that you must understand when you attempt to understand any West African Native institution is the religion of the Native. . . . ' Mary Kingsley's successors do not like her word 'fetish' (she herself had doubts about it), but the best of them have accepted her method and the substance of her thought.

was divided into three species—trader, missionary, and official. She saw that these three species represented three elements—commercial, religious, and governmental—which are essential to every State.

'But in West Africa', she reflected, 'they are apart and opposed, and therefore not a State. You can no more expect to get good government from them as they are than to tell the time from a watch whose parts have not yet been put together.'¹

She attacked the Crown Colony system because of its failure to co-ordinate the energies of the advancing European society and its failure to understand the needs of the changing African society. She believed that its failure to co-ordinate was a failure of knowledge: it was ignorant of British commerce and ignorant of African custom: it had neither an economic policy nor a Native policy. She believed that British society had achieved great things in West Africa; but she feared that British government might throw away the achievement because it did not understand the opportunities of the new age, and did not realize the need for making a clear plan and pursuing it with deliberate resolution.

What should the plan be? There were some people who still imagined that it was possible and desirable to 'leave West Africa alone'. Mary Kingsley knew too much about European history and economics to imagine that it was possible; she knew too much about African anthropology and economics to believe that it was desirable. She knew that it was impossible to prevent women like Mary Slessor from saving twin children whom she picked up in the bush 'considerably eaten into by ants'; nor did she want to prevent this heroic work of rescue.² She understood the debilitating character of the Native diet and 'the degraded condition of their cooking culture'; and she wanted to improve both.³ She understood the connexion between the primitive economic organization of the West Coast and the malnutrition and disease which were rife there. She believed that the people might have been able to do without trade when slave-raiding was keeping their numbers from rising; but she knew at first hand certain congested districts on the coast where the development of trade had already become 'necessary for the existence of the natives'.⁴ Her quality of span enabled her to see all these things in relation to each other. She believed that West African animism represented 'a perfectly natural view of Nature', and that the customs and institutions which rested upon the animistic conception were a respect-worthy achievement of human reason; but she was at the same time aware of the mechanical and economic backwardness which were caused by the inability of the people to understand the action of matter upon matter. As a result of this inability African society remained at a 'thirteenth-century level'. The stimulus of external contacts had throughout past centuries been too spasmodic and discontinuous to arouse among the people the desire and

¹ *Studies*, p. 6 and p. 304.

² *Ibid.*, p. 153.

³ *Travels*, p. 325.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 511.

capacity for new forms of thought and life. But the influence of modern Europe had at last come to West Africa, and had come to stay. It was certain to cause a vast transformation. The transformation would have ruinous effects if it were achieved by the blind action of unco-ordinated forces. But if it were guided by science and justice, it would become a blessing.

Mary Kingsley wanted a policy which would enable West Africa's thirteenth-century society to raise itself to its own nineteenth-century opportunity, instead of suffering ruin under the impact of an alien nineteenth century, chaotically thrusting itself upon an unready and unguided people. She believed that British policy had so far failed in its duty; but she also believed that it was not yet too late to correct the failure.

'The destruction', she wrote, 'of what is good in the thirteenth century level, and the fact that when the nineteenth century has had its way the main result is seedy and demoralised Natives, is the thing that must make all thinking men wonder if, after all, such work is from the high moral point of view worth the nineteenth century's doing. I so often think when I hear of the progress of civilisation, and our duty towards the lower races talked of, as if these words were in themselves Ju Ju, of that improving fable of the kind-hearted she-elephant, who, while walking out one day, inadvertently trod upon a partridge and killed it, and observing near at hand the bird's nest full of callow fledglings, dropped a tear, and saying "I have the feelings of a mother myself", sat down upon the brood. This is precisely what England representing the nineteenth century is doing in West Africa. She destroys the guardian institutions, drops a tear and sits upon the brood with motherly intentions; and pesky warm sitting she finds it. . . . "Ah!", you will say, "yes, it is sad, but it is inevitable." I do not think it is inevitable, unless you have no intellectual constructive Statecraft and are merely in the line of the automaton. If you will try Science, all the evils of the clash between two culture periods could be avoided, and you could assist these West Africans in their thirteenth-century state to rise into their nineteenth-century state without having the hard fight for it which you have had. . . . There is absolutely no perceivable reason why you should not do it if you will try Science, and master the knowledge of the Native and his country.'¹

