

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

League of Nations Publications

II.B. ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL

1932

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Geneva, January 20th, 1932.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

ECONOMIC COMMITTEE

**REPORT TO THE COUNCIL
ON THE WORK OF THE THIRTY-SEVENTH SESSION**

Held at Geneva from January 14th to 19th, 1932.

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The following members of the Committee were present:

M. R. SCHÜLLER (<i>Chairman</i>).	M. L. GERARD (replacing M. van Langenhove).
M. W. STUCKI (<i>Vice-Chairman</i>).	M. N. ITO.
Sir Sydney CHAPMAN.	Mr. H. A. F. LINDSAY.
M. CURČIN (replacing M. Todorovič).	M. V. LUNDAVIK.
M. A. DI NOLA.	M. F. PEROUTKA.
M. F. DOLEZAL.	M. E. TRENDELENBURG (M. Imhoff replaced M. Trendelenburg for the first three days of the session).
M. P. ELBEL.	

The following were also present:

M. NECULCEA	} Corresponding Members.
M. de NICKL	

I. INFLUENCE OF THE FINANCIAL SITUATION ON THE REGIME OF INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGES.

As the Economic Committee pointed out in its last report to the Council in October last year, the economic depression which has prevailed for the last three years suddenly became more acute in July 1931.

Even before that date, international trade had had to cope with notorious difficulties. These, however, were relatively negligible compared with the countless barriers and obstacles which have suddenly risen in multiple forms during the last few months and which now weigh heavily on international trade—particularly in Europe—hampering international exchanges, sometimes to the extent of entirely arresting them, just when, in the interest of the whole world, it would be most necessary to increase them.

We have seen, under the pressure of circumstances, the appearance or reappearance in the economic sphere of a whole arsenal of restrictive measures—measures which have assumed the most varied forms: increased Customs duties, quotas, prohibitions, currency control, denunciation of commercial treaties, etc.

This last period of intensive struggle and acute depression is clearly distinguishable from those which preceded it; it is dominated, determined and explained almost entirely by those grave disorders which, since July 1931, have been a feature of the monetary and financial situation.

The situation has grown daily worse; one after another, nearly all the European countries have taken drastic measures *to restrict their imports as far as possible and increase their exports*.¹ Since all the countries are acting in the same way, the second of these measures, needless to say, is generally without effect. The first, on the contrary, proves only too successful, resulting in a wholesale falling off of commercial exchanges and hence a serious depression in economic life. The picture may appear different to those who view it from the standpoint of any single country. Considering it, however, from a *general* standpoint, the Committee is forced to the conclusion that the *general* result of *national* measures to cope with the effects of the crisis is almost inevitably to prolong and seriously to aggravate the latter.

The rapidity with which the restrictive measures recently applied by most countries succeed one another is explained as a necessary consequence, even in the case of those countries whose finances are soundest, by the anxiety to safeguard their production or correct their balance of payments. For this, only two methods are available: action in the sphere of financial obligations towards foreign countries (debts), or measures designed to influence foreign trade (imports and exports).

While feeling that the charges resulting from debts (particularly private debts) contracted during the last three or four years may still have something to do with the present price level (an Eastern and Central European farmer requires 150 kg. of wheat to pay off interest which he could pay off with 50 kg. when he contracted his debt), countries are none the less unreservedly applying the second of these methods.

All the measures taken by the different States in the matter of foreign exchange and the regulation of exchanges are directed in the last resort towards two main objectives: they are designed either to protect the national currency and the country's credit against any weakening which would mean a reduction of its gold and foreign currency stock, or, on the other hand, to protect national production against the dumping of cheap goods, that dumping being in its turn determined very largely by the monetary situation of other countries.

Financial disorders were naturally bound to affect in the first place the debtor countries, whose foreign payments are becoming heavier and increasingly difficult, to the extent of jeopardising their monetary stability. The majority of those countries are accordingly hastening to take measures which, simply from the standpoint of their financial administration, are perfectly comprehensible and justifiable: they are introducing control of foreign exchange and restricting their imports and are, for the same reason, endeavouring to increase their exports.

The double consequence of this state of affairs in the creditor countries is that the latter's exports are diminishing, whereas their imports would tend to increase if, to cope with this new situation, they, in their turn, did not take defensive measures. These countries find that their credits and exports are alike endangered.

Even when the reciprocal situation is not determined by a debtor-creditor relationship, but when, as in certain parts of Europe, a number of countries which have a considerable trade with one another simply take the same measures, with the object of safeguarding their monetary and financial situation, the general result is obviously to render those very measures ineffective to some extent and to reduce the volume of transactions to a very considerable extent.

The combined influence of the facts to which we have just directed attention brings about paradoxical situations, as a result of which the financial interests of the different countries are often utterly at variance with their economic interests.

Accordingly, the countries which are soundest financially and are in the position of creditors should, it would seem, be in favour of an increase in the exports of the debtor countries, that the latter may become possessed of the means necessary for them to meet their obligations. But since, on the other hand, countries whose currency and finances are sound are anxious at seeing their exports reduced as a result of the measures taken by the debtor countries, and feel some apprehension also as regards their own balance of payments, they too are setting up barriers against foreign imports.

¹ The Economic Committee has had before it a study prepared by the Secretariat contain a statement of all the measures recently taken in the various countries, which have resulted in a restriction of international trade (Documents E.757 and E.757(a)).

Once again these contradictory tendencies make themselves felt in the form of trade depression and hence economic depression.

In view of the importance which monetary and financial necessities have assumed since last summer as a factor in international trade, the Economic Committee is for the moment unable to formulate useful suggestions for trade policy until the necessary solutions have been found in the field of international settlements and suitable alleviations and adjustments have been effected to relieve the financial tension.

There is one essential conclusion, however, which has particular weight in present circumstances—namely, that the economic relations between the different countries are dominated, to an extent hitherto unknown, by the problem of international debts of all kinds, the burden of which debts has been increased conversely to the fall in prices. In theory a country cannot pay its debts otherwise than by exporting gold or obtaining fresh credits or exporting goods. The first means is precluded by the smallness of the reserves held by most of the debtor countries. Complete loss of confidence is paralysing the international operation of credit, so that until confidence is restored the export of goods is the only means whereby debtor countries can meet their engagements. These countries must therefore have a favourable trade balance, and the greater the volume of their debts the greater that favourable balance must be. Such a position would not be incompatible with the interests of the creditor countries; on the contrary, it would give them a guarantee for the payment of the debts due to them. But under the pressure of circumstances the extra-European and European creditor countries are following the general tendency to set up ever higher barriers to imports from abroad.

As already mentioned, the Economic Committee fully realises that these countries, too, are acting under the pressure of internal and external circumstances, the importance of which the individual Governments are alone capable of appreciating. It cannot help realising, however, that, so long as the paralysis of international credit continues, the extraordinary and exceptional conditions of the present time will place creditor countries in a serious dilemma: either they must lower barriers to imports from debtor countries or they must expect to see the prospects of recovering their debts correspondingly reduced.

The Economic Committee has, moreover, examined certain bilateral agreements of a special character (clearing) which are intended to lessen the unfavourable repercussions on the international exchange of goods caused by the regulation of dealings in foreign currencies.

The Economic Committee will continue its studies in collaboration with the Financial Committee.

* * *

The Economic Committee, struck by the extraordinarily strong and direct influence at present exercised on international trade by the difficulties of the financial and monetary system, expressed the desire to examine the situation jointly with the Financial Committee. An exchange of views between the two Committees took place, but the time available was too short to allow of any more than a rapid examination of the principal problems.

It was consequently agreed to ask a small group, made up of members of the Economic Committee and the Financial Committee, to consider the relationship between the present difficulties in connection with international indebtedness and international credit on the one hand and foreign trade and commercial policy on the other, and to submit to the Economic and Financial Committees the practical questions which arise in this connection.

II. ECONOMIC *RAPPROCHEMENTS* IN EUROPE.

The Economic Committee was requested, under the terms of a resolution of the Twelfth Assembly, to study, on the basis of the preparatory work carried out by the Secretariat and with due reference to the observations of Governments, the whole body of problems relating to “economic *rapprochements* in Europe”.

Several Governments have not yet forwarded their observations, which is quite comprehensible when one considers how absorbed Governments are in the daily effort to cope with difficulties of every kind resulting, for each one of them, from the spread of the economic depression.

Moreover, the Economic Committee feels very strongly that any study directed towards a better organisation of European economy must necessarily begin by an impartial examination of the present situation. This situation is of such an exceptional character that it would perhaps appear premature to contemplate any plans for the future before international trade has returned to rather more normal conditions. In this respect, the Committee is of the opinion that the considerations set forth in the first chapter of this report constitute a first contribution to the study of the problem of economic *rapprochements*.

* * *

In connection with the problem of economic *rapprochements*, and as a result of a resolution of the last Assembly relating to the role of the National Economic Councils in international economic collaboration, the Secretariat, under the direction of the Economic Committee, is pursuing an enquiry as to the composition, character and functions of these organisms in the different countries.

The results of this enquiry will be embodied in a publication which is now in course of preparation.

On the basis of this documentation, the Economic Committee proposes to examine whether,

and to what extent, the development of institutions of this kind, or similar institutions in the various countries, and their possible representation on the technical organisations of the League of Nations, would help to facilitate international collaboration in the economic sphere.

III. AGRICULTURE.

1. The Economic Committee noted with interest the resolutions adopted by the Conference held at Sofia from December 10th to 13th, 1931, by the representatives of Governments of Central and Eastern European agricultural countries. It was informed that those resolutions had been submitted to the Commission of Enquiry for European Union.

2. Approximately one year having elapsed since the second meeting of the *Sub-Committee of Agricultural Experts*, the Economic Committee desired to consult them as to the expediency of a further conference. The majority of the experts expressed the view that an agricultural meeting with a general agenda could not hope to achieve satisfactory results in the present circumstances, which are ill-adapted to practical schemes on international lines. They hope that a few months hence circumstances may be more favourable. The Committee will examine at its next session the expediency of convening a meeting.

