The British Agrarian policy in Tanganyika (Tanzania today) under the governorship of sir Horace Byatt (1919-1924)

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Abstract:

This study attempts to analyze the British agrarian policy in Tanganyika territory (Tanzania today) under British mandate with special reference to the first governor of the territory Sir Horace Byatt (1919 – 1924) who was neglected by historians.

However, Tanganyika became under British Mandate after the partition of German colonies in Africa between Britain , France and Belgium and approved by the League of Nations.

Furthermore, this study attempts to assess the British agrarian policy pursued by the British Authorities in Tanganyika. It first of all , makes a comparison between Tanganyika, Kenya and Algeria, and then tries to compare African and non-African agriculture. It seeks to explain the relation between the governor Sir Horace Byatt and the settlers and the relation with Africans . What was British policy in the fields of land policy and labour supply ?

الملخص:

يتناول موضوع هذا البحث السياسة الزراعية البريطانية بتنجانيقا (تنزانيا حاليا) في ظل الانتداب البريطاني في فترة حكم الحاكم العام الأول على هذا الجزء من شرق إفريقيا ، إذ يتعلق الأمر بالسير هوراس بيات (1919– 1924) الذي وقع إجحاف في حقه من قبل المؤرخين الذين لم يخصصوا له دراسات وافية. والجدير بالذكر أن تنجانيقا أصبحت تحت الانتداب البريطاني بموجب تقسيم المستعمرات الألمانية في إفريقيا بين بريطانيا ، فرنسا وبلجيكا باستخدام نظام الانتداب الذي أقرته عصبة الأمم . ومن هذا

المنطلق ، سنحلل تحليلا دقيقا السياسة الزراعية البريطانية في هذا الجزء من إفريقيا ، وسنرى كيف أن هذه السياسة اختلفت عن كينيا أو الجزائر في شمال إفريقيا مثلا ، باعتبارهما كانتا تخضعان لاستعمار مباشر واستيطاني . كما سنحاول من خلال هذا البحث الإجابة عن بعض التساؤلات لتسليط الضوء عل بعض الحقائق التاريخية . وعليه ، لماذا لم يسيطر الكولون على الحياة الاقتصادية بصفة عامة والزراعة بصفة خاصة? وهل تجاوب الحاكم العام السير هوراس بيات مع لجنة الانتداب الدائمة لعصبة الأمم التي دعت إلى احترام عادات وتقاليد الأهالي الأفارقة وحقهم في ملكية الراضي ؟ ولماذا لم يرضخ الحاكم العام بيات لضغوطات المستوطنين الأوربيين أو الكولون في مسألة ملكية الأراضي ؟ وهل كان نظام الانتداب المطبق على تنجانيقا منطلقا لاسترجاع السيادة في هذا الجزء من شرق إفريقيا ؟ وختمنا بحثنا هذا بخاتمة استخلصنا من خلالها أهم النتائج التي توصلنا إليها.

Introduction:

Tanganyika's physical features are characterised by sharp contrast, ranging from the coastal region, a strip about ten to forty miles wide with its low, flat land and tropical climate, to the central plateau which constitutes the greater portion of the hinterland, with its hot, dry climate and many rivers draining away into the Indian ocean. Then there are the great lakes of the interior, Tanganyika and Malawi, and the snow covered mountains Kilimanjaro and Meru which are characterised by the healthiest climate in the territory.

Because of its variable climate, the lack of adequate water – supplies, the infestation of huge areas by the tsetse fly and the inaccessibility of many regions to transport, about two – thirds of the territory's population lived in one – tenth of the total area and nearly two – thirds of the country was practically uninhabited. (1)

 $^{^{(1)}\}text{-}$ (PRO . CO . 691/69 . Despatches, Tanganyika territory . Vol 1 , (Jan – March) 1924.

The population of the territory according to the census of 1921 consisted of 2,447 Europeans of whom 1,589 were British subjects, 14,991 Asiatics of whom 9,411were Indians, and 4,107,000 Africans.

However, The Europeans were composed of officials, planters, merchants and employers of business firms and estates, while Indians and Goans found occupation as shop – keepers, clerks and artisans as well as agriculturalists. $^{(2)}$

It should be noted that the First World War (1914 - 1918) acted as direct cause of the decline in population having caused famine, influenza epidemic and the loss of large numbers in military campaigning. The expulsion of the Germans came as a further result of the world war.

