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"EMPLOYMENT TARGETS IN EAST AFRICAN  
DEVELOPMENT PLANS"

By

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Introduction:

The objective of creating more employment during the development process is being more and more recognized by development planners and politicians alike and many of the current development plans do have some employment targets however crude these figures may be. But as an International Labour Office study points out,

"Employment, though recognized as important, may so far have tended to be given a more or less residual role in the actual process of development planning"<sup>(1)</sup>

This does not mean that the planners are blind to realities. The problem though recognized is by no means an easy one to solve. Many underdeveloped countries do not have reliable labour force studies. Yet realistic employment targets must be related to the projected rates of growth in the labour force. But even if labour force studies were available additional studies would be needed before one can safely incorporate employment targets in a development plan. First we need to know the relationship between employment targets and other targets in the plan e.g. output targets, investment targets etc. Secondly we need to know the relationship between employment and wages. Thirdly wage - productivity relationship must be known both in aggregate and by sectors. Lastly we ought to make some assumptions about possible changes in technology over the plan period and the expected structural changes in the economy as a whole. All these are not known and as a result employment objectives in development plans tend to be given a mere residual role. Lloyd Reynolds has correctly summarized the situation,

"The objective of a development programme is usually stated as a certain behavior of real per capita income. If employment objectives are included, this is usually as an afterthought. The plan document may assert optimistically that the number of new jobs created will exceed projected additions to the labour force over the plan period. But the statistical foundation of these projections is typically weak and there is little analysis of the kinds of action which would be needed to make them come true"<sup>(2)</sup>

Bearing in mind the weak statistical foundation of employment targets in development plan, the purpose of this paper is to attempt to give a quantitative analysis of aggregate and sectoral employment targets in the East African development plans in order to find out how aggregate targets if achieved will reduce the "employment-gap" and to discover which sectors of the economy are likely to generate more employment, given the expected structural changes that may take place during the plan period.

Rationale for having employment targets in development plan.

It is a general feature of the less developed countries that they are faced with large scale underemployment especially in the rural areas and a growing unemployment in the urban Centres. Chronic unemployment and underemployment are in a way symptoms of underdevelopment and one of the aims of a development plan ought to be reduction of unemployment and underemployment. However, planning for accelerated growth of national income or some component of it even if successful does not guarantee more employment. Available statistics tend to confirm the fear that employment may in fact decline at a time when national income is rising, partly due to the adoption of labour-saving techniques and partly due to improvements in labour productivity. Thus a successful development programme may leave a major social problem unsolved. But elimination of chronic unemployment and underemployment can be justified also on economic grounds. One aim in development is full utilization of a country's human and natural resources. The more employment generated the more the people who will be able to share the fruits of economic progress and if at the same time the national income is increased, the economy as a whole will be in a better position for further growth. Employment objective thus has two aspects, the welfare aspect (raising the standard of living) and the growth aspect (raising the rate of growth of national income) The latter is not always a positive contribution as will be explained below but assuming that creation of more employment does not lead to a fall in the rate of growth of income governments ought to have measures to provide employment opportunities for the currently underemployed and unemployed. There is also dynamic aspect of unemployment which strengthens the call upon governments to take action. Most underdeveloped countries are undergoing rapid demographic, economic and social changes which tend to increase the demand for jobs. Their population is growing fast and so is the labour force; better job opportunities tend to make latent underemployment become open unemployment; technological advances lead to technological unemployment; the role of women in the community is changing and female participation in wage-employment is increasing. All these dynamic changes make it almost imperative that the problem of providing more jobs must be given serious consideration.

Possible conflict between employment targets and other targets in the Plan

Although it can be convincingly argued that there is a case for having employment targets in a development plan, no ready answer can be given the question of the possible effects of employment targets on other targets in a plan. If the achievement of employment target does not hinder the achievement of output targets, investment targets, income targets etc, then there is no conflict. However, there are several instances where the conflict might arise:-

(a) Low Productivity - the bulk of the newly employed will be drawn from the unskilled, illiterate, and inexperienced workers who are in no way committed to wage - employment. It is quite probable that their productivity will be very low. To the extent that this low productivity outweighs the productivity of formerly employed workers the average productivity of the economy as a whole will fall and the goals of high output and high employment will thus become incompatible.