3. The majority of the experts are of opinion that, in order to produce useful results, the meeting should concentrate on definite questions. Studies relating to international agreements which may concern the production of, and trade in, certain foodstuffs are receiving their particular attention. The importance of those points was also stressed by the Sofia Conference.

The Economic Committee felt, accordingly, that it was expedient to consider the setting up of special commissions of experts who would undertake a preliminary examination of the international situation in regard to certain specific products and the possibility of improved organisation.

The following chapter shows the products selected for the moment by the Economic Committee. As regards agriculture, *timber* and *hops* are the products selected. As regards *wheat* and *wine*, the Committee desires information concerning any international schemes already existing or in preparation, and has requested the Secretariat to keep in close touch with such questions.

The Economic Committee was represented at the last meeting of the *Committee of Inter-Co-operative Relations* convened by the International Labour Office in November 1931. It will be remembered that the World Economic Conference of 1927 drew attention to the importance of encouraging direct relations between co-operative producers' and consumers' societies, with the object, partly of effecting economies in the costs of distribution of agricultural products, and partly, thus, of reducing the retail price of such products to retail consumers, whose demands would thus be stimulated. The Committee of Inter-Co-operative Relations has been charged with the duty of studying this principle and of the various developments to which it gives rise in different countries. The Economic Committee considers that these enquiries are of considerable value in the interests of agricultural producers. It is of the opinion that satisfactory progress has already been made, and it will continue to watch with interest the results that may from time to time be obtained.

IV. EXAMINATION OF THE INTERNATIONAL SITUATION IN CERTAIN BRANCHES OF PRODUCTION.

A. COAL.

1. The Council will remember that, in 1929, the Economic Committee, having been asked to study the *problem of coal*, consulted experts familiar with all the important aspects of the problem—production, labour, commerce and consumption—and submitted a preliminary report (document C.150.1929.II.), which was followed by a joint consultation of employers' and workers' experts (September 30th to October 3rd, 1929).

The ideas expressed by the experts still showed too much divergency to make it possible to provide for and define any international action in such a complicated matter. Furthermore, the situation of the coal industry at that time seemed to be improving, and demand was tending to increase together with prices. Certain experts hoped that the coal crisis would find its principal remedy in itself, and they relied on the spontaneous efforts of self-defence which are aroused by any economic crisis and only take effect by degrees.

This improvement, which was very definite in 1929, has unfortunately not continued. The discrepancy between the production and consumption of coal has since then been aggravated despite the very considerable reduction in the extraction of coal in the majority of countries. Consumption is diminishing more rapidly than production, and this decline cannot be kept pace with. Markets are more congested than ever, and all are affected simultaneously. Stocks are accumulating. Chaotic price-cutting by producers, being powerless to stimulate demand, simply increases the losses of the different undertakings. This has been accentuated by the recent monetary fluctuations and by the protectionist or restrictive measures which are being multiplied in both producing and importing countries. Finally, unemployment is severely affecting the mining districts.¹

¹ This situation is described in detail in document C.72.M.37.1932.II.B. (This document is now in preparation.)

In these circumstances, the Economic Committee considered that it should resume its enquiry with regard to coal without delay.

It found that the aggravation of the crisis had stimulated the movement of organisation among the coal-mines—a fact which made the resumption of its enquiry still more opportune. In countries with a large output, steps had been taken to organise the national industry. Certain international agreements had been concluded by the mine-owners, while others were being negotiated. Lastly, on June 18th, 1931, the International Labour Conference adopted an international convention regulating the duration of labour in the mines.

Thus it was that the Economic Committee decided to organise a fresh consultation of experts, originally planned for October 22nd, 1931, but postponed to January 11th, 1932.

In accordance with the method which had proved effective in 1929, it made a point of enlisting the assistance of representatives of all the factors of production. The fundamental part played by the coal problem in the economic life of nations induced it on this occasion to add representatives of the Governments to the experts. The seven chief producing countries in Europe (Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Great Britain, the Netherlands and Poland) were represented at the meeting which has just closed (January 11th to 13th), and at which an Italian expert was asked to represent the interests of the consuming countries.

2. Already in 1929 the idea of an *international agreement between producers* had been put forward; but the ground had not yet been prepared for carrying this proposal into effect. Many producers considered that an international agreement could only be built up step by step by detailed decisions on definite points. Local agreements of a free and spontaneous nature, eliminating the more irrational forms of competition, would provide material to serve as a foundation for a general agreement. The situation did not seem to be ripe for this agreement, and a comparatively long period of preparation appeared necessary. The parties concerned, hoping to find other solutions, held back.

During the present consultation, on the contrary, the Economic Committee found that all the experts of producing countries present, whether representing Governments, employers or workers, were unanimous as to the advantages of an international agreement calculated to remedy as soon as possible the chaotic state of the distribution of coal. Everyone recognised it to be in the interests of all producers, whatever their country, to combine their efforts for the purpose of regulating the competition between them, and thus helping to attenuate the effects of the crisis which, with its attendant evils of poverty, losses and unemployment, is entailing particularly severe hardships on the mining districts.

3. *National organisation* is a preliminary and necessary condition of international organisation. In 1929, one of the chief obstacles to this idea was the absence, in several countries, of national organisations—notably in Great Britain, the chief producing country in Europe.

To-day, we find that the national arrangements which are essential to the preparation and conclusion of any international agreement exist. A rapid organic development has taken place. Both in Great Britain and in Belgium the coal industry has been sufficiently organised. The advantages are generally recognised. Everywhere the necessity of dividing the consumption between the coal areas of a country has been recognised. The measures taken and proposed constitute a factor of essential importance for the general problem with which we are dealing. The prerequisite condition of any international agreement is present.

4. Moreover, it is now much easier than in 1929 to see *the general lines on which an agreement might be concluded* for regulating the distribution of coal among the various markets.

The numerous Government measures which at present stand in the way of the free circulation of coal do not seem to constitute an obstacle to the proposed agreements. Some of the experts, indeed, regard the two factors as closely related; an international understanding brought to the knowledge of the Governments and making it possible to establish a certain equilibrium of competition would find a corollary in an adjustment of protectionist or restrictive measures.

A disciplined and rational distribution of the tonnage available, accepted by all parties in the international markets, would enable each producing centre to know what share it would have in the total consumption both of its own and of other countries. Knowing where it stood, it could adjust its output and aim at increasing its outlets by stimulating fresh consumption, but without carrying on bitter competition with other coal producers.

Lastly, the industries thus united could, with less expense and much more chance of success, combine their efforts to find new uses for coal, and in all other activities of common concern to coal producers, as already occurs in certain organised spheres, such as that of aluminium.

No doubt an organisation, however perfect, would have been powerless to prevent the material falling off in coal consumption which has been the outcome of the general economic crisis and of difficulties unprecedented in their simultaneousness and amplitude. But we are entitled to believe that the social and commercial troubles brought about by the fall in consumption would have been more circumscribed if it had been possible to bring into play practical agreements adjusting production to the fluctuations of consumption on the various markets. If a rule for the distribution of the tonnage to be supplied to the various customers on each market had been laid down and observed, it may well be believed that mine-owners who, left to themselves, thought only of disposing at any price of a perhaps ill-regulated output, would have regulated their supplies to a greater extent; and this regulation would probably have rendered superfluous a whole series of measures tending to hinder the circulation of coal which have been introduced both in producing and importing countries by the fear of imports on too large a scale creating unemployment. The

fall would, in any case, have occurred, but very probably the losses thus distributed would have been less keenly felt.

In any case, there seems to be no doubt that, without an agreement, the coal industry would find it much more difficult to withstand a continuation of the crisis. Without an agreement, it would also have more difficulty in deriving the full advantage it is entitled to look for from a return to the normal rhythm of economic life. On the contrary, should demand recover, the agreement would be the more effective inasmuch as it would apply to an industry whose labour strength had been greatly reduced by the crisis.

5. The representative of the *consuming countries* voiced the anxiety with which consumers contemplate the harmful consequences that might, in their opinion, follow from any international agreement which tended to reduce production and consequently to increase prices. The reduction in the amount extracted would increase unemployment. Again, the increase in price would lead to a wider use of other sources of energy and would still further reduce consumption. On the whole, such agreements would therefore be harmful to the producers themselves. The injury caused to consumers might be considerable; any increase in the price of coal has, indeed, immediate and serious effects on the cost price of essential products (*e.g.*, cast iron).

In the opinion of the consuming countries, it would therefore be desirable that the general lines of any agreements that might be reached between producers should beforehand be communicated to the consuming countries, which might then express their views on the matter, and only thus would it be possible to hope for any valuable result from the collaboration within the League of Nations for which the consuming countries have been asked and which they have gladly given.

The experts representing producers consider that these anxieties are groundless. They emphasise the considerable advantage consumers would derive from stability in prices, since they would no longer be exposed to perpetual fluctuations and might therefore more safely calculate their cost prices for long periods ahead.

Any increase in price would naturally be limited by the interests of the sellers themselves, for their first aim must be to obviate any decrease in consumption. On the other hand, economic correctives would certainly play their part in checking any possible abuses.

The competition of other sources of energy would make itself felt at once. The output of countries which remained outside the European agreement would exercise an influence. Moreover, this agreement would be open to countries which are both producers and importers, and such countries must be particularly careful of the interests of consumers.

Finally, the consultations which take place under the auspices of the League of Nations, and in which both consuming countries and producing countries are represented and may express their views, constitute a factor which provides a certain guarantee.