The lack of research concerning the subject was the main motive behind my intention to write this article. It is a case study which attempts to assess the agrarian policy pursued by the British in Tanganyika during the governorship of Sir Horace Byatt (1919 – 1924), which was neglected by historians. This study casts some light on the following questions: What was British policy in relation to land policy? How did the British deal with the question of labour supply? Did cash crop growing influence the social structure of the Africans in general and the Chagga tribe in particular? This study also seeks to explain the relation between the Tanganyikan government and the settlers and the relation with Africans?

1- Land policy

Between 1918 and the enactment of the land ordinance of 1923, the alienation of the land to non- Africans was in the form of yearly licenses for the growing of annual crops such as cotton. This period was also spent in the investigation of German records and all relevant information was

⁽²⁾⁻ Ibid.

collected so that when legislation was drafted, it was based on a real understanding of the situation in Tanganyika.⁽¹⁾

In 1923, the land tenure ordinance was enacted and was based on the Northern Nigerian ordinance of 1907. The land legislation of Northern Nigeria insisted on taking into consideration African laws and customs as well as safeguarding the interests of the African population in the framing of laws relating to the holding or transfer of land. Moreover, no rights could be created in favour of non – Africans without the previous consent of the public authorities.⁽²⁾

The land ordinance of 1923 began by declaring that the existing customary rights of the Africans to use and enjoy the land in sufficient quantity to enable them to provide for the sustenance of themselves, their families and their posterity, should be assured, protected and preserved. The whole of the lands of the territory, whether occupied or unoccupied were than declared to be public land, although this did not affect the validity of any title to land or any interest which had been lawfully obtained before the enactment of the ordinance. (3)

It could be said that this latter regulation, was intended to protect non

– African titles granted by the German government, but it was also applicable to land held by Africans under customary title.

Under the ordinance, all public lands and all rights over them were declared to be under the control and subject to the disposition of the governor, to be held for the use and common benefit, direct or indirect, of

⁽¹⁾⁻ Ingham, Kenneth. A History of East Africa. Longmans, London, 1965. P 354.

⁽²⁾- Meek, C.K. Land Laws and customs in the colonies. Second edition, Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1949 p 102.

^{(3)- (}PRO . CO 735/1. Acts, ordinance. 1919-1939 Land tenure ordinance of 1923).

the Africans of the territory, and no title to the occupation and use of any such lands would be valid without the consent of the governor. (4)

However, the governor, in the exercise of these powers over land, had to have regard to African laws and customs existing in the district in which the land was situated . The ordinance empowered the governor to grant rights of occupancy both to Africans and non – Africans for terms not exceeding ninety – nine years to demand a rental , and to revise the rental at intervals of not more than thirty – three years .

Under the ordinance, it was also laid down that, except with the approval of the secretary of state, no single right of occupancy should be granted to a non – African in respect of an area exceeding 5,000 acres . Finally, under the land regulations it was declared to be unlawful for any occupier to alienate his right of occupancy by sale, mortgage charge , transfer , sub – lease or otherwise without the consent of the governor . But this regulation did not apply to transfers between Africans. (1) It is worth mentioning that under the land ordinance freehold was not granted , and the method of obtaining land was by way of lease , in the form right of occupancy for a period which might not exceed ninety – nine years . However , the system produced much criticism from settlers and there was a demand that land alienation policy should be based on freehold .

This land policy aimed to protect African interests in fulfillment of the Mandate , but the governor , Sir Horace Byatt , did not escape from settler critics who described him as $\mathbf{pro} - \mathbf{African}$.

It could be said that this land policy, compared with the German one especially up to 1907, was much better in safeguarding African rights. Thus, during the German period, the land was absolutely at the mercy of

⁽⁴⁾⁻ Ibid.

⁽¹⁾⁻ Meek, C.K. op.cit. p102.

⁽²⁾⁻ The Times . December 4, 1923.

the companies to whom the government recklessly granted huge concessions and who gave no rights to Africans. This policy proved destructive and disastrous, resulting as it did in frequent fierce African revolts. Meanwhile, in 1895 a land ordinance was promulgated in which all land was declared to be « crown land » subject to the right of private or jurist persons or of the chiefs and African communities after 1907, Dr Durnburg, the colonial secretary energetically promoted a land policy in favour of African ownership and production, which resulted in the land laws of 1907 prohibiting the sale of any land to a white settler that was already occupied by an African. (3)

During the British period there was competition between Africans and settlers for land. However the Tanganyika government with the 1923 ordinance settled the dispute over land. It also stipulated that in taking possession of public land near African communities areas should be preserved for them to take account of future growth in population. moreover, all these reserves were delimited.