By science Mary Kingsley meant anthropological science, 'the knowledge of Native laws, religion, institutions and state-form'. She believed that a government which possessed this knowledge could use Native institutions as instruments of rule and guidance in a manner which would enable the peoples of West Africa both to preserve their own way of life and to adapt it to the necessities of the new age. She did not desire to delay the advent of the new age; on the contrary, she desired to hasten it. She thought it 'no disgrace to England that the traders are the expanding force for her in Africa' and she propounded a scheme for associating them with the government.² She knew that a government which intended

¹ *Studies*, pp. 326-7.

² *Ibid.*, p. 252, and ch. xiii *passim*.

to substitute a 'natural' economic life for the 'perverted' slave-raiding economy must command revenue, and she was even prepared to encourage plantations should they prove a necessary means of economic development. She was also ready to qualify 'the general policy of ruling on African principles through Native rulers' by the establishment of considerable districts under European law, where progressive Africans who found the old order pressing hard upon them might—like the medieval villagers who found freedom in the towns—begin the fashioning of a new society to which the Native governments would gradually approximate. In short, her programme was delicately balanced between conservatism and change. She desired to conserve what was sound in native custom so that it might become the instrument of change, and achieve for itself through change a new and stronger life, different from the past yet continuous with the past.

APPENDIX B

OILS AND FATS

THE problems of the West African trade in palm-oil and palm-kernels have been discussed in chapter II, sections II and IV, against the background of competition by plantation-producers of the same commodities. But a fuller inquiry would demand the survey of a far wider background. The market for oils and fats—whether of vegetable, land-animal, or marine-animal origin—demands examination as a whole. This is so for two reasons:

(1) The various oils and fats, owing to the progress made in the industrial utilization of them, are becoming increasingly (though not yet universally and completely) interchangeable.

(2) Technical changes and price changes affecting one branch of production exercise powerful effects upon other branches which at first sight seem but distantly related. Thus there is a real economic connexion and tension between dairy-farmers in New Zealand, soya-bean growers in Manchuria, whalers in the Arctic Ocean, and villagers of the West African palm forests.

This unified study of the problem has been thoroughly undertaken by the International Institute of Agriculture. See *Oils and Fats: Production and International Trade* (Rome, 1939: Studies of Principal Agricultural Products in the World Market, No. 4). The reader who desires further information is referred to this work. We shall content ourselves here with setting out a few of the more important factors with regard to vegetable oils.

Vegetable oils are produced both from herbaceous plants and from trees. There are thirteen main varieties of the former: the best known are ground-nuts, the soya bean, cotton seed, linseed. Ground-nuts are an important crop in the drier districts of West Africa: India and China are the largest producers and India is the largest exporter. Nigeria, as an exporter, ranks third after India and French West Africa. There are five trees which produce vegetable oil: of these the olive, the coco-nut-palm, and *Elaeis guineensis* are the most important.

The oil production from the herbaceous plants is considerably greater than the production from the trees. In world trade, however, the latter counts for more than the former. In recent years it has contributed a share of world exports varying between 70 and 80 per cent.

If we consider together all the varieties of vegetable oil, whether produced from herbaceous plants or trees, Asia is by far the largest producer. North and Central America come second. Africa and Oceania rank low in the list of producing countries. However, they rank high in the list of exporting countries. Asia takes the first place, Africa comes

second with an export about half as large. South America, Oceania, and the U.S.S.R. occupy the next three places.

Since the demand for oils and fats rises with industrialization, North America and Europe are the two leading continents of importation. The United States is a large producer of vegetable oil (notably cotton-seed oil) and of animal fats (notably lard and butter). Nevertheless, the United States is on balance heavily an importer of all oils and fats, with a growing bias towards those of vegetable origin. In Europe, Germany is the chief consumer: her importation in peace-time is about 2,000,000 metric tons of oils and oil seeds. Her chief home-produced vegetable oils are rapeseed and linseed: the home-produced animal fats are lard and butter. National Socialist planning has increased home production: some of this increase, however, has been dependent on imports—e.g. additional butter production on the import of cattle cake, largely a by-product of palm-kernels, ground-nuts, &c. The German margarine industry has also depended heavily upon the importation of whale oil.