6. The Economic Committee examined the conclusions to be drawn from the *London Conference* (September 30th and October 1st, 1931), at which the mine-owners of the seven chief European producing countries set forth the general lines of a plan of international organisation. From what it heard during the consultation of the experts, it thinks there are grounds for hoping that the efforts to reach an agreement will be resumed at the earliest possible moment and actively pursued. It expresses the hope that those negotiations may lead to a more rational organisation of the industry and may thus provide a remedy for a depression which is becoming more and more acute. The Committee proposes that the Council should bring to the notice of Governments the international importance of this movement in the serious situation prevailing at present, in the certainty that they will not fail to follow it carefully, encourage it if necessary, and, at the same time, satisfy themselves that there is no danger of the general interest being adversely affected.

The Economic Committee was glad to note that a recent difficulty of a psychological nature, which was caused by the disturbances resulting from rapid monetary fluctuations, seemed to have been gradually removed during the course of the meeting. In some quarters there was a tendency to think that the advantages—at all events the temporary advantages—which certain mine-owners might hope to derive from exceptional increases in tonnage would lessen the interest those mine-owners might take in the idea of an international agreement.

7. The discussion brought out the complex character of the *negotiations* which will be required if an international agreement on coal is to be reached. It seemed that the participation of too varied interests in the negotiations would still further complicate the conclusion of an agreement, and this is considered to be, if not the only, at all events the best solution in the difficult circumstances which prevail at present.

It would apparently be desirable for the conduct of the negotiations and the conclusion of the agreements to remain in the hands of those who have to execute the agreements and who must bear the direct responsibility for them. But there is reason to suppose that Governments and the public will be aware of the general lines of what is proposed, and will naturally judge them from the point of view of all the factors of the national economy concerned (workers, consumers, transport, etc.).

8. The Economic Committee proposes to follow attentively these efforts towards organisation. In view of the importance of the coal problem, the Committee is bound to be interested in it from the point of view of the general economic life of all countries.

Its action could go no further. There could be no question of the League of Nations assuming responsibility for initiating or directing these negotiations. Its task should be to study all the aspects of the problem and to ensure contact between all the interests involved. Though it may be proper, within the limits of its economic work, for it to take account of a general movement and to use its influence to guide it as far as possible along the lines which are most favourable to the general interest, it could not undertake any direct responsibility for the agreements that are to be concluded or for the precise form they might assume.

For the discharge of this duty, the Economic Committee considers that the *Committee of Experts*, as at present constituted, is both competent and adequate. This Committee includes

representatives of Governments, mine-owners and miners and representatives of consuming countries, and, subject to any modifications which might seem desirable, appears to be the appropriate organ for closely following all developments, the progress of the agreements and changes in the international situation, for helping towards mutual understanding and for giving all the parties concerned an opportunity to meet on an international plane.

The Economic Committee therefore thinks it would be advisable to convene the Committee of Experts again at an opportune time as near as possible in the hope that, through the goodwill of all the interests involved, it will be possible to record progress by the time of the meeting proposed above.

It is, moreover, convinced that the present meeting, at which all have been able to exchange views freely, will contribute towards that mutual understanding between the interests involved, whether common or opposed, without which there could be no hope of solving the problem in any way that would be both equitable and effective. Consumers and workers have so clearly set forth their legitimate anxieties that not even an organ representing only one interest could seriously contemplate ignoring them.

9. In conclusion, the Economic Committee, in view of the fact that, on the one hand, the aggravation of the crisis and, on the other hand, the progress effected in national organisation show that the realisation of the idea of an international coal agreement is both more urgent than ever and apparently within reach, considering the necessity for overcoming a crisis which affects one of the fundamental branches of production and for doing so without thereby injuring the interests of consumers, whether countries or individuals:

1. *Proposes that the Council should communicate the present report to Governments, bringing to their notice the international importance of this movement in the serious situation which exists at present;*

2. *In accordance with the principle laid down by the World Economic Conference and confirmed by all subsequent studies of the Economic Organisation relating to the publicity given to important international agreements, the Economic Committee expresses its confidence that knowledge of the fundamental lines of the agreements which are already concluded, or which are to be concluded, will be available to all, so that the interests involved, and more particularly the consuming countries, may have all the information necessary to enable them to express an opinion on the effects of the said agreements.*

B. OTHER PRODUCTS.

In accordance with the resolutions of the last Assembly concerning the study of a better organisation of certain branches of production and of trade connected therewith, the Economic Committee requested the Secretariat to collect the information necessary for any proposals concerning preliminary consultations of experts with special qualifications in the matter of:

- (1) Motor vehicles;
- (2) Wood;
- (3) Hops.

V. SPECIAL COMMITTEE FOR THE STUDY OF THE EXTENSION OF PREFERENCE TO AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS OTHER THAN CEREALS.

In accordance with resolution 2(b) of the Twelfth Assembly, the findings of the special Committee on the extension of a system of special facilities to products other than cereals were examined by the Economic Committee before being submitted to the Commission of Enquiry for European Union. The special Committee met at Geneva on October 30th and 31st, 1931.

The Economic Committee considered its report (document C.784.M.379.1931.VII) and has no special observations to make thereon.

VI. PROCEDURE FOR THE FRIENDLY SETTLEMENT OF ECONOMIC DISPUTES BETWEEN STATES.

The Committee completed the studies with which it had been entrusted. They resulted in conclusions which themselves led the Committee to propose that the Council should set up an optional procedure of an elastic and rapid character to which Members of the League of Nations and non-member States may have recourse at any time. The question is dealt with in a special report given in Appendix I to the present report.

VII. BRIBERY AND UNFAIR COMMERCIAL PRACTICES.

The International Chamber of Commerce drew the Committee's attention to the advisability of endeavouring to eliminate from private commercial relations recourse to certain unfair practices, more particularly to various forms of bribery.

The studies undertaken by the Economic Committee have led it to frame certain conclusions and suggestions which it proposes that the Council should submit to the Members of the League of Nations. The result of these studies is given in the attached report (Appendix II).

Appendix I.

ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION PROCEDURE
IN ECONOMIC MATTERS.

REPORT OF THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE TO THE COUNCIL.

INTRODUCTION.

1. The "Protocol regarding the Programme of Future Negotiations" drawn up at the time of the Preliminary Conference with a View to Concerted Economic Action and signed on March 24th, 1930, at the end of the Conference, provides "that the various points of the memorandum submitted by the French delegation should be examined by the Economic Organisation of the League of Nations".

One of these points refers to the creation, "attached to the Council of the League of Nations, of a Permanent Organ of Conciliation and Arbitration. This body would be competent to examine and settle all difficulties submitted to it by the participating States concerning the *interpretation and application of measures adopted 'in the domain of economic activity' and bilateral or multilateral commercial and Customs Conventions now in force or which may hereafter be concluded*".¹

On May 12th, 1930, the Council instructed the Economic Organisation to carry out the decisions of the Conference.

2. In June 1930, the Economic Committee, being desirous of obtaining full information with regard to the actual situation before considering the question, asked the Secretariat to conduct a preliminary enquiry into such systems of conciliation and arbitration applicable to disputes of an economic nature as are already embodied in bilateral or plurilateral international agreements and the effects of the coexistence of these agreements, taking into account the rights and obligations which the various countries might obtain or incur by their accession to the Permanent Court of International Justice or to arbitration conventions at present in force.

Accordingly, the Secretariat drew up a "Memorandum" (booklet E.666), which is a first attempt to collect and group in a logical form the provisions in force in the various acts, treaties, conventions and agreements concluded between the different Powers, mainly in Europe, which might be applied for the peaceful settlement of international disputes regarding *economic matters*, more particularly commercial and Customs matters. The Council regarded this "Memorandum" as so valuable a compendium of information for all persons interested in the question that it decided, at its September 1931 session, to communicate it to the Members of the League of Nations.

3. This Memorandum proved to the Economic Committee that the network of contractual inter-State undertakings which might be applied for the peaceful settlement of economic disputes arising between States was already so widespread and interlocked that the creation of a *new body* to carry out the same work in this category of disputes would complicate what was already a sufficiently confused situation and would cause overlapping, doubts, and even conflicts of jurisdiction.

In these circumstances the establishment of a special new organisation seemed to be superfluous, if not actually harmful.

4. On the other hand, is the present situation entirely satisfactory? If so, what were the reasons which led the French delegation to make its proposal?

A careful enquiry into the present situation reveals many drawbacks.

(a) First the *slow and laborious procedure* of the permanent organisations, or organisations created *ad hoc* for the settlement of disputes, is ill-adapted to the speed with which economic conditions are developing at the present time. The circumstances which give rise to the dispute are often entirely different when the decision is finally given.

(b) Moreover, *bodies composed of judges*, who cannot be thoroughly well acquainted with all the details of economic life, and who are rather inclined to rely on criteria of pure law in judging cases in which situations of fact and technical considerations are of predominant importance, do not always appear to operate in a way satisfactory to the parties. Moreover, it appears, from a recent order issued by the Permanent Court of International Justice, that the Court itself is of the opinion that judicial settlement is not always the best way of settling disputes of an economic nature.²

(c) Finally, *the choice of the persons called upon to act as arbitrators or conciliators* often—particularly as regards nationality—causes so much anxiety and leads to such difficult and complex negotiations that in many cases the parties, though they desire to settle the dispute,

¹ See document C.203.M.96.1930.II, pages 16 and 25.

² Order of December 6th, 1930, concerning the case of the Free Zones of Upper Savoy and the district of Gex. Publications of the Permanent Court of International Justice, Series A, No. 24.

hesitate in face of the numerous difficulties involved in selecting arbitrators in whom they have confidence, so that confused situations are perpetuated and regrettable misunderstandings arise.

5. Having decided, for the reasons explained in paragraph 3, not to recommend the creation of a new organ, but fully appreciating the reasons which led the French delegation to make its proposal, and being desirous of remedying one at least of the most serious drawbacks which, in practice, hinder the satisfactory operation of procedures of arbitration and conciliation, *the Economic Committee is unanimously of opinion that the League of Nations might—without in any way modifying the existing legal situation or imposing any new obligation on States—render considerable service to the States concerned by endeavouring to facilitate, through appropriate procedure, the choice of the conciliators or experts to be consulted, to whom the parties might submit disputes of an economic nature.*

6. Under these circumstances, *the Economic Committee proposes to the Council to establish a group of experts to whom the interested parties might apply for the peaceful settlement of economic disputes.*

A draft set of Rules is attached to the present report.