2 – Labour supply:

During the first World war which caused the German plantations to shut down, labour became disorganized and undisciplined. Moreover, the government made no provisions for labour inspection, and established little control over recruiting.

Child labour existed on the European coffee estates in Tanganyika both during the German period and when the British took over in 1919. However, the work of these children usually consisted in the collection of insect pests and picking, and as the work was not heavy and was in the open air, employers did not believe that it was physically harmful.

⁽³⁾⁻ Report on Tanganyika Territory covering the Period from the conclusion of the Armistice to the end of 1920. HMSO, London, 1921.

Meanwhile, administrative officers in 1920 attempted to make regulations prohibiting the employment of such children. But these regulations did not have the force of law, and European settlers refused to take them into consideration.⁽¹⁾

According to article 5 of the Mandate, the slave trade had to be abolished and all forms of forced labour, except for essential public works and services, was prohibited. Article 5 also insisted on the protection of the Africans from abuse and measures of fraud and force by the carful supervision of labour contracts and the recruiting of labour.

In 1922, slavery was abolished by the enactment of the involuntary servitude (abolition) ordinance. The administration had already fixed rates of pay for its own unskilled employees, rates which were based on the results of enquiries carried out by a commission appointed for the purpose. However, unskilled labour was sometimes paid a daily wage which varied from 55 cents to one shilling according to locality. The monthly rate was from 6 shilling to 40 shilling. For skilled labour, the wage ranged from 25s to 150s per month. This was followed afterwards by the appointment of a permanent labour board to deal with questions of rates of pay for government labourers throughout the territory, since it was seen that there would be a frequent need to revise the rates fixed earlier in the year.

Next, in 1923, a Masters and Servants Ordinance was promulgated which required labour agents to secure a permit from the administrative officer in the district concerned to recruit labour, contracts for work at a distance had to be made in writing and attested by a magistrate or administrative officer.

⁽¹⁾- Buell, R. Leslie. The native problem in Africa. vol.1. the Macmillan Company, New York, 1928. P 499.

⁽²⁾⁻ Samler Brown and Gordon Brown (eds). The south and East African Year Book with Atlas.35th edition, Sampson Low, Marston and co, London, 1929. p 663.

However, the period of work outside the home district was not to exceed six months. The cost of recruiting and transport from a distant area made it necessary for the period of

absence to be extended to one year . Recruiting was carried out under licence issued usually for one district only . Meanwhile, the employer was obliged to provide food , housing and medical care for his employees as defined by government regulations . Compensation , not to exceed the amount of two years wages , had to be paid for accidents unless caused by negligence . A contract for service to be performed outside the district in which the the servant was engaged should not be forced on him unless it was in writing and attested by an official certifying that the employee understood that he was liable to criminal prosecutions in case of breaching the contract . Moreover, no contract should be attested unless it accurately specified the terms of employment. (1)

Under the Ordinance, punishment might be carried out by order of court only, whereas under German law officials were authorized in certain cases to exercise powers of correction at a request of an employer without previous proceedings in court. During this period, the numbers of labourers on European plantations was estimated as follows:

Labourers in the European plantations by 1924:(2)

Contracted labourers, outside of their own district	9,155
Non – contract labourers, outside of their own district	25,700
Labourers employed in their own District	. 92,500
Total	.127,355

The government's concern for the welfare of labourers resulted in

⁽¹⁾⁻ C.O. 735/1. Masters and Servants Ordinance of 1923.

⁽²⁾⁻ Buell, R, op. cit. p 505.

the appointment in 1924 of a provincial commissioner, major G.S Orde Brown, to act as temporary labour commissioner with the task of investigating and reporting on the country's labour problems. In appointing Orde Brown, Tanganyika took a step which placed the territory in a leading position with regard to the regulation of labour.

It is worth noting that under these regulations adequate amounts of labour were recruited, and public works labour, although compulsory, was paid. Thus, it attracted more African labourers.⁽³⁾

Meanwhile, as the rights of Africans were secured, labour became plentiful except in some areas such as the Rufiji, Lindi and along the Tanga and central railway. Where sisal was grown labour was in short supply owing to the nature of the work which was unpopular as cuts and injuries were sustained in the cutting of the leaves.