(ii) Effect on Investment: High employment goal may have negative effects on investment in two main ways - through the consumption behavior of the newly employed and through payment of more wages. If additional employment does not result in an increased output then the newly-employed will be consuming more than they produce and this will have a negative effect on domestic savings and hence on investment. To the extent that domestic consumer goods are not available, imports will have to increase and this will cut on the badly needed foreign exchange. If on the other hand imports are restricted inflationary pressures will be set up which will adversely affect savings and investment.

High employment goal can also affect investment through additional wages. If wages are paid at the expense of investment growth will be hampered. Creation of more employment only becomes consistent with other targets in the plan if funds are not drawn from other planned projects in order to increase employment.

(iii) Duration of the plan: Adoption of labour intensive techniques may greatly extend the construction period of a project and hence prolong the gestation period before the project becomes economically productive. People who plead for more labour - intensive techniques often forget the question of timing. A study by the ILO has correctly pointed out that:-

"A labour intensive project for the building of irrigation canals will not be necessarily preferred, even in terms of employment objectives, to a capital-intensive method of organizing the work, if the former would take ten years to make possible an increase in agricultural employment that the latter could bring about in one year"<sup>(3)</sup>

Timing is an important factor in development taking into account the often expressed desire of the developing nations to eliminate poverty in the shortest time possible. This can only be achieved if resources were channelled to immediately productive projects and in this respect Capital - intensive projects are more appropriate than labour-intensive projects.

The above comments are not meant to imply that we wholly reject the benefits of labour intensive techniques. Rather, they are meant to remind us that indiscriminate application of labour intensive techniques may have long-run negative effects on growth. India, mainland China and Yugoslavia had experiments with labour -intensive projects and these did not meet with uniform success.

Capital intensive projects especially in manufacturing sector have indirect employment effects often not realised by advocates of labour intensive technology. As Galenson<sup>(4)</sup> has pointed out, <sup>manufacturing sector</sup> is not likely to directly generate more employment, but it may generate effective demand leading to expansion of employment in tertiary sectors. This is particularly true with service sector which tends to expand in response to the growth of the manufacturing sector.

#### EMPLOYMENT TARGETS IN EAST AFRICA

Despite the lack of relevant statistics that would make employment targets meaningful and realistic, the three East African Countries have some employment targets in their plans based on certain assumptions with respect to estimated growth of labour force, employment, wages, productivity and the expected changes in the structure of the economies. The purpose of this section is to examine the implications of these targets with respect to assumed growth in the labour force and to see to <sup>what</sup> extent the targets, if achieved will reduce the "employment-gap." Secondly, it is intended to analyse the sectoral distribution of the wage-employment in order to discover which sectors are most likely to generate more employment.

#### Employment Targets and the "Employment-Gap"

One of the aims of incorporating employment targets in a development plan is to reduce unemployment and underemployment over the plan period. To achieve this end, planned rates of growth of employment must exceed projected rate of growth of the labour force. But in East Africa where little is known about the labour force, employment targets are based on mere estimates of labour force and its expected rate of growth. In this paper an attempt is made to estimate the labour force during the plan period and compare it with the planned targets of employment in order to see whether or not the employment gap will be reduced at the end of the plan. "Employment-Gap" is defined as the difference between estimated labour force and actual wage-employment. It does not represent "unemployment alone but includes self-employed, employees in peasant agriculture, subsistence

farmers and non-reported wage-employment. The "employment-gap" may be taken as a measure of potential labour-force that could be absorbed into paid employment if job opportunities were available. Alternatively it may be looked at as a potential source of urban and rural unemployment and underemployment that may emerge during the development process.

Uganda's Employment Target:

According to the Second Five Year Development Plan, Uganda aims at creating 100,000 additional jobs by 1971. It is not clear how this figure was arrived at but let us take <sup>it</sup> as a genuine figure and examine its implication on the employment problem.