On the manufacturing utilization of oils and fats sufficient detail has been given in the text: specialist readers may be referred to the Institute of Agriculture's publication. One or two general points, may, however, be worth making:

(1) Technical progress and the growing interchangeability of the various products is accompanied by a selective process: the better qualities are used for food (cf. the improvement in margarine) while the inferior perform humbler functions—e.g. lubrication.

(2) There has been some progress in the use of substitutes. In 1937 the Germans established a factory for producing fatty acids from coal. The product is used for making soap.

(3) Prices are influenced by by-product considerations: e.g. cotton-seed oil is a vegetable by-product, tallow and lard are animal by-products. On the other hand, plants whose chief value is in the oil they produce also yield by-products: e.g. feeding cake from ground-nuts and palm-kernels is increasingly important.

Thus the Danes, who specialize in the production of butter for export, hold the world's record as consumers of margarine (20 kg. per head per annum). Nevertheless, the feeding stuff which is produced as a by-product from the vegetable products used in the manufacture of margarine is even more important to Denmark than the margarine itself.

(4) What are the long-term prospects of the oils and fats market? There are some favourable factors. Demand is still increasing. The increase of demand is predominantly an increase in the consumption of edible fats. Whether or not this is dietetically desirable, it takes place wherever an industrialized and urbanized population possesses the means of payment. Competition among producers, by lowering price, should have the effect of widening effective demand. There are also, however, some unfavourable factors. Chief among these is the general population tendency in the chief consuming countries. At the same time there is the great

increase of production emphasized in the text: these two factors together threaten an alteration in the relation of supply and demand which may persistently depress price. However, one of the most persistently depressing factors of recent years could be eliminated by the co-operation of enlightened nations. I refer to the impoverishing policies pursued by governments during the past decade.

(5) If the above consideration is of some comfort to producers who, like the West Africans, are losing ground to more efficient competitors, there is discomfort in the growing selectiveness in utilization, and the consequent tendency of the market to discriminate severely in price against the lower-quality products.

(6) Trade-policy considerations—e.g. the policy of an Imperial Power to its dependencies—influence the market opportunities of various producing regions. In 1936 France took 95 per cent. of the palm-oil produced in her African dependencies and Belgium took 81 per cent. of the production of the Belgian Congo. Nigeria, on the other hand, sold 44 per cent. of her palm-oil to Germany and only 36 per cent. to the United Kingdom: the rest was sold in scattered markets. Germany had also regained the position she had lost in the war of 1914–18 as the chief purchaser of Nigerian palm-kernels. Similarly, the ground-nut producers of British West Africa found their best markets outside the Empire, especially in France and Italy. In recent years the British market has been the only one in which the price relationship between the different oils and fats has been predominantly determined by the economic factors of cost and consumers' choice. Everywhere else the protectionist policies pursued by governments have played the predominant part.

APPENDIX C
SOME SELECT FIGURES IN THE PRODUCE TRADES
OF BRITISH WEST AFRICA

Raw Cocoa Statistics

PRODUCTION (in metric tons). (From the *Gordian*)