The draft set of Rules *is not intended to become an international convention.* It will come into force by a decision of the Council. The experts appointed by the Council will be at the disposal of the various States, provided the latter agree to conform, when applying to the experts, to the provisions of the Rules.

7. The main features of the procedure proposed by the Economic Committee are as follows:

- (a) No permanent body will be set up.
- (b) States will not enter into any obligations.
- (c) The experts placed at the disposal of the States concerned will be appointed by the Council. They will be fourteen in number.¹
- (d) The dispute to be submitted to experts must be of an economic nature.
- (e) A dispute is only laid before experts at the common and express desire of the litigant parties.
- (f) All States, whether members of the League or not, may apply to the experts.²
- (g) The parties to the dispute will themselves decide the number of experts to whom they wish to submit their dispute.
- (h) The parties themselves will choose (experts of their own nationality being excluded) from the group of experts appointed by the Council those to whom they desire to submit the dispute, but they may instruct the Chairman of the Economic Committee to make the choice for them.
- (i) The parties themselves will decide the terms of reference to be given to the experts (advisory opinion, proposal for conciliation, arbitral award).

8. *In conclusion*, the Economic Committee feels that it would be desirable to set up the group of experts as outlined above. This could be obtained through a resolution of the Council. This resolution should be communicated immediately to all Members of the League, together with the present report.

Sub-Appendix.

RULES OF PROCEDURE DRAWN UP BY THE COUNCIL WITH A VIEW TO FACILITATE THE PEACEFUL AND RAPID SETTLEMENT OF ECONOMIC DISPUTES WHICH MIGHT ARISE BETWEEN MEMBERS OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS OR NON-MEMBER STATES.

CHAPTER I. — JURISDICTION.

Article I.³

Only Members of the League and States non-members may apply to the Experts for the peaceful settlement of an economic dispute arising between them.

¹ This figure is regarded as a minimum which would in all circumstances provide the parties with persons acquainted with the economic conditions of the principal countries and the various branches of national economy.

² The Protocol with a View to Concerted Economic Action, which was the starting-point of the Economic Committee's enquiries on this subject, has only been signed by four European States. Consequently, it might have been thought that the experts would only be at the disposal of European countries. The Committee felt, however, that there was no reason thus to limit the jurisdiction of the experts, and that, if the procedure it proposes is really useful, it will be equally useful for all countries.

³ This means that only Governments can apply, and not individuals.

Article 2.

A dispute can only be validly brought before the Experts by a joint application from the Parties to the case.

Article 3.¹

The jurisdiction of the Experts shall extend to all disputes concerned with matters of an economic nature.

CHAPTER II. — APPOINTMENT OF THE EXPERTS.

Article 4.²

The Experts, to the number of fourteen, shall be appointed by the Council on the proposal of the Economic Committee of the League.

The Experts must:

- (a) Be of different nationalities;
- (b) Be persons enjoying the highest esteem;
- (c) Be of recognised competence in economic questions in the widest sense of the term;
- (d) Be familiar with the problems involved in the regulation of economic relations between countries, and in particular with matters usually forming the subject of commercial treaties and other economic agreements.

Article 5.

The Experts shall be appointed for a period of five years. Their appointment may be renewed.

They shall personally perform their duties.

If an Expert dies or resigns, he shall be replaced for the remainder of his term of office by a person appointed in accordance with the provisions of Article 4.

On the expiry of their term of office, the Experts shall continue to deal with any cases that may previously have been submitted to them and are not concluded.

CHAPTER III. — PROCEDURE.

Article 6.

The application provided for in Article 2 above shall be addressed to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

It shall be drawn up by common agreement between the Parties to the case, and must bear their signatures.

The application shall state:

- (a) The subject of the dispute and the Parties to the case;
- (b) The number of Experts to be selected;
- (c) The nature of the decision the Expert or Experts are requested to give (advisory opinion, conciliation or arbitration);
- (d) The names of the Experts chosen or the request to apply Articles 7 and 8.

Article 7.

If the Parties have chosen the Experts themselves, the Experts shall in turn themselves appoint their President.

Article 8.

If the Parties themselves have not chosen the Experts in their application, the choice shall be made by the Chairman of the Economic Committee. For this purpose the Secretary-General shall send him a copy of the application.

Article 9.

Should the Chairman of the Economic Committee be prevented from making a choice, or be a national of one of the Parties, the choice shall be made by his predecessor, provided the latter is still a member of the Committee.

Should the predecessor of the Chairman also be unable, for one of the above reasons, to make a choice, the choice shall be made by the oldest member who is not a national of any Party to the case.

¹ The Experts are given the widest jurisdiction, as their consultation is optional.

² The Economic Committee experienced some difficulty in deciding the number of Experts.

The Experts must not be too numerous, so that there may be a sort of continuity and uniformity in their doctrine. The Economic Committee thought that the case-law built up by the Experts might be a useful guide for future decisions, recommendations and opinions, though it would not necessarily form a precedent in the legal sense given to the term "precedent" in Anglo-Saxon countries.

On the other hand, the Experts must not be too few, so that they may include persons versed in the economic conditions of the principal countries and the various branches of national economy. States, too, should be allowed a certain latitude of choice.

*Article 10.*¹

The person called upon to make the choice in accordance with Articles 7 and 8 shall do so within 15 days after receiving the communication from the Secretary-General of the League of Nations. If several Experts have to be chosen, he shall also appoint their President.

The choice shall be made exclusively from among the persons referred to in Article 4. Moreover, the Experts must be of a different nationality from that of the Parties.

Article 11.

Any recourse to the Experts shall imply that the Parties accept the provisions of the present Rules.

If the Parties have requested an arbitral award, that fact shall involve the obligation on their part to submit to the award to be given and to carry it out in good faith.

Article 12.

The Experts shall be entirely free to follow the procedure they deem best in each particular case.

*Article 13.*²

The Parties shall be informed without delay of the results of the Experts' work.

These results shall be published by the Secretary-General of the League of Nations, if the Parties consent.

CHAPTER IV. — GENERAL PROVISIONS.

A. — SECRETARIAT.

Article 14.

The Secretariat shall be provided by the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

B. — EXPENSES.

Article 15.

Each of the Parties shall bear its own expenses for procedure. The joint expenditure decided upon by the President of the Experts shall be borne by the Parties in equal parts.

Article 16.

The expenses referred to in the above Article shall include remuneration to be granted to the Experts, witnesses and other persons whose co-operation is required.

*Article 17.*³

At the beginning of the procedure the President of the Experts shall fix the amount to be advanced by each of the Parties in order to cover the above-mentioned expenses, and shall draw up an account on the conclusion of the work.

C. — SEAT.

Article 18.

In principle, the Experts shall sit at Geneva in the Secretariat of the League of Nations. Their President may, however, decide that they shall sit elsewhere.

¹ The last provision of Article 10 is intended to increase confidence in the impartiality of the Experts. It naturally does not exclude the right of the Parties to have themselves represented by agents instructed to defend their interests.

² In principle, the Economic Committee favours the publication of such results, particularly for the reasons set out in the comment on Article 4; but the results can only be published when the parties agree, because, if publication were compulsory in every instance, Governments might hesitate to resort to the proposed procedure.

³ This rule is intended to ensure that the League shall not incur expenditure for which no provision has been made in its budget, and which ought, after all, to be borne by the Parties. It also ensures that there shall be no delay in the procedure.

Appendix II.

REPORT OF THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE
ON BRIBERY AND UNFAIR COMMERCIAL PRACTICES.

The following resolution of the International Chamber of Commerce was adopted at the Amsterdam Congress of 1929 and officially communicated to the Secretary-General of the League:

" The International Chamber of Commerce,
" In view of the recommendation of the World Economic Conference in Geneva (May 1927) in regard to the suppression of unfair commercial practices and of the endorsement of the recommendation by the Council of the League of Nations;
" And bearing in mind that the International Union for the Protection of Industrial Property is necessarily circumscribed and little concerned with one particular unfair commercial practice which is everywhere condemned, namely bribery:
" Resolves that the League of Nations be requested to take, without delay, such action as may lead to the conclusion of a convention on bribery whereby this evil practice may be made specifically criminal in all the signatory States;
" And legal redress, civil and criminal, shall be assured by the contracting countries;
" And, further, promises the League of Nations such assistance as it can give."

Prior to the submission of this resolution, the President of the International Chamber of Commerce had appointed a Sub-Committee on the question.

From this Sub-Committee's report it appears that " bribery has been discussed repeatedly by the commercial community in several countries for more than twenty years, and that there is a common agreement as to the extent of the serious evils arising from it ".

The Sub-Committee, " while favouring uniform legislation, thinks that this is not essential so long as bribery is legally constituted as a *crime*, and that the nationals of the countries which are a party to the proposed convention have international rights as provided for by the International Union for the Protection of Industrial Property when industrial property is affected ".

The report also points out that:

" At present a foreigner can bribe with impunity in another country where bribery is proscribed if he has no place of business or domicile in it.

" The Committee submits that the proposed convention should also permit *civil action* in addition to criminal proceedings."

From this and other documents submitted by the International Chamber of Commerce, the bribery referred to in the above resolution might be defined as follows:

" 1. The corrupt asking for, or acceptance by an agent of, any gift or consideration which might influence him in relation to his principal's affairs.

" 2. The corrupt offer or gift of such consideration to any agent.

" 3. The use knowingly by an agent, or the gift to such agent, of any documents false or misleading in a material particular, with intent to deceive the agent's principal.

" It is recommended that an agent should be defined as any person employed by or acting for another."