In 1966 Uganda's population was 7.7 million and if this is expected to grow at 2.2% per year it will be 8.7 million in 1971. Now, assuming that 37% of the population is of working age, Uganda's labour force will be 3.2 million in 1971. If sex distribution of the working age is in the ratio of 1:1 and if we assume that only 10% of the women would be forthcoming to seek paid employment, then the labour force in 1971 will be 1.8 million. The following table summarizes what the employment gap will look like under these assumptions if the 100,000 employment target is achieved:-

Table I. Uganda's "Employment-Gap"

	1966	1971
Population, P (million)	7.7	8.7
Crude Labour Force, L ('000)	2,900	3,200
Adjusted Labour Force, L <sup>x</sup> ('000)	1,600	1,800
Total Employment ('000)	246	346 <sup>+</sup>
Employment-Gap, ('000)	1,300	1,400

Notes L = .37P

$$L^x = \frac{1}{2}L(1.10)$$

+ Obtained by simply adding the employment target to the 1966 reported employment. No account is taken of possible retirements and laying off of labour.

If our assumptions are correct and if employment target is achieved, then one would conclude that the employment-gap in Uganda will increase by 100,000 persons. Of course as stated above, the employment-gap includes many Categories in it and its size alone need not cause concern unless its composition is known. What should cause concern is its growth over time for this would imply that sufficient job opportunities are not being created.

Kenya's Employment Target:

Kenya's Development Plan 1966-1970, aims at creating 600,000 additional jobs by 1970. If we assume that,

- (a) population growth of 3% per year
- (b) 35% of the population is in the labour force

- (c) Sex-distribution of the labour force is in the ration of 1:1.  
 (d) Only 10% of the women in the labour force would be willing to come up for paid employment,  
 then the following table gives Kenya's "employment-gap" 1966 and 1970.

Table 2. Kenya's Employment Gap.

	1966	1970
Population, P, (million)	9.6	10.8
Crude Labour Force, L, ('000)	3,360	3,780
Adjusted Labour Force, L <sup>x</sup> , ('000)	1,850	2,080
Total Employment ('000)	603	1,203
Employment-gap ('000)	1,247	880

Notes: L = .35P

$$L^x = \frac{1}{2}L(1.10)$$

If our assumptions are correct and if Kenya's employment target is achieved, then the employment gap will be reduced by 367,000 persons.

Tanzania's Employment Target:

Tanzania's Development Plan has a long range employment target aiming at creating 400,000 additional jobs by 1980. This implies an average annual increase in employment of about 26,667. By 1970, therefore, additional jobs created should amount to about 107,000.

If we assume that

- (a) Tanzanian population is growing at 2% per year,  
 (b) 37% of the population is in the labour force,  
 (c) Sex-distribution of the labour force is in the ratio of 1:1;  
 (d) Only 10% of the women in the labour force will be willing to seek paid employment

Then the following table gives Tanzania's "employment-gap" 1966 and 1970.

Table 3. Tanzania's Employment-Gap.

	1966	1970
Population, P, (million) <sup>x</sup>	10.4	11.2
Crude Labour Force, L, ('000)	3,850	4,100
Adjusted Labour Force, L <sup>x</sup> , ('000)	2,120	2,260
Total Employment ('000)	337	444
Employment-Gap ('000)	1,783	1,816

<sup>x</sup>These are old estimates. Preliminary results of the recent population census in Tanzania gives 1967 population as 12.3 million. Details are not yet available to make adjustment for this.

Again the above table indicates that if our assumptions are correct and if Tanzania's employment targets are achieved the employment gap will not be reduced but will grow by 33,000 by 1970.

Another Look at the Employment-Gap

A large and growing employment-gap is socially and politically unacceptable even if it is accompanied by rapid growth of the national income. It indicates the failure of the economy to absorb the increasing labour force and is in a way a crude measure of unemployment and underemployment that may be expected over time. However, the aggregate crude figures given above do not reflect the true situation even if the assumptions on which they are based were true. The main discrepancy arises from the fact that the figure given for total employment includes only reported wage-employment. To it we ought to add the following:-

- (i) Self-employed: This group includes owners of retail stores, and small shops; repair shops (e.g. watches, shoes, clothes), petty traders; managers and directors of companies and self-employed professional people (e.g. doctors, lawyers, accountants etc).
- (ii) Peasant farmers: which is a special group of the self-employed that produce both for the market and for subsistence.
- (iii) Employees of peasant farmers: In Uganda this group is probably very high as most of the peasant farmers do employ immigrant labour (especially from Ruanda) on their farms.
- (iv) Non-reported wage employment: The annual enumeration of employees is by no means complete in coverage and a great deal of employment goes unreported especially in the rural areas. In Kenya it was found that an extension of the survey to establishments in the rural areas added 42,000 employees to the reported employment! Also excluded in the official figures of Uganda and Tanzania are the domestic employees. The Uganda Labour Department estimated that there were about 30,000 domestic servants in Uganda in 1966.