	<i>World</i>	<i>British West Africa</i> <i>(Gold Coast and Nigeria)</i>
1894 . . .	69,914	27
1895 . . .	76,933	34
1896 . . .	74,397	52
1897 . . .	82,641	117
1898 . . .	86,800	223
1899 . . .	101,301	397
1900 . . .	102,611	750
1901 . . .	107,446	1,206
1902 . . .	126,892	3,022
1903 . . .	128,398	2,867
1904 . . .	151,374	6,312
1905 . . .	145,891	6,098
1906 . . .	149,548	10,474
1907 . . .	150,056	11,399
1908 . . .	192,497	14,334
1909 . . .	203,973	22,900
1910 . . .	220,161	25,967
1911 . . .	239,764	44,827
1912 . . .	231,061	42,723
1913 . . .	253,349	54,988
1914 . . .	276,968	58,753
1915 . . .	296,363	87,774
1916 . . .	296,759	82,304
1917 . . .	348,663	108,108
1918 . . .	274,200	77,787
1919 . . .	470,033	205,094
1920 . . .	374,993	144,025
1921 . . .	393,503	152,382
1922 . . .	410,249	190,345
1923 . . .	456,385	230,581
1924 . . .	508,405	260,072
1925 . . .	495,486	258,407
1926 . . .	477,274	266,110
1927 . . .	488,617	245,019
1928 . . .	514,296	269,661
1929 . . .	537,459	289,332
1930 . . .	486,335	239,973
1931 . . .	543,577	291,938
1932 . . .	569,423	300,626
1933 . . .	572,120	292,421
1934 . . .	593,209	308,224
1935 . . .	678,141	354,779
1936 . . .	711,574	388,823
1937 . . .	640,943	341,035
1938 . . .	706,976	359,099
1939 (est.) . . .	725,500	396,000

Raw Cocoa Statistics

CONSUMPTION (in metric tons)

	<i>World</i>	<i>America (U.S.A.)</i>	<i>Germany</i>	<i>G.B.</i>	<i>France</i>	<i>Holland</i>
1894	65,279	7,936	8,320	9,951	14,871	9,656
1895	73,343	13,188	9,936	10,956	15,243	8,592
1896	77,729	10,474	12,210	11,035	15,820	11,367
1897	84,585	9,633	15,473	12,534	16,244	15,073
1898	89,436	11,573	15,860	14,435	17,445	13,900
1899	100,930	15,981	18,272	14,775	17,656	14,309
1900	102,454	18,768	19,242	16,889	17,463	11,815
1901	110,649	20,666	18,410	18,908	17,916	14,373
1902	123,935	23,121	20,602	20,386	19,343	14,666
1903	129,108	28,508	21,491	17,486	20,639	16,742
1904	139,795	32,164	27,101	20,543	21,794	12,184
1905	143,571	35,323	29,633	20,191	21,748	10,737
1906	158,003	37,949	35,261	20,132	23,404	11,224
1907	157,941	37,527	34,515	20,159	23,180	12,219
1908	166,274	42,615	34,352	21,052	20,445	15,821
1909	196,058	53,379	40,725	24,264	23,254	19,387
1910	203,407	50,315	43,941	24,082	25,068	19,187
1911	231,696	58,965	50,855	25,396	27,340	23,536
1912	250,607	66,553	55,085	28,044	26,891	24,921
1913	252,407	67,595	51,053	27,585	27,774	30,016
1914	266,242	74,379	54,489	29,038	26,085	32,095
1915	313,897	85,145	43,094	47,267	35,269	40,955
1916	271,022	105,361	10,123	38,798	39,576	20,019
1917	325,094	171,054	352	50,779	46,747	7,861
1918	319,939	156,845	..	62,233	41,496	2,385
1919	395,805	158,183	10,295	65,647	51,613	36,922
1920	376,056	142,777	45,008	51,483	45,288	25,385
1921	406,140	124,416	102,955	47,164	33,215	28,785
1922	425,765	150,702	84,006	51,341	38,568	36,137
1923	438,394	181,862	50,716	50,601	38,345	39,083
1924	482,824	165,450	87,944	52,677	43,323	41,065
1925	479,970	165,617	80,998	57,218	43,506	44,114
1926	478,299	187,882	61,484	57,321	41,650	44,143
1927	469,597	187,594	69,877	56,741	27,925	39,750
1928	473,917	163,161	75,361	56,457	34,007	47,507
1929	548,919	224,054	76,689	58,417	35,762	49,800
1930	485,784	165,146	75,583	57,905	37,263	51,000
1931	538,613	186,112	85,347	61,255	40,753	52,000
1932	543,748	213,734	77,347	67,914	43,871	42,500
1933	550,915	210,918	77,006	67,954	41,982	47,700
1934	579,576	195,544	101,392	73,491	40,076	55,100
1935	666,721	271,284	74,754	83,748	43,403	62,000
1936	697,918	275,544	76,259	103,721	47,418	66,956
1937	649,964	270,503	72,393	95,675	41,313	53,227
1938	630,865	200,109	79,086	96,174	42,426	74,781
1939 (est.)	711,000	277,000	65,000	110,000	50,000	75,000