Thus the bribery of domestic servants would be covered as well as bribery in connection with any business or profession carried on for gain.

Note. — At present (except in the British Empire and certain of the United States where penal articles are in force) it is criminal to bribe, say, a chauffeur employed and paid by a business firm, but no offence to bribe a chauffeur employed and paid by a partner in that firm.

The documents communicated to us point out that the provisions¹ of the International Union Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property, last revised at The Hague in 1925, are

¹ *Article 10bis:*

" The Contracting Parties are bound to afford nationals of the Union effective protection against unfair competition.

" Any competitive act contrary to the honourable usages employed in industrial or commercial matters constitutes an act of unfair competition.

" The prohibited acts include the following:

" (1) All acts of whatever nature calculated, by whatever means, to cause a product to be mistaken for the products of a competitor;

" (2) False allegations, in the exercise of trade, calculated to discredit the products of a competitor."

Article 10ter:

" The Contracting Parties undertake to provide the nationals of other countries Parties to the Union with suitable legal redress such as will adequately penalise all the acts referred to in Articles 9, 10 and 10bis."

inadequate to secure the punishment of the unfair acts defined above, two of the chief reasons being that the texts on which agreement might be reached at The Hague are not sufficiently explicit and detailed and that most countries are not members of the Union.

In 1925, at the Hague Conference for the Revision of the Convention, an attempt was made to insert in the Convention provisions covering all forms of unfair competition, but for various reasons, including the difficulty of giving a complete enumeration of such forms, the proposal was not carried out. All that was done was to provide that the Contracting Parties should undertake to " assure to persons entitled to the benefits of the Union an effective protection against unfair competition " (Art. 10 *bis*) by means of " appropriate legal remedies " (Art. 10 *bis*).

In the above-quoted resolution the following words should be particularly noted: " bribery . . . may be made specifically *criminal* in all the signatory States . . . and legal redress, *civil and criminal*, shall be assured by all the contracting countries ".

While the kinds of bribery to which this resolution chiefly refers are regarded as within the province of penal law, the authors of this resolution also had in view measures similar to certain provisions of British Civil Law, according to which every gift made to an employee or agent for the purpose of bribery must be considered as if it had been made to his principal; if the recipient of this gift does not hand it to his principal, the latter is authorised to dismiss him immediately.

The Economic Committee has taken pains to ascertain what is the position in England, where specific steps have been taken. It appears to be as follows:

At Common Law it has always been a criminal offence for any person to bribe or to offer to bribe a public officer or for a public officer to receive a bribe.

During the last forty years three important statutes have been passed, of which copies are attached. The first of these statutes is the Public Bodies Corrupt Practices Act, 1889, which aimed at preventing and punishing bribery and corruption of or by members, officers or servants of various local administrative bodies. The second statute is the Prevention of Corruption Act, 1906, which extended the law of bribery and corruption to general commercial transactions; it applies to persons serving the Crown or various local administrative bodies as well as to private persons and companies. The third statute (the Prevention of Corruption Act, 1916) amended the two earlier statutes with a view to strengthening the law upon the subject, and extended the provisions of the Act of 1889 to all public and local authorities.

It will be observed that in Great Britain it is a criminal offence for any person corruptly to give to any agent or for any agent corruptly to receive any gift as an inducement or reward for doing or forbearing to do any act in relation to his principal's affairs or for showing any favour or disfavour to any person in relation to his principal's affairs. It is also a criminal offence for any person to give to any agent or for any agent to use any document calculated to mislead the principal. The Acts of 1906 and 1916 are very carefully phrased in wide terms so as to cover attempts and agreements as well as actual gifts and to apply to servants as well as to agents, to servants of the Crown and of all public and local bodies as well as to private persons.

Particular attention should be drawn to Section 2 of the Act of 1916, which provides that, where it is proved that a gift has been made to a servant of the Crown or of a public or local body by a person holding or wishing to obtain a contract from the Crown or public or local body, the gift shall be deemed to have been made corruptly in contravention of the statutes, unless the contrary is proved by the defendant.

In addition to those criminal offences, the *English civil law* regards any bribe or corrupt gift given to an agent as being given for the benefit of the principal, with the result that the agent is required to deliver it to his principal; if he fails to do so, he is liable to dismissal and the principal can recover it by legal action. In accordance, however, with the general rule of English law, the criminal proceedings must be kept distinct from any civil remedy.

The Act of 1906 was passed because the previous law had been found inadequate to deal with the reprehensible and growing practice of giving bribes or secret commissions in commercial transactions.

The Act of 1906 has had a very wholesome influence upon commercial transactions, and its stringent provisions are believed to have led to the abandonment of many corrupt trade practices which were previously prevalent. By the punishment of persons giving and receiving corrupt gifts, the statutes have led to a higher standard of commercial dealing. It is, however, recognised that a high standard of commercial honesty can best be secured by educating and maintaining a strong public opinion which condemns the conduct in question and regards it with abhorrence, and that it is only in such an atmosphere that statutes punishing persons who violate such standard of commercial integrity can be made really effective.

Available statistics show that up to the end of 1928, 687 proceedings had been instituted in England for offences against the Act of 1906, and it is therefore clear that the English statute is capable of enforcement and is, in fact, fairly often enforced.

In the *United States* some action has also been taken.

The Government of the United States and of the States which form it have had, from the time of the foundation of the Federal Government and of the respective State Governments, very strict

penal provisions against bribery of every kind of State or municipal or federal officials. They have been very rigorously enforced.

The matter to which the International Chamber of Commerce has referred, since its meeting at Amsterdam in 1929, is comparatively new, having to do with the subject which has come to be called commercial bribery.

Unless governed by the general common law which obtained in England at the time of the Revolution and which has been generally retained, and in the absence of statutes by the various State Governments, the protection of rights or the abolition of wrongs must depend upon federal statutes which have been enacted at various times. The United States recording, patent, trademark, or copyright laws are examples of statutes which afford more adequate, substantial and specific protection to property rights than was offered under the common law.

Dealing first with the situation from the point of view of the Federal Government, the Federal Trade Commission Act of 1904 declares against unfair methods of competition. The legislative intent as to what is an unfair method of competition is not expressed, but the United States have administrative and judicial interpretations. The Federal Trade Commission has issued numerous orders to respondents to cease and desist from the practice of commercial bribery—that is, the tipping of employees in order to influence them in their relations with their principal's business. An important case, decided in October 1929, has upheld the Federal Trade Commission that commercial bribery is an unfair method of competition. The court condemned the secret giving of money or anything of value without the knowledge or consent of the employers in order to influence an agent.¹

On February 11th, 1930, a bill (H.R.9769) was introduced in the United States Congress which would amend the Federal Trade Commission Act so as to provide specifically that the offer and acceptance directly or indirectly of any commission, money, property or other valuable thing as an inducement or reward for doing or omitting to do an act or favour in relation to the affairs of his employers is unlawful and an unfair method of competition.

Referring now to the New York State Law, the penal statute provides against the giving and acceptance directly or indirectly of any gift or gratuity whatever, without the knowledge and consent of the principal, with intent to influence a person's action in relation to his principal's business.

It was proposed, on February 14th, 1930, in the session of the New York legislature, to amend the penal law so as to make commercial bribery unlawful either with or without the consent of the employer or principal. There is some doubt as to the constitutionality of the proposed change, but it is interesting as indicating the disposition of the State legislators to combat an evil apparently found to be existing.

The Committee has not examined the laws of the various other States of the Union or the general economic situation. We find, however, an article in *Nation's Business* for December 1928, in which it is stated:

“ State legislation against bribery has not been a notable success. Sixteen States have such laws, but there have been few prosecutions. Except in Louisiana, Michigan and New Jersey, each State considers both parties equally guilty, so that the law, in effect, prohibits a secret practice. The difficulty of enforcement under these laws is obvious. The legislative remedy has not materialised. ”

The business world has regarded commercial bribery broadly as involving gratuities in money and goods, and also probably lavish entertainment. A case which was decided in 1920 did not go so far. In New Jersey—*Asbestos Company v. Federal Trade Commission* (1920, 264, Fed. 509)—it was held that the giving of money or valuable presents to an employee to influence him in regard to his employer's relations is a fraud, that entertainment with liquor, cigars, meals, theatre tickets, etc. is not a matter so affecting the public as to be within the jurisdiction of the Federal Trade Commission.

The Chamber of Commerce of the United States declares in its Eleventh Principle of Business Conduct that:

“ Unfair competition, embracing all acts characterised by bad faith, deception, fraud or oppression, including commercial bribery, is wasteful, despicable and a public wrong. ”

At almost every trade practice conference held under the auspices of the Federal Trade Commission during the past five years, commercial bribery has been condemned. This would seem to indicate that the practice exists in many industries. It is commendable and encouraging that efforts are being made by the industries within themselves to eradicate it.

The fact that special measures relating to bribery have had to be enacted in the Anglo-Saxon countries is probably due to the different conception of law in those countries. In the other

¹ Federal Trade Commission v. Grand Rapids Varnish Co. (October 1929)—Fed. (24).

countries, however, the existing penal and civil laws seem on the whole to provide adequate weapons for dealing with the situation. In any case, experience has shown that it is always difficult to convince States of the necessity of amending their penal laws.

The Economic Committee has been informed that *Germany* has also taken specific steps by means of a legislative declaration which lays down that commercial bribery is "an unfair commercial practice" within the meaning of the relevant articles in the Hague Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property.

It has not been possible for the Committee to obtain detailed information from every country, but from a cursory examination of the laws in a number of countries some data have been secured.

These are given hereafter.

The acts referred to in the resolution of the International Chamber of Commerce, which are specifically characterised as misdemeanours under British law, are defined and divided into four groups below. The civil proceedings authorised by the law constitute a fifth group.