If estimates of these four categories were available we would be in a better position to place some faith on East African employment statistics. Unfortunately at present a big gap still remains. So far only Kenya has made some attempts to estimate the four main groups excluded from labour statistics. With correct figures, we would be able to give realistic meaning to the employment-gap. It would simply be the difference between the projected labour force and reported employment and self-employed and would include:

- (a) the unemployed and the underemployed.
- (b) the subsistence farmers.

In Kenya these last two categories (the employment-gap) is estimated to reach 2.7 million by 1970 which is 43% of the projected labour force. These estimates differ from my estimates in table 2 because they include all the women in the labour force. In 1964 it is estimated to have been 2.4 million or 76% of the labour force. In either case, the available human resources are not being fully utilized for rapid economic development.

SECTORAL DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYMENT

It is important not only to know the aggregate employment situation but also its sectoral distribution because as the economy develops, structural changes take place leading to relative declines in some sectors and increases in others.

In East Africa, government is the largest single employer of labour. About one-third of reported employment in each of the three countries is in the public sector. Employment in the public sector is mainly concentrated in Administration, Construction, Transport and Communications and Services. In the private sector, agriculture has the largest number of employees followed by manufacturing sector and Service sector. Table 4 gives the distribution of employment by main sectors in 1966.

Table 4:  
Distribution of Employment by main sectors 1966

	('000)	% of Total employment
<u>Uganda:</u>		
Private Sector		
Agriculture	43.9	17.8
Manufacturing	32.3	13.1
Construction	9.0	3.7
Commerce	14.0	5.7
Transport and Communications	3.8	1.5
Services	34.1	13.9
Others	17.2	7.0
Public Sector	91.7	37.3
GRAND TOTAL	246.0	100.0
<u>Kenya:</u>		
Private Sector		
Agriculture	206.4	34.2
Manufacturing and Repairs	66.0	10.9
Commerce	52.4	8.7
Services (Including Domestic)	55.2	9.2
Transport and Communications	23.0	3.8
Others	14.9	2.5
Public Sector	185.2	30.7
GRAND TOTAL	603.1	100.0
<u>Tanzania:</u>		
Private Sector		
Agriculture	114.3	33.9
Manufacturing	28.4	8.4
Construction	13.3	4.0
Commerce	20.9	6.2
Transport and Communications	11.9	3.5
Services	25.0	7.4
Others	15.3	4.5
Public Sector	107.4	31.9
GRAND TOTAL	336.5	100.0



Agriculture is thus by far the largest sector in providing employment opportunities for wage-employment. Any substantial increase in employment must be expected to come from the agricultural sector. This fact tends to strengthen the belief that in East Africa, (or in most less developed countries for that matter) agriculture remains the leading sector through which development of the other sectors may depend. However, as the development process proceeds the relative contribution of agriculture to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) declines. This is a historical fact that has been observed in the present industrialized countries and is caused mainly by the increase in agricultural productivity <sup>which</sup> stimulates the growth of other sectors especially the manufacturing sector.

Thus in East Africa, the relative contribution of agriculture to the GDP is expected to fall in future while the relative contribution of manufacturing (including raw material processing) is expected to rise tremendously. Side by side with the manufacturing sector, the service sector is expected to increase rapidly. As has been pointed out above, employment in the service sector can be regarded as a direct function of the growth of the manufacturing sector. One would thus expect that overtime the manufacturing sector and the service sector will each increase while the agricultural sector will decline in its relative importance. Tables 5(a) 5(b) 5(c) give the planned (or expected) structural changes in the East African economies up to 1981.