APPENDIX C

AVERAGE PRICE per cwt. ex quay Liverpool—No. 1 Accra cocoa

	s.	d.		s.	d.		s.	d.
1910 . . .	50	6	1920 . . .	81	0	1930 . . .	37	11
1911 . . .	52	0	1921 . . .	44	5	1931 . . .	28	5
1912 . . .	55	0	1922 . . .	46	2	1932 . . .	28	1
1913 . . .	63	0	1923 . . .	38	4	1933 . . .	23	2
1914 . . .	55	0	1924 . . .	39	3	1934 . . .	22	8
1915 . . .	75	0	1925 . . .	44	7	1935 . . .	23	3½
1916 . . .	65	0	1926 . . .	52	7	1936 . . .	31	2
1917 . . .	60	0	1927 . . .	72	0	1937 . . .	39	2
1918 . . .	65	0	1928 . . .	60	3	1938 . . .	25	0
1919 . . .	79	8	1929 . . .	47	3	1939 . . .	23	2½

* * * * *

Average Monthly Market Prices

(Approximate to the nearest £1.)

PALM-OIL¹ (per ton)

	January	April	July	October
	£	£	£	£
1919 . . .	48	48	88	81
1920 . . .	95	80	53	57
1921 . . .	39	28	35	34
1922 . . .	34	34	33	32
1923 . . .	34	37	33	36
1924 . . .	39	36	38	42
1925 . . .	44	38	40	40
1926 . . .	38	37	37	36
1927 . . .	35	33	30	34
1928 . . .	34	34	33	38
1929 . . .	36	33	34	31
1930 . . .	31	27	23	21
1931 . . .	19	16	17	18
1932 . . .	18	15	15	16
1933 . . .	14	12	16	13
1934 . . .	12	12	11	14
1935 . . .	17	18	16	20
1936 . . .	20	17	18	20
1937 . . .	29	24	22	19
1938 . . .	16	14	14	13
1939 . . .	13	12	12	17
1940 . . .	17	17	16	16

¹ The prices given are for all Nigerian palm-oil in casks, ex quay Liverpool, basis 18 per cent. f.f.a. The price advantage due to consignments of lower f.f.a. content is given as a premium calculated from this basic price.

APPENDIX C

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Average Monthly Market Prices

(Approximate to the nearest £1.)

PALM-KERNELS (per ton)

	<i>January</i>	<i>April</i>	<i>July</i>	<i>October</i>
	£	£	£	£
1919 . . .	26	26	45	38
1920 . . .	45	40	31	37
1921 . . .	23	18	22	19
1922 . . .	18	18	17	16
1923 . . .	17	21	17	18
1924 . . .	21	19	21	23
1925 . . .	22	21	21	20
1926 . . .	21	20	20	19
1927 . . .	19	19	19	17
1928 . . .	21	21	21	20
1929 . . .	20	18	18	17
1930 . . .	16	15	12	11
1931 . . .	11	10	10	11
1932 . . .	12	11	10	11
1933 . . .	10	8	9	8
1934 . . .	8	7	6	7
1935 . . .	9	9	8	11
1936 . . .	12	10	11	12
1937 . . .	18	15	13	12
1938 . . .	11	10	9	8
1939 . . .	9	9	8	10
1940 . . .	11	11	10	10

APPENDIX C

Average Monthly Market Prices

(Prices approximate to the nearest £1.)