It should be remarked that:

(a) In our examination the penal provisions relating to the active or passive bribery of public or semi-public officials and the employees of public bodies have not been taken into account, for the reason that the majority of legislations already contain stipulations dealing with the offence;

(b) The provisions existing in the various legislations are, of course, not formulated in exactly the same way as they are in the British laws and the following information is only intended to indicate the existence or absence of similar provisions, even if certain acts referred to in the British legislation are not expressly provided for in the legislation of the country under consideration;

(c) Lastly, the acts mentioned in categories 3 and 4 do not seem to be expressly provided for in any of the other legislations examined.

The five categories are as follows:

1. If any agent or employee of a public or private body or of a trader or manufacturer corruptly accepts, obtains, agrees to accept or attempts to obtain from any person for himself or for any other person any gift or consideration. (*Austria, France, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary, Norway, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland,*¹ *Czechoslovakia,*² *Yugoslavia.*)

2. If any person corruptly gives or agrees to give or offers any gift or advantage to any agent or employee of a public or private body or of a trader or manufacturer as an inducement or reward for doing or forbearing to do any act in relation to his principal's affairs or business or for showing or forbearing to show favour or disfavour to any person in relation to his principal's affairs or business. (*Austria, France, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary, Norway, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland,*¹ *Czechoslovakia,*² *Yugoslavia.*)

3. If any agent or employee of a public or private body or of a trader or manufacturer knowingly uses any receipt, account or other document, false, erroneous or defective in any material particular in respect of which the principal is interested, with intent to deceive his principal. (*Great Britain.*)

4. If any person knowingly gives to any agent or employee of a public or private body, with intent to deceive the principal of the said employee or agent, any receipt, account or other document which is false, erroneous or defective in any material particular. (*Great Britain.*)

5. Independently of the penal proceedings to which persons guilty of the above acts are exposed, they remain liable to all the pecuniary consequences such as damages or compensation which may result from the normal application of Civil Law. (*Austria, Belgium, Bolivia, France, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary, Netherlands, Roumania, Spain, Czechoslovakia,*² ³ *Yugoslavia.*)

The malicious or fraudulent communication of trade secrets by an employee or ex-employee is punished by imprisonment and a fine in *Belgium, Hungary, Poland, Spain, and Sweden.*

In *Brazil* various penalties were provided in 1890 for "subornation".

Article 383 of the *Chinese* Penal Code punishes fraudulent actions of an employee which are contrary to his duties to his employer.

In *Finland* in certain cases Articles 36 (fraud and swindling) and 38 (dishonesty) of the Penal Code might be applicable.

¹ The question is in the province of the cantonal laws, some of which contain provisions similar to those referred to.

² The Czechoslovak Law of July 15th, 1927, according to which the offences referred to are punished, lays down as an additional condition that such offences should have been committed to the detriment of another competitor.

³ Any competitor or association entrusted with the safeguarding of interests that have been prejudiced may bring an action with a view to the termination or elimination of the state of things complained of. Damages cover loss of profit and may include reparation for moral damage.

The *Japanese* Penal Code in Article 247 punishes any act on the part of the manager of a commercial enterprise with a view to procuring an advantage for himself and which causes prejudice to his principal.

As already pointed out above, a draft Federal Law for the punishment of the different forms of commercial bribery was laid before the Senate in 1930 in the *United States*. A similar draft will probably be submitted again at the session which began on December 7th, 1931.

That everybody will condemn the bribery and corruption referred to in the resolution, there can be no doubt. There is reason to believe that the general expenses of traders and manufacturers are heavily increased by their frequently having to curry favour with employees or persons connected with their competitors, with a view to supplanting the latter. This bribery and corruption is highly damaging to commerce, not only directly, but also through the suspicions aroused. These, it is to be feared, give rise to more bribery, which would not be resorted to if it were generally believed that the principles and practices of honest trade were only rarely departed from, and then only at the risk of discovery which would be followed by general reprobation and condign punishment.

Moreover, there is reason to suspect that the evil is more common than would appear from the evidence which those who advocate drastic repression have been able to adduce. Naturally it is difficult to collect evidence on such a matter. This points at once to one difficulty in the way of reform (which, however, is not to be regarded as a fatal objection if penalties are sufficiently high) — namely, that offences are not easily discoverable.

In this connection, the Committee would remark further that the co-operation of the business community would be essential to the successful suppression of bribery and corruption, particularly in view of the ease of evading the law. No campaign against unfair commercial practices would be fully effective without the development in commercial and industrial circles of an attitude of strong condemnation implying a general understanding that every businessman is in duty bound not to have recourse to such practices. Much might be achieved in this direction by concerted action within commercial and industrial circles. In the *United States*, such steps have already been taken to secure widespread observance of certain rules of integrity in the relations of traders and manufacturers between themselves and in their dealings with the public. A kind of catechism has thus been drawn up, and by means of skilful propaganda a large number of commercial firms have been persuaded to adopt certain rules and principles, the public being informed of the fact by suitable advertising. The penalty for infringement is primarily moral, but it may be very effective.

After considering the survey it has been able to make, and discussing the matter in its several bearings, the Committee do not feel that, in the light of the information at hand, it is in a position either to recommend the drafting of a Convention or to express the view that it would be inexpedient to proceed in this matter. Despite the review that it has made, the Committee is by no means sure of the legal position in most countries and is almost completely in the dark with regard to the highly pertinent question of the degree in which offences are disclosed and the law enforced. Have there been numerous prosecutions and have the results had a marked deterrent effect? If the Committee sought of itself the answer to these questions, a long and detailed enquiry would be entailed which it seems undesirable to undertake, seeing that the Governments concerned must be in a position to furnish reports on the facts and give considered opinions on the relevant issues. It seems therefore that this is pre-eminently one of the questions on which information should be requested from Governments and their views elicited.

On the other hand, as already stated, there is no doubt that everybody will condemn the practices of bribery and corruption dealt with in the present report.

The Economic Committee therefore ventures to suggest that the Council:

(1) Should pass a resolution to this effect and recommend that the Governments and the business communities should take such steps as are found feasible to put an end to them.

(2) That this preliminary report should be forwarded to the Governments with the request:

(a) That they should state exactly the law relating to acts of commercial bribery and corruption in their country, having regard to the specific points raised in this report;

(b) That they should state the number of prosecutions of these offences under their law and the results, and, if possible, express an opinion as to what has been the deterrent effect;

(c) That they should indicate whether in their opinion it would be expedient to draft an international Convention by which bribery, as it is contemplated in this report, may be made specifically criminal in all signatory States, and legal redress, civil and criminal, should be assured by the Contracting Parties to the nationals of the other Contracting Parties.

The replies of the Governments would be considered by the Economic Committee, who would then report again to the Council, making such suggestions as they might think fit.

Geneva, January 30th, 1932.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

**PROCEDURE FOR THE FRIENDLY SETTLEMENT
OF ECONOMIC DISPUTES BETWEEN STATES**

Set up by a Resolution of the Council of January 28th, 1932.

I.

RESOLUTION ADOPTED BY THE COUNCIL OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS
ON JANUARY 28TH, 1932.

The Council,

In view of the proposal put forward in March 1930 by the French delegation to the Conference with a View to Concerted Economic Action and included in the " Programme of Future Negotiations " prepared at the time to the effect that a permanent organ for conciliation and arbitration should be set up for the settlement of *all disputes of an economic nature* which may arise between States;

In view of the resolution of the eleventh Assembly, dated October 2nd, 1930, inviting the Economic Committee to draw up concrete proposals on this subject;

In view of the report of the Economic Committee;

And considering that most States Members of the League and non-member States are already bound by a great number of contractual ties under plurilateral or bilateral treaties, involving compulsory recourse for the friendly settlement of their disputes—including economic disputes—to organs, either permanent or created *ad hoc*, and to the procedure laid down in these Conventions;

Being desirous of avoiding the confusion and uncertainty which might result from the creation of a new permanent organ;

Being desirous, nevertheless, of meeting to some extent certain practical difficulties encountered in carrying out present agreements, above all the difficulty experienced by the parties in choosing the persons to whom their dispute will be submitted;

Being convinced that this difficulty would be greatly reduced if the parties concerned in economic disputes and desirous of reaching a friendly settlement were able to choose or to have chosen by mutual agreement suitable individuals from a group of absolutely trustworthy persons appointed periodically by the Council by a method of selection which would guarantee both the impartiality and competence of the experts;

Noting that the above decisions do not in any way affect the international agreements mentioned in paragraph 2 above or the right of the parties concerned to adopt another procedure if they prefer:

Decides to place at the disposal of the Members of the League and any States non-members, which may wish to avail themselves of the procedure, a body of experts to whom they may submit their *economic disputes* for settlement by arbitration or for the bringing about of a friendly settlement by means either of an advisory opinion or of proposals for solution:

- (a) Adopts the Rules of Procedure appended to the report of the Economic Committee;
- (b) Invites the Economic Committee to submit to it at its next session proposals on the basis of which it may nominate the experts foreseen in these Rules of Procedure;
- (c) Authorises the Secretary-General to take such steps as he may consider necessary under the Rules of Procedure.

Series of League of Nations Publications

II. ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL
1932. II. B. 2.

II.

RULES OF PROCEDURE DRAWN UP BY THE COUNCIL WITH A VIEW TO FACILITATE THE PEACEFUL AND RAPID SETTLEMENT OF ECONOMIC DISPUTES WHICH MIGHT ARISE BETWEEN MEMBERS OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS OR NON-MEMBER STATES.

CHAPTER I. — JURISDICTION.

*Article 1.*¹

Only Members of the League and States non-members may apply to the Experts for the peaceful settlement of an economic dispute arising between them.

Article 2.

A dispute can only be validly brought before the Experts by a joint application from the Parties to the case.

*Article 3.*²

The jurisdiction of the Experts shall extend to all disputes concerned with matters of an economic nature.

CHAPTER II. — APPOINTMENT OF THE EXPERTS.

*Article 4.*³

The Experts, to the number of fourteen, shall be appointed by the Council on the proposal of the Economic Committee of the League.