Table 5(a). Expected Structural Changes in the Uganda's Economy, 1966-1981

	Per centage of GDP at 1960 prices		
	1966	1971	1981
Agriculture	37.8	34.3	27.2
Cotton Ginning and Coffee Curing	4.2	3.9	3.2
Forestry, Fishing and Hunting	1.6	1.5	1.3
Mining and Quarrying	2.8	2.8	2.5
Manufacture of food products	2.0	2.4	3.2
Miscellaneous manufacturing	5.7	7.3	11.6
Construction	2.8	3.4	4.3
Commerce	19.7	19.5	19.5
Transport & Communication	3.5	3.7	4.0
Central Government	3.3	3.4	3.6
Local Government	1.5	1.5	1.4
Education and Medical Services	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Miscellaneous Services	10.4	11.4	12.2

Source: Uganda: Second Five-Year Development Plan 1966 - 1971

Table 5(b). Expected Structural changes in Tanzania's Economy 1954-1980  
(monetary Sector)

	Percentage of GDP at 1960 prices			
	Average			
	1954	1960-1962	1970	1980
Crop Husbandry	34.7	30.3	27.8	22.4
Livestock	6.9	4.7	4.1	3.8
Fishing	1.5	1.0	0.8	0.5
Forest Products	0.1	0.9	0.6	0.6
Mining & Quarrying	5.5	4.2	2.9	2.0
Processing and Manufacturing	5.7	5.9	9.6	15.5
Public Utilities	-	1.0	1.4	1.6
Construction	6.6	5.0	7.1	7.3
Transport and Communication	6.7	7.0	6.6	6.5
Distribution	15.4	17.6	17.0	17.0
Rents and Royalties	4.1	6.4	6.6	6.1
Public Administration and Defence	8.8	10.1	9.7	9.9
Other Services	4.6	5.5	5.8	6.8

Source: Computed from Table I  
of Tanzania's Five-Year Plan 1964-1969.

Table 5(c). Expected Structural Changes in Kenya's Economy (monetary sector).

	1964	1970	Percent of	
	(£ million)	(Projected) at 1964 Prices £ m.	1964	1970
Fishing and Hunting	.87	2.95	0.3	0.7
Construction	4.38	12.00	1.6	3.0
Forestry	.92	1.65	0.3	0.4
Mining and Quarrying	.75	1.20	0.3	0.3
Banking, Insurance and real estate	4.49	7.10	1.6	1.7
Manufacturing	29.38	46.60	10.4	11.5
Other Services	18.30	28.20	6.5	7.0
Transport, Storage and Communication	26.30	39.50	9.4	9.8
General Government	34.11	51.20	12.1	12.6
Agriculture	36.72	54.50	13.1	13.5
Electricity and Water	3.47	5.10	1.2	1.3
Wholesale and retail trade	34.06	48.30	12.1	11.9
Livestock	9.50	11.75	3.4	2.9
Rent (including ownership of dwellings)	9.54	11.70	3.4	2.9
T O T A L	212.79	321.85		

Rates of Growth of Employment and Rates of Growth of Output:

In all the three East African Countries, output is expected to grow faster than employment in each sector. This implies rapid increases in labour productivity. To the extent that this remains the case, measures to increase employment must be sought elsewhere and should not be based on planned increases in the output of each sector. With rapid increases in labour productivity output may increase with declines in employment.

If we denote rate of growth of output by  $r_y$  and rate of growth of employment by  $r_n$  then  $\frac{r_y}{r_n} > 1$  implies an increase in productivity of labour while

its reciprocal  $\frac{r_n}{r_y}$  measures the elasticity of demand for labour with respect to changes in output.  $\frac{r_n}{r_y} = \frac{\frac{\Delta N}{N}}{\frac{\Delta Y}{Y}} = \frac{\Delta N}{\Delta Y} \cdot \frac{Y}{N}$  where

N is employment and Y is output.

Tables 6(a), 6(b) and 6(c) show the implied increases in productivity in selected sectors of the economies.

Table 6(a).

Uganda: Employment, Output and Productivity in the Monetary Sector.

	Employment			Output		Implied increase in productivity $\frac{r_y}{r_n}$
	1966 forecast ('000)	1971 target ('000)	Implied annual rate of growth $r_n$	1971 target at 1960 prices (£ mil)	Planned annual rate of growth $r_y$	
Agriculture	57	95	11.0	95.9	5.1	.46
Crop processing	24	28	3.0	10.9	5.6	1.87
Other manufacture	23	36	9.0	20.5	12.6	1.40
Minerals and Mining	7	8	3.0	7.7	6.6	2.20
Construction	30	42	7.0	9.4	11.3	1.61
Transport and Communication	10	13	5.0	10.3	8.5	1.70
Electricity	2	2	0.0	n.a	n.a	-
Commerce	23	28	5.0	54.6	7.0	1.40
Central Government	17	42	5.0	9.6	8.2	1.64
Local Government	29	34	3.0	4.2	7.0	2.33
Miscellaneous Service	42	52	4.0	31.8	9.3	2.33
Domestic Servants	21	23	2.0	n.a	n.a	-
<b>T O T A L</b>	<b>285</b>	<b>383</b>	<b>6.0</b>			

Table 6(b).