<u>3 – African Agriculture :</u>

The principal occupation of the Africans throughout the territory, as indeed throughout Africa, was the cultivation of the soil. In addition to the food crops grown everywhere, efforts had been made for many years to encourage Africans to grow cash crops such as cotton and groundnuts.

In the early days of the civil administration of the territory, African agriculture was disorganized by the lack of good seed and the absence of markets. furthermore, the fertile districts of Northern Tabora and Southern Mwanza were remote from the railway, while the roads had to be rebuilt. (1)

Progress in African agriculture was largely due to the provision of seed as well as experimentation in new and improved varieties, and to agricultural propaganda conducted through the medium of administrative and agricultural officers and a staff of trained African instructors.

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^{(3)&}lt;sub>-</sub> Ibid

⁽¹⁾- Report on Tanganyika territory HMSO, 1921.

It is worth mentioning that African agricultural instructors were trained at a school at Mpapwa which was conducted by the department of agriculture in cooperation with the education department. These instructors showed the Africans the best methods of cultivation. (2)

Moreover, through a monthly journal, Mambo Leo, published in Swahili, and through various circulars, the department of agriculture gave the Africans information in simple terms. In Tabora and Mwanza district, Africans were instructed in the use of ploughs and in the training of oxen for ploughing. An example of the success of this policy was in Shinyanga where Africans ploughed about five hundred acres of land. (3)

The introduction of modern technological means of production (e.g ploughing), in contrast to the traditional ones used by Africans peasants, resulted in significant increases in yield and production. The improvement in African agricultural production was due to the special encouragement given by the governor, Sir Horace Byatt, to the Africans for growing cash crops. Moreover, Sir Horace claimed several times that the future of the territory depended mainly on African production. (4)

African agricultural exports comprised oil seeds, such as groundnuts and simsim, and grain. Although the groundnut was a crop whose cultivation was simple and more firmly established, the government did not give this crop so much attention as coffee or sisal. Thus, coffee and sisal were the most suitable crops to raise revenue. Africans also grew approximately three quarters of the cotton crop and were responsible for the same proportion of coffee. (1)

⁽²⁾⁻ Ingham, K. op, cit, p 331.

⁽³⁾⁻ Buell, R, L. op. cit. pp 473-474.

⁽⁴⁾⁻Ibid p 474

⁽¹⁾⁻ PRO. CO 736/1 Sessional papers. Tanganyika Official Gazette. 1922, 1923 and 1924.

It is worth noting that the department of agriculture and some district officers encouraged Africans to grow coffee . For instance , while searching through captured German records in 1916 , Sir Charles Dundas noticed a reference to coffee grown by some of the Chagga tribes on the slopes of mount Kilimanjaro . Thus , when he became administrative officer in the Kilimanjaro region after the war , the idea recurred in his mind and he encouraged the former growers to prune and tend their bushes in order to obtain a better quality . he also induced larger numbers to grow the crop . Thus , at Dundas' instigation a union of Chagga growers was founded in 1924 with the title of **« The Kilimanjaro native planters Association »** to care for their interests. (2)

In 1923 , with encouragement from British officials and agriculturalists , 300,000 seedlings were planted by Africans . However , Kilimanjaro was not the only region in which Africans were able to grow coffee , and in the Bukoba district , robusta coffee was being grown successfully .

Between 1922 and 1925 the settlers saw Africans as competitors and tried to prevent planting as in Kenya. They failed because African cultivation was too successful to be stopped and was supported by influential British administrators such as Dundas. (3)

In the 1920's the British followed inconsistent policies in East and Central Africa. They were torn between a 'West African solution 'and a 'South African solution '. A West African solution meant economies largely dependent on peasant production. Thus, government investment was generally limited to government – building infrastructure like roads, railroads and port works. Private investment was largely by commercial

⁽²⁾- Sayers, G.F. Handbook of Tanganyika Territory, London, 1930. pp 203-204.

⁽³⁾⁻ Ingham, K. op, cit, pp 331-332.

firms dominating the export of the final product and the import of European goods. This West African pattern grew partly from the fact that Europeans had been trading in West Africa for centuries in goods that the Africans produced and delivered to them for export.

'The South African solution' meant that political power had to be in the hands of settlers, and in the end the British allowed Kenya and Southern Rhodesia to be dominated by settlers. Thus, in Kenya decisive government intervention favoured the European planter class. large tract of the best land were taken from the Africans and reserved for European management and ownership. The result was the « white highlands « , by which some 16,000 square miles were reserved for cultivation by European managers on long leases.