GROUND-NUTS (per ton). (Decorticated: c.i.f. United Kingdom and/or Continent)

	<i>March</i>	<i>June</i>	<i>Sept.</i>	<i>Dec.</i>
	£	£	£	£
1920	32	38	20
1921 . . .	16	20	27	21
1922 . . .	22	22	19	20
1923 . . .	23	22	23	24
1924 . . .	22	22	28	24
1925 . . .	24	25	25	21
1926 . . .	21	23	21	20
1927 . . .	22	22	23	22
1928 . . .	21	21	21	20
1929 . . .	18	17	21	18
1930 . . .	15	15	13	11
1931 . . .	12	11	12	13
1932 . . .	18	14	14	14
1933 . . .	10	12	10	9
1934 . . .	8	8	10	11
1935 . . .	14	15	14	14
1936 . . .	14	14	15	16
1937 . . .	14	15	13	13
1938 . . .	11	10	10	10
1939 . . .	10	12	13	14
1940 . . .	15	15	14	16

Note: The above figures with regard to the chief produce trades of British West Africa were kindly compiled for the author by Cadbury Bros. Ltd. and The United Africa Company.

APPENDIX D

SELECTIONS FROM 'STATEMENT OF POLICY ON COLONIAL DEVELOPMENT AND WELFARE'

*Presented by the Secretary of State for the Colonies to Parliament by
Command of His Majesty, February, 1940*

His Majesty's Government are trustees for the well-being of the peoples of the Colonial Empire, and the spontaneous and wholehearted support by the inhabitants of every territory to the common war effort is the best testimony to their appreciation of the way in which this trust is being discharged. The primary aim of Colonial policy is to protect and advance the interests of the inhabitants of the Colonies (in which term are included for the purpose of this statement Protectorates and Mandated Territories). Much has already been accomplished, but there is room for further active development of the natural resources of the various territories so as to provide their people with improved standards of life. Some of the Colonies can make, and have made, great progress in strengthening their economic positions without recourse to outside help; and they are improving, as time goes on, the social services that minister to the well-being of the people as a whole. In some territories larger revenues could be raised without injustice by adjustment of taxation; and considerably heavier local taxation has in fact been accepted in most of the Colonies since the outbreak of war. An improvement of the Government machinery and a reinforcement of the personnel of the development services would in many Colonies result in more successful economic expansion.

Nevertheless, if full and balanced development is to be obtained, and if Colonial Governments are to be placed in a position to maintain administrative, technical and social services at proper standards, some assistance from outside is necessary at this stage. Few of the Colonies have the good fortune to possess substantial mineral wealth, and in comparatively few are there manufacturing industries of any magnitude. The majority are wholly, or almost wholly, dependent on the more limited resources derived from agriculture. The value of agricultural products varies widely from year to year as conditions fluctuate in the world market, with the result that Colonial revenues provide an unreliable basis for a policy of steady development. In some cases the position is aggravated by a heavy burden of indebtedness. However able their Government, however efficient their economic administration, many Colonies cannot finance out of their own resources the research and survey work, the schemes of major capital enterprise, and the expansion of administrative or technical staffs which are necessary for their full and vigorous development. Nor can they always afford, in the absence of such development, an adequate standard of health and education services.

Much has been done towards remedying the situation. It is not merely

that when Colonial Governments have faced deficits in the past they have received assistance from the United Kingdom Exchequer, which has amounted during the past ten years to £12,000,000.¹ More important, a Colonial Development Fund was established by an Act of 1929, for financing by grant or loan various schemes for economic development in the Colonies. Each year considerable payments have been made from the Fund, totalling some £5,000,000² altogether over the past decade, while commitments for the future amount to an additional £1,600,000.³

The Government now propose to invite Parliament to approve an extension of this policy, and to remove certain limiting and hampering conditions that are attached to expenditure from the existing Fund. The object in view when the Fund was constituted was 'to promote commerce with, or industry in, the United Kingdom,' an end which it was hoped to achieve by assisting the development of agriculture and industry in the Colonies. Certain specific objects on which expenditure could be incurred were enumerated. Other objects of no less importance were not included; for example, education (apart from technical education) was outside the scope of the Act. The emphasis was throughout on material development. The intention of the Act was primarily to provide assistance towards capital schemes, though assistance towards recurrent expenditure was not in terms excluded. This intention has been followed, and grants towards recurrent expenditure have not normally been authorized; when occasionally they have been given, they have been made for short periods only. The existence of the Fund has not involved any departure from the old principle that a Colony should have only those services which it can afford to maintain out of its own resources. This principle now calls for revision, and the Government propose that in appropriate cases money from the new sources which they have it in mind to provide should be made available for the maintenance of important works or services over a substantial period of years.