The Experts must:

- (a) Be of different nationalities;
- (b) Be persons enjoying the highest esteem;
- (c) Be of recognised competence in economic questions in the widest sense of the term;
- (d) Be familiar with the problems involved in the regulation of economic relations between countries, and in particular with matters usually forming the subject of commercial treaties and other economic agreements.

Article 5.

The Experts shall be appointed for a period of five years. Their appointment may be renewed.

They shall personally perform their duties.

If an Expert dies or resigns, he shall be replaced for the remainder of his term of office by a person appointed in accordance with the provisions of Article 4.

On the expiry of their term of office, the Experts shall continue to deal with any cases⁴ that may previously have been submitted to them and are not concluded.

CHAPTER III. — PROCEDURE.

Article 6.

The application provided for in Article 2 above shall be addressed to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

It shall be drawn up by common agreement between the Parties to the case, and must bear their signatures.

The application shall state:

- (a) The subject of the dispute and the Parties to the case;
- (b) The number of Experts to be selected;
- (c) The nature of the decision the Expert or Experts are requested to give (advisory opinion, conciliation or arbitration);
- (d) The names of the Experts chosen or the request to apply Articles 7 and 8.

¹ This means that only Governments can apply, and not individuals.

² The Experts are given the widest jurisdiction, as their consultation is optional.

³ The Economic Committee experienced some difficulty in deciding the number of Experts.

The Experts must not be too numerous, so that there may be a sort of continuity and uniformity in their doctrine. The Economic Committee thought that the case-law built up by the Experts might be a useful guide for future decisions, recommendations and opinions, though it would not necessarily form a precedent in the legal sense given to the term "precedent" in Anglo-Saxon countries.

On the other hand, the Experts must not be too few, so that they may include persons versed in the economic conditions of the principal countries and the various branches of national economy. States, too, should be allowed a certain latitude of choice.

Article 7.

If the Parties have chosen the Experts themselves, the Experts shall in turn themselves appoint their President.

Article 8.

If the Parties themselves have not chosen the Experts in their application, the choice shall be made by the Chairman of the Economic Committee. For this purpose the Secretary-General shall send him a copy of the application.

Article 9.

Should the Chairman of the Economic Committee be prevented from making a choice, or be a national of one of the Parties, the choice shall be made by his predecessor, provided the latter is still a member of the Committee.

Should the predecessor of the Chairman also be unable, for one of the above reasons, to make a choice, the choice shall be made by the oldest member who is not a national of any Party to the case.

Article 10.¹

The person called upon to make the choice in accordance with Articles 7 and 8 shall do so within 15 days after receiving the communication from the Secretary-General of the League of Nations. If several Experts have to be chosen, he shall also appoint their President.

The choice shall be made exclusively from among the persons referred to in Article 4. Moreover, the Experts must be of a different nationality from that of the Parties.

Article 11.

Any recourse to the Experts shall imply that the Parties accept the provisions of the present Rules.

If the Parties have requested an arbitral award, that fact shall involve the obligation on their part to submit to the award to be given and to carry it out in good faith.

Article 12.

The Experts shall be entirely free to follow the procedure they deem best in each particular case.

Article 13.²

The Parties shall be informed without delay of the results of the Experts' work.

These results shall be published by the Secretary-General of the League of Nations, if the Parties consent.

CHAPTER IV. — GENERAL PROVISIONS.

A. — SECRETARIAT.

Article 14.

The Secretariat shall be provided by the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

B. — EXPENSES.

Article 15.

Each of the Parties shall bear its own expenses for procedure. The joint expenditure decided upon by the President of the Experts shall be borne by the Parties in equal parts.

Article 16.

The expenses referred to in the above Article shall include remuneration to be granted to the Experts, witnesses and other persons whose co-operation is required.

Article 17.³

At the beginning of the procedure the President of the Experts shall fix the amount to be advanced by each of the Parties in order to cover the above-mentioned expenses, and shall draw up an account on the conclusion of the work.

¹ The last provision of Article 10 naturally does not exclude the right of the Parties to have themselves represented by agents instructed to defend their interests.

² In principle, the Economic Committee favours the publications of such results, but the results can only be published when the parties agree, because, if publication were compulsory in every instance, Governments might hesitate to resort to the proposed procedure.

³ This rule is intended to ensure that the League shall not incur expenditure for which no provision has been made in its budget, and which ought, after all, to be borne by the Parties. It also ensures that there shall be no delay in the procedure.

Article 18.

In principle, the Experts shall sit at Geneva in the Secretariat of the League of Nations. Their President may, however, decide that they shall sit elsewhere.

III.

REPORT OF THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE TO THE COUNCIL.

INTRODUCTION.

1. The "Protocol regarding the Programme of Future Negotiations" drawn up at the time of the Preliminary Conference with a View to Concerted Economic Action and signed on March 24th, 1930, at the end of the Conference, provides "that the various points of the memorandum submitted by the French delegation should be examined by the Economic Organisation of the League of Nations".

One of these points refers to the creation, "attached to the Council of the League of Nations, of a Permanent Organ of Conciliation and Arbitration. This body would be competent to examine and settle all difficulties submitted to it by the participating States concerning the interpretation and application of measures adopted 'in the domain of economic activity' and bilateral or multilateral commercial and Customs Conventions now in force or which may hereafter be concluded".¹

On May 12th, 1930, the Council instructed the Economic Organisation to carry out the decisions of the Conference.

2. In June 1930, the Economic Committee, being desirous of obtaining full information with regard to the actual situation before considering the question, asked the Secretariat to conduct a preliminary enquiry into such systems of conciliation and arbitration applicable to disputes of an economic nature as are already embodied in bilateral or plurilateral international agreements and the effects of the coexistence of these agreements, taking into account the rights and obligations which the various countries might obtain or incur by their accession to the Permanent Court of International Justice or to arbitration conventions at present in force.

Accordingly, the Secretariat drew up a "Memorandum" (booklet E.666), which is a first attempt to collect and group in a logical form the provisions in force in the various acts, treaties, conventions and agreements concluded between the different Powers, mainly in Europe, which might be applied for the peaceful settlement of international disputes regarding economic matters, more particularly commercial and Customs matters. The Council regarded this "Memorandum" as so valuable a compendium of information for all persons interested in the question that it decided, at its September 1931 session, to communicate it to the Members of the League of Nations.

3. This Memorandum proved to the Economic Committee that the network of contractual inter-State undertakings which might be applied for the peaceful settlement of economic disputes arising between States was already so widespread and interlocked that the creation of a new body to carry out the same work in this category of disputes would complicate what was already a sufficiently confused situation and would cause overlapping, doubts, and even conflicts of jurisdiction.

In these circumstances the establishment of a special new organisation seemed to be superfluous, if not actually harmful.

4. On the other hand, is the present situation entirely satisfactory? If so, what were the reasons which led the French delegation to make its proposal?

A careful enquiry into the present situation reveals many drawbacks.

(a) First the *slow and laborious procedure* of the permanent organisations, or organisations created *ad hoc* for the settlement of disputes, is ill-adapted to the speed with which economic conditions are developing at the present time. The circumstances which give rise to the dispute are often entirely different when the decision is finally given.

(b) Moreover, *bodies composed of judges*, who cannot be thoroughly well acquainted with all the details of economic life, and who are rather inclined to rely on criteria of pure law in judging cases in which situations of fact and technical considerations are of predominant importance, do not always appear to operate in a way satisfactory to the parties. Moreover, it appears, from a recent order issued by the Permanent Court of International Justice, that the Court itself is of the opinion that judicial settlement is not always the best way of settling disputes of an economic nature.²

¹ See document C.203.M.96.1930.II, pages 16 and 25.

² Order of December 6th, 1930, concerning the case of the Free Zones of Upper Savoy and the district of Gex. Publications of the Permanent Court of International Justice, Series A, No. 24.

(c) Finally, *the choice of the persons called upon to act as arbitrators or conciliators* often—particularly as regards nationality—causes so much anxiety and leads to such difficult and complex negotiations that in many cases the parties, though they desire to settle the dispute, hesitate in face of the numerous difficulties involved in selecting arbitrators in whom they have confidence, so that confused situations are perpetuated and regrettable misunderstandings arise.

5. Having decided, for the reasons explained in paragraph 3, not to recommend the creation of a new organ, but fully appreciating the reasons which led the French delegation to make its proposal, and being desirous of remedying one at least of the most serious drawbacks which, in practice, hinder the satisfactory operation of procedures of arbitration and conciliation, *the Economic Committee is unanimously of opinion that the League of Nations might—without in any way modifying the existing legal situation or imposing any new obligations on States—render considerable service to the States concerned by endeavouring to facilitate, through appropriate procedure, the choice of the conciliators or experts to be consulted, to whom the parties might submit disputes of an economic nature.*

6. Under these circumstances, *the Economic Committee proposes to the Council to establish a group of experts to whom the interested parties might apply for the peaceful settlement of economic disputes.*

A draft set of Rules is attached to the present report.

The draft set of Rules *is not intended to become an international convention.* It will come into force by a decision of the Council. The experts appointed by the Council will be at the disposal of the various States, provided the latter agree to conform, when applying to the experts, to the provisions of the Rules.

7. The main features of the procedure proposed by the Economic Committee are as follows:

- (a) No permanent body will be set up.
- (b) States will not enter into any obligations.
- (c) The experts placed at the disposal of the States concerned will be appointed by the Council. They will be fourteen in number.¹
- (d) The dispute to be submitted to experts must be of an economic nature.
- (e) A dispute is only laid before experts at the common and express desire of the litigant parties.
- (f) All States, whether Members of the League or not, may apply to the experts.
- (g) The parties to the dispute will themselves decide the number of experts to whom they wish to submit their dispute.
- (h) The parties themselves will choose (experts of their own nationality being excluded) from the group of experts appointed by the Council those to whom they desire to submit the dispute, but they may instruct the Chairman of the Economic Committee to make the choice for them.
- (i) The parties themselves will decide the terms of reference to be given to the experts (advisory opinion, proposal for conciliation, arbitral award).