It was the government intention that European – managed farms should produce most of the export crops, white smaller farms and less heavily capitalized African farms would produce food for local consumption. Certain crops, like coffee were reserved by law to farms under European ownership.

In the end they allowed Kenya to be dominated by settlers, While Uganda and Nyasaland became largely peasant economies. Northern Rhodesia was organised around its copper mines, While Tanganyika maintained the balance between peasant, settlers and plantations inherited from the Germans. They policy of the Tanganyika government, unlike the policy of Kenya, was controlled by Article 22 of the treaty of Versailles which says that:

« These territories are inhabited by people not yet able to stand by themselves under the strenuous conditions of the modern world . there

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⁽¹⁾- Iliffe, John. Tanganyika under German rule. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1969 .pp 201-210.

should be applied the principal that the well – being and development of such peoples form a sacred trust of civilisation ... » And , by the Tanganyika Mandate (Article 3) which said the mandatory : « Shall undertake to promote to the utmost the material and moral well _ being and the social progress of its inhabitants » (2)

There fore the policy of the mandatory government was not to be directed primarily to the economic development of the territory for the benefit of Europeans but to the development of the African population . Moreover , the governor of Tanganyika was reported to have declared on several occasions that the future of the territory lay in developing African cultivation only.⁽³⁾

Vigourous protests against the government policy of African coffee – growing came from the settlers in the Kilimanjaro region , who urged that African coffee growers would not care properly for their plants which would consequently infect European estates . They urged the adoption of the policy followed in Kenya which meant the prohibition of African coffee growing areas.

Believing that their interest would be better served if they belonged to Kenya colony, a group of farmers in the district passed a resolution in 1923 asking that Kilimanjaro should be transferred from Tanganyika to Kenya.

In their opposition to African coffee – growing, the special committee of the Kilimanjaro planters Association appealed to the Kenya coffee planters union, saying that the Tanganyika government was pushing African coffee to such an extent that everything else, at least in the Moshi

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^{(2)- (}British Mandate for East Africa, 1922)

⁽³⁾⁻ Byatt, Sir Horace. <u>In Journal of the Royal African Society</u>, XXIV, (1924), pp 1-5.

district, was taking second place, particularly European industry. In replay, the council of the Kenya union passed a resolution supporting the views of the Tanganyika Association in which it declared that there was a direct danger to the coffee industry in Kenya from the policy of the Tanganyika government in regard to the coffee growing.

The settlers were also more than a little anxious about the future of their labour supply. Even Byatt himself had stated late as November 1923 that in his view coffee, with the exception of the Robusta variety, was essentially a European – grown crop; but he supported Dundas loyally when he saw the success which the latter had achieved. Byatt's opposition was not based on the lack of available land, but because he thought large – scale farming was impossible without sufficient capital.

Disappointed by the government's policy, some of the European planters began briefly to flirt with the idea of transferring the Kilimanjaro region to Kenya, But Byatt's departure from Tanganyika in April 1924 enabled them to retreat.

Up to 1924, it was estimated that African exports amounted to 51% of the total exports of the territory. It should be noted that some Africans benefited from cash – crop production and from the sale of forest products such as wax.⁽²⁾

A good example were the chagga in the Kilimanjaro and Bukoba regions whose income from coffee exceeded 100, 000 pounds. Meanwhile, others, especially those who were growing indigenous crops, benefited less.

It is worth noting that some Africans, such as the Chagga and the inhabitants of Bukoba, grew cash – crops in place of food crops as they benefited from such growing but others, such Africans of Mwanza, grew,

⁽¹⁾⁻ Coulson, Andrew. Tanganyika, a political economy. Oxford University Press, Oxford 1982.p 47.

cash – crops at the same time as growing food crops. The prices of such crops remained high till the 1930's when the world experienced the economic depression.

Finally, it could be said that the direction of British policy towards some form of African development was at least partially a response to the league covenant's definition of colonial subjects as « people not yet able to stand by themselves under the strenuous conditions of the modern world». (1)

C – Non – African agriculture:

Non – African agriculture was retarded by the war, and for the best part of four or five years most of the plantations received only the minimum attention while others went to ruin. The properties of the Germans who were deported or interned were leased for short periods for the gathering of the crops, and though the conditions of the leases provided for upkeep and replanting, it was beyond human nature to expect that temporary tenants should evince the same enthusiasm for the welfare of the plantations as permanent occupants.