They propose to introduce legislation to replace the Colonial Development Fund, which is limited to a maximum of £1,000,000 a year, by new arrangements providing in a new Vote in the Estimates for assistance to Colonial Governments³ up to a maximum of £5,000,000 a year for ten years. This assistance will be available not only for schemes involving capital expenditure necessary for Colonial development in the widest sense but also for helping to meet recurrent expenditure in the Colonies on certain services such as agriculture, education, health, and housing. In planning expenditure from this new source the Government will enlist the help of a Colonial Development and Welfare Advisory Committee, which will be composed partly of official and partly of unofficial members.

¹ This figure does not include expenditure on security in Palestine and Trans-Jordan.

² These figures do not include payments and commitments in respect of Newfoundland.

³ The arrangements now contemplated will apply also to the three High Commission Territories in South Africa which fall within the sphere of the Dominions Office.

The subject of research calls for separate treatment. Hitherto expenditure on various forms of Colonial research has received assistance from the Colonial Development Fund, but the Government feel it desirable that special arrangements should be made in future for giving assistance of this nature. They have had access in the past, in dealing with questions of Colonial research, to the advice of scientific and technical experts in this country; but they are anxious to place the system on a wider and more regular basis, and they consider that this object can best be achieved by the establishment of a Colonial Research Advisory Committee and by the allocation of a separate sum for Colonial research up to a maximum of £500,000 a year. In reaching this decision they had in mind the proposal for special provision for research made by Lord Hailey in his 'African Survey', and they take this opportunity of acknowledging their debt to him for the suggestion.

The intention is that the sums of £5,000,000 and £500,000 a year respectively should be specified in the proposed legislation as maximum figures. It is not expected that, in either case, this scale of expenditure will be attained at once; indeed it is improbable that conditions will permit of its being reached at any time during the war. In any event it must take time to frame careful plans of development and research on the scale that will now be possible, and to translate such plans into full practical operation. These maximum figures have been reached after estimating what expenditure seems desirable and practicable for a reasonable period of years ahead. They will be subject to review from time to time, and should experience show that they are insufficient it will always be open to Parliament to increase them. So far as concerns the provision for development and welfare, the position will have to be reviewed before the expiry of the initial ten-year period.

It will be noted that these measures of assistance by the taxpayers of the United Kingdom will be extended without distinction not only to all British Colonies and Protectorates, but also to all the territories administered by the Government under the Mandatory system.

The first emphasis in this much enlarged policy of Colonial development will be on the improvement of the economic position of the Colonies. That is the primary requirement, upon which advance in other directions is largely consequential. It is by economic development that Colonies will be placed in a position to devote their resources, to the maximum extent possible, to the provision of those Government and other services which the interests of their people demand. Assistance from United Kingdom funds should be effectively related to what the Colonies can do for themselves. For this purpose it is essential that there should be co-ordination of effort on the part both of the Government at home and of the Colonial Governments. Proper machinery and adequate personnel both for planning and for carrying out plans should be established in the United Kingdom as well as in each of the Colonies, and there should be a regular liaison between the authorities at home and overseas. . . .

From London there will be assistance and guidance, but no spirit of dictation. The new policy of development will involve no derogation from the rights and privileges of local legislatures, upon whom rests a large measure of responsibility for the improvement of conditions in their several territories and upon whose co-operation the Government count with confidence. The fact that a Colony receives assistance under the policy will not entail upon it the system of financial control which is now associated with the receipt of grants-in-aid. The whole effort will be one of collaboration between the authorities in the Colonies and those at home; there must be ready recognition that conditions vary greatly from Colony to Colony, and that Colonial Governments, who best know the needs of their territories, should enjoy a wide latitude in the initiation and execution of policies, the primary purpose of which is to promote the prosperity and happiness of the peoples of the Colonial Empire.

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