Kenya: Employment, Output and Productivity in the Monetary Sector.

	Employment	Output <sub>6</sub>	Implied
	Planned annual rate of growth $r_n$	Planned annual rate of growth $r_y$	changes in productivity $\frac{r_y}{r_n}$
Fishing and Hunting	20.0 <sup>x</sup>	22.6	1.13
Construction	12.7	18.3	1.44
Forestry	n.a.	10.2	-
Mining and Quarrying	5.0	8.2	1.64
Banking, Insurance and real estate	6.0	8.0	1.33
Manufacturing	5.0	8.0	1.60
Other Services	6.2	7.5	1.21
Transport, Storage and communication	2.0	7.0	3.50
General Government	5.0	7.0	1.40
Agriculture	6.9	6.8	0.99
Electricity and Water	3.3	6.7	2.03
Wholesale and retail trade	4.0	6.0	1.50
Livestock	n.a.	3.5	-
Rent	n.a.	3.5	-

<sup>x</sup> Rough estimate

Table 6(c).

Tanzania: Employment, Output and Productivity in the monetary Sector.

	Employment			Output		Implied changes in productivity $\frac{r_y}{r_n}$
	1966 ('000)	1969 projected ('000)	Planned annual rate of growth $r_n$	1970 target (£ m)	Planned annual rate of growth $r_y$	
Crop Husbandry	114.3	187.6	4.1	72.2	7.5	1.83
Livestock	n.a	n.a	-	10.6	6.8	-
Forest Products	n.a	n.a	-	2.1	4.3	-
Fishing	n.a	n.a	-	1.6	5.5	-
Mining and Quarrying	5.9	8.5	1.9	7.5	4.7	2.47
Processing and Manufacturing	28.5	41.3	13.2	25.0	14.8	1.12
Public Utilities	2.1	2.8	10.2	3.7	12.3	1.21
Construction	13.3	19.7	11.3	18.5	12.7	1.12
Transport and Communications	11.9	12.5	6.1	17.2	7.8	1.28
Distribution	20.9	22.3	5.2	44.2	8.0	1.54
Rents and Royalties	n.a	n.a	n.a	17.0	8.7	-
Public Administration and Defence	114.5	126.5	4.0	25.2	7.9	1.98
Other Services	25.0	34.2	7.6	15.0	9.0	1.18

Conclusion:

Employment targets in East African development plans are based on very inadequate information about the labour force and its expected rate of growth. Moreover, except in Kenya, there is no satisfactory analysis of how the targets will ever be achieved and what measures the government will take to meet these targets. Crude estimates of the labour force tend to suggest that even if the targets are achieved, the employment-gap will not be narrowed in Tanzania and Uganda i.e. the number of the unemployed and underemployed will continue to grow.

Sectoral distribution of employment shows that agriculture is the largest sector in providing jobs. However the plans envisage structural changes in the economy will lead to a decline in relative contribution of agriculture to G.D.P. and an increase in the non-agricultural sector especially manufacturing and services.

In almost all sectors, the planned rates of growth of output exceed planned rates of growth of employment. This implies an increase in labour productivity. To the extent that this remains the case, additional measures must be sought to increase employment e.g. settlement schemes, youth service programmes, government public work, self-help schemes, small scale industries etc.