Until these estates were disposed of the production of sisal and coffee, the two principal crops was much below the pre –ar average, and even after the properties had been taken over by their purchasers, much time and money had to be expended in restoring them to full working order.

Non – African cultivation was mainly concerned with sisal in Tanga , Pangani , Dar es Salam , Morogoro and Lindi districts and was produced entirely by Europeans . Settlers on the slopes of mount Meru were planting more and more coffee , taking advantage of the link with the Kenya railway

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⁽¹⁾⁻ Listowel, Judith: The making of Tanganyika, Chatto and Windus, London, 1965. p 66

to Mombasa which had been constructed by British soldiers during the First world war. Coffee was also grown by non – Africans to a small extent in Rungwe district, with cotton in the Morogoro, Kilosa and Rufiji districts, to a large extent around Tanga and Dar es Salam and with tobacco and mixed farming in the highlands of the Iringa district. (2)

Estate agriculture in the southern highlands was largely experimental, and the main crops attempted were coffee and tea. Maize growing also provided a source of income. Non – African agriculture accounted for 49% of the total exports in 1924, owing largely to the great output of sisal. It also accounted for 37% of the cotton and 33% of the coffee. (3)

It should be noted that this period (1920-1924) was a period of boom in world prices. For instance, if we take an example of the price of sisal, it was selling at 32 pounds a ton. However, this prosperity was suddenly halted by the economic depression of the 1930's, when the price of sisal fell to 21 pounds a ton in 1930.

Conclusion:

It is worth mentioning That the Tanganyika government did not want the economy in general and agriculture in particular to be dominated by settlers and they gave equal opportunities to both Africans and settlers to grow and market their cash crops. That is why **Sir Horace Byatt** was described by the settlers as **pro-African**; if we take into consideration the land and labour policies, Byatt had alienated 25,759 acres of land to Europeans while returning 29,373 acres of former German holdings to

⁽²⁾- PRO C.O. 736/ 1. Sessional papers. Tanganyika Official Gazette. 1924.

⁽³⁾⁻ Ibid.

African occupation . This policy was a response to the league Mandate for Tanganyika territory. (1)

The British marketing policy was either to allow private agents to do this more or less uncontrolled, hoping that competition would ensure fair prices, or to persuade the farmers to market their crops themselves through cooperative marketing organizations, or to create its own bureaucracy, ie. A marketing board to purchase and subsequently resell the crops.

When Africans involved themselves in trading they needed some means of protection such as a cooperative which might be given a local monopoly for buying a certain product . In this they were supported by the authorities . In 1924 , it was Charles Dundas who made possible the registration of the Kilimanjaro Native Planters Association , the first cooperative organisation formed to market African produced coffee on Kilimanjaro . This cooperative negotiated better terms for the sale of its coffee to Europe and raised the growers incomes .

The forms in which commercial agriculture developed, differed from country to country in Africa. For instance, Kenya and Algeria export production was concentrated chiefly in the large capitalist farms owned by Europeans. Meanwhile in Tanganyika it concerned the semi-subsistence farming as well as cash crops of African peasants. The form of policy prosecuted by Sir Horace Byatt within the framework of the League of Nations Mandate differed significantly from that in a colony such as Kenya (in East Africa) or in Algeria (in North Africa), While the Kenyan and Algerian economies were completely dominated by settlers growing cash crops for the European market. African farmers in Tanganyika, such as the Chagga in Kilimanjaro, retained a substantial stake in the economy

⁽¹⁾- Chidzero, B.T.G. Tanganyika and International Trusteeship. Oxford University Press, London, 1961.p226.

alongside the European counterpart. This would have profound implications for socio-economic development in Tanganyika after 1924.

Finally, it should be noted that from 1919 to 1946 Tanganyika (present day Tanzania) was administered by Britain under a mandate from the League of Nations. The Mandate made it clear that the colony was to be administered in the interests of the material and moral well' being and the social progress of its inhabitants. But no time scale was laid down for the local population to take over, and the British acted as if independence was a long way off. After the second World War the country become a 'Trusteeship territory' of the United Nations. The Trusteeship Committee was more effective at prodding the British Than the Permanent Mandates Commission had been, and by this time the more far-sighted British officials recognized that independence was inevitable with only the timing in question.

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