8. *In conclusion,* the Economic Committee feels that it would be desirable to set up the group of experts as outlined above. This could be obtained through a resolution of the Council. This resolution should be communicated immediately to all Members of the League, together with the present report.

¹ This figure is regarded as a minimum which would in all circumstances provide the parties with persons acquainted with the economic conditions of the principal countries and the various branches of national economy.

Genève, le 9 avril 1932.

SOCIÉTÉ DES NATIONS

COMITÉ ÉCONOMIQUE

**ÉTUDES RELATIVES AU PROBLÈME DES
« RAPPROCHEMENTS ÉCONOMIQUES EUROPÉENS »**

PREMIÈRE SÉRIE

**CHIFFRES ESSENTIELS DU COMMERCE
EXTÉRIEUR DES PAYS DANUBIENS**

Données réunies par le Secrétariat
sur la base des statistiques officielles.

N. B. — Ce document n'existe qu'en français.

PRÉFACE.

C'est à l'usage des membres du Comité économique et comme contribution à l'étude du problème des « Rapprochements économiques européens », que la Section des Relations économiques a réuni les données statistiques reproduites dans la présente brochure.

Elle ne prétend pas fournir un tableau complet du commerce de chacun des pays danubiens¹. A cet égard, les données statistiques nationales sont beaucoup plus complètes et précises.

Mais ce que les statistiques nationales ne donnent pas, c'est une vue d'ensemble sur les problèmes essentiels que fait surgir l'hypothèse d'une construction économique danubienne.

Ce programme de « Rapprochements économiques » pose immédiatement certaines questions fondamentales relatives à la structure des échanges commerciaux de ces pays. Le présent document aura atteint son but s'il contribue à fournir les éléments indispensables à l'étude de ces questions. Les plus importants de ces éléments sont condensés dans de courtes notes suivies des données statistiques correspondantes.

Chaque fois qu'il a été possible, et notamment dans les tableaux généraux, on a donné les chiffres relatifs aux années de 1928 à 1931. Toutefois, pour les tableaux indiquant les importations et exportations des articles principaux, on a dû se limiter à une seule année pour éviter un retard qui eut enlevé à ce travail une grande partie de son utilité.

Le choix s'est alors porté, suivant le cas, sur l'année 1928 ou 1929, car il y avait intérêt à montrer la situation telle qu'elle existait avant d'être influencée et défigurée par la crise.

Les graphiques insérés dans le texte se réfèrent à l'année 1928.

Les données relatives au commerce des pays danubiens, considérés tour à tour comme un ensemble ou séparément, sont complétées par des données afférentes aux autres pays avec lesquels les premiers entretiennent, en Europe, des relations commerciales particulièrement importantes: Allemagne, Grande-Bretagne, Bulgarie, France, Italie, Pologne et Suisse.

Les autres marchés, notamment les marchés extraeuropéens, n'ont été pris en considération que lorsque c'était indispensable pour donner un aperçu complet de la situation.

Des tableaux et de brefs commentaires ont été, en outre, consacrés au commerce de certaines matières premières et de quelques produits agricoles de première importance. Les statistiques sont tirées des sources officielles.

Genève, le 9 avril 1932.

P. STOPPANI,

Section des Relations économiques.

¹ Dans le présent document, l'expression « pays danubiens » comprend, sauf indication contraire, les pays suivants: Autriche, Hongrie, Roumanie, Tchécoslovaquie et Yougoslavie.

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Première Partie.

COMMERCE DES PAYS DANUBIENS CONSIDÉRÉS COMME UN ENSEMBLE.

I. VALEUR DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR DES CINQ PAYS DANUBIENS.

La valeur globale du commerce extérieur (importations et exportations) des cinq pays danubiens *entre eux* a été:

En 1928 de	969.860.000 dollars.
1929 »	986.050.000 »
1930 »	821.490.000 »
1931 »	536.060.000 »

La valeur globale du commerce extérieur (importations et exportations) des cinq pays danubiens *avec le reste du monde* a été:

En 1928 de	1.982.960.000 dollars.
1929 »	1.977.630.000 »
1930 »	1.666.190.000 »
1931 »	1.347.950.000 »

Ces derniers chiffres se subdivisent comme suit:

Les cinq pays danubiens ont *acheté* au reste du monde:

En 1928 pour	1.095.630.000 dollars.
1929 »	1.073.600.000 »
1930 »	953.610.000 »
1931 »	661.400.000 »

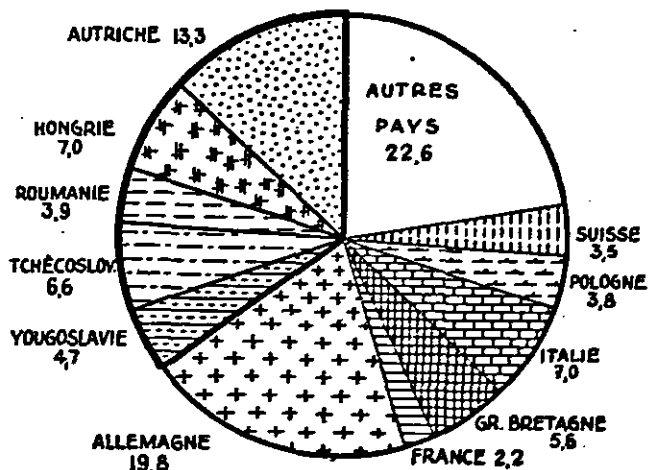
Les mêmes pays ont *vendu* au reste du monde:

En 1928 pour	887.330.000 dollars.
1929 »	904.030.000 »
1930 »	812.580.000 »
1931 »	686.550.000 »

2. IMPORTANCE DU GROUPE DANUBIEN COMME FOURNISSEUR.

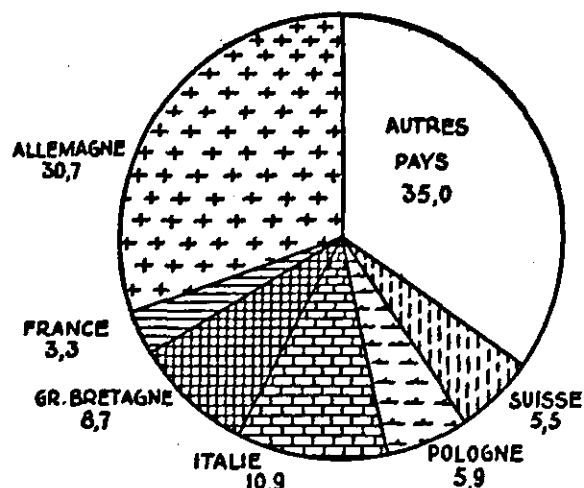
A.

Comment se répartissent les exportations globales du *groupe danubien* d'après leur destination.



B.

Comment se subdivise la part des exportations du *groupe danubien* qui est dirigée vers l'extérieur.



Si l'on considère les cinq pays danubiens comme un ensemble, on constate qu'ils ont placé, en 1928¹, 35,5% de leurs exportations à l'intérieur de leur propre groupe. On constate, en outre, que, pour chacun de ces pays, le débouché constitué par les quatre autres est plus important que n'importe quel autre débouché.

Cependant cette importance relative du débouché danubien a diminué sensiblement de 1928 à 1931, passant de 35,5 % à 28,5 %, ce qui montre la tendance de ces pays à rechercher de plus en plus des débouchés extérieurs.

Parmi ces derniers, l'Allemagne et l'Italie jouent un rôle prépondérant. Ainsi, l'Allemagne absorbe 19,8 % et l'Italie 7 % des exportations totales des cinq pays, de sorte que si l'on groupe les sept pays mentionnés (cinq danubiens, l'Allemagne et l'Italie), on constate qu'ils absorbent à eux seuls plus de 62 % de toutes les exportations danubiennes.

Après l'Allemagne et l'Italie, se place la Grande-Bretagne comme gros acheteur des produits danubiens, dont elle absorbe environ 5,6 %. Viennent ensuite les marchés suisse, polonais et français, où se dirigent respectivement 3,5 %, 3,8 % et 2,2 % des exportations totales danubiennes.

Toutefois, l'intérêt que chacun de ces débouchés extra-danubiens représente pour chacun des pays danubiens varie très fortement suivant le pays qu'on examine². Ainsi, si l'Allemagne se place au premier rang en ce qui concerne quatre de ces pays, son rôle est fortement dépassé par celui de l'Italie en ce qui concerne la Yougoslavie.

En outre, l'importance relative de chacun des marchés considérés s'est modifiée au cours des quatre dernières années. C'est ainsi que la consommation des marchandises provenant des cinq pays danubiens a diminué en Allemagne et en Pologne, tandis qu'elle a augmenté en Grande-Bretagne, France, Suisse et Italie.

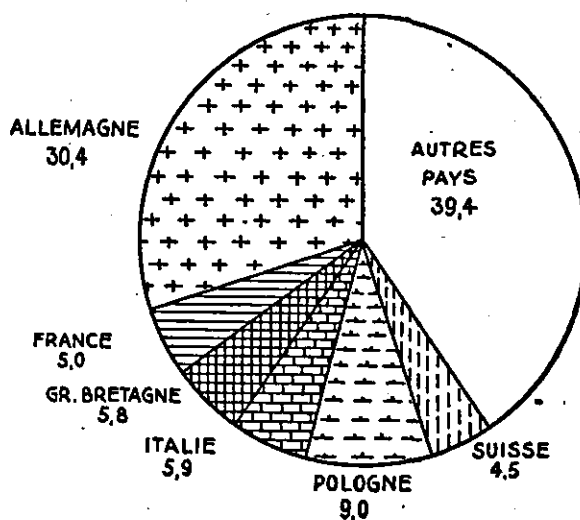