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APPENDIX

UGANDA: Employment by Industry ('000)

	1957	1958 <sup>x</sup>	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966
Agriculture	46.2	48.2	46.7	50.1	45.4	48.6	47.7	48.5	47.4	49.9
Cotton Ginning	6.6	4.5	4.5	4.6	3.9	3.0	3.6	3.9	4.5	5.4
Coffee Curing	1.6	1.6	1.9	2.9	2.6	3.1	3.1	3.4	3.4	4.8
Forestry, Fishing and Hunting	3.5	4.1	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.6	3.0	3.5	3.6	3.0
Mining and Quarrying	5.8	4.2	5.5	5.7	6.1	5.5	5.2	5.1	6.4	6.5
Manufacture of food Products	8.3	7.7	7.8	8.4	8.7	8.4	8.2	10.1	8.9	9.5
Miscellaneous Manufacturing	19.6	20.3	19.4	19.1	19.9	18.9	19.1	18.3	20.8	23.1
Construction	36.9	38.5	33.6	30.7	29.8	29.8	26.7	24.9	32.5	29.2
Commerce	12.4	13.8	13.7	14.7	14.9	14.0	13.1	13.0	12.5	14.2
Transport & Communication	11.2	11.3	10.5	11.1	10.6	9.8	10.3	9.5	10.2	9.8
Government (Administration and Miscellaneous)	14.3	15.5	15.9	15.8	15.4	16.5	14.1	16.0	14.5	15.4
Local Government	39.0	36.0	38.4	34.6	32.1	28.5	26.2	29.1	25.0	20.3
Education and Medical Services	22.1	20.7	23.4	27.3	28.9	27.2	27.6	27.1	40.6	41.3
Miscellaneous Services	13.1	16.5	14.5	15.9	13.9	14.0	13.7	12.5	11.1	13.8
T O T A L	240.6	243.0	239.5	244.5	236.1	230.8	221.6	224.9	241.7	246.0

Source: Statistical Abstract

Note (i) Figure may not add up to totals due to rounding.

<sup>x</sup>From 1958 onwards, establishments employing less than 5 persons were included.



APPENDIX

KENYA: Reported Employment 1957-1966 ('000)

	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964 <sup>x</sup>	1965	1966
Private Sector												
Agric. & Forestry	247.9	235.2	253.4	249.5	251.7	271.8	252.0	245.5	219.7	208.7	204.6	206.4
Mining and Quarrying	7.7	9.0	7.9	6.4	5.4	5.0	3.8	3.5	3.1	2.3	2.3	2.4
Manufactures and Repairs	55.2	55.4	57.0	55.6	53.7	52.3	42.6	45.3	40.7	62.4	66.4	66.0
Building and Construction	25.4	29.5	24.2	20.9	18.9	21.1	17.9	12.6	8.6	8.8	9.0	9.8
Electric Light, Power & Water Supply	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.1	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.7
Commerce	35.7	35.8	36.7	36.4	37.4	39.1	43.1	42.8	42.0	56.2	52.4	52.4
Transport and Communications	14.3	13.9	15.7	14.0	14.2	14.8	14.5	16.0	16.7	18.0	19.5	23.0
Other Services (Including Domestic)	51.1	47.6	50.0	50.2	52.9	54.2	46.4	45.0	42.8	58.1	54.5	55.2
TOTAL	439.5	428.3	477.4	435.5	436.8	460.8	422.8	412.8	376.0	417.0	411.2	417.9
Public Sector												
E.A.R. & H.	34.5	33.9	33.7	29.3	27.0	26.0	25.0	25.7	24.1	23.3	24.3	25.3
Other	141.1	134.1	133.3	128.4	133.1	135.4	142.0	141.3	133.2	151.7	155.3	159.9
Total	175.6	168.0	167.0	157.7	160.1	161.4	167.0	167.0	157.3	174.7	179.6	185.2
TOTAL	615.1	596.7	614.4	593.2	596.9	622.2	589.8	579.8	533.3	591.7	590.8	603.1

Source Stat Abstract

<sup>x</sup> After 1964 the coverage greatly improved as a result of survey of establishments in the rural areas.

APPENDIX

TANZANIA: Employment by Sector

('000)

	1963	1964	1965	1966
Agriculture	165.5	163.6	139.2	126.2
Mining and Quarrying	7.4	7.8	7.2	6.2
Manufacturing	22.2	23.6	25.7	29.6
Construction	28.3	33.4	31.4	37.5
Public Utilities	3.9	4.6	4.7	5.3
Commerce	16.5	17.3	17.8	20.9
Transport and Communications	24.4	25.7	26.4	27.6
Services	72.2	74.9	81.2	82.9
T O T A L	340.3	351.3	333.8	336.5

Source: Tanzania "Background to the Budget 1967 - 68.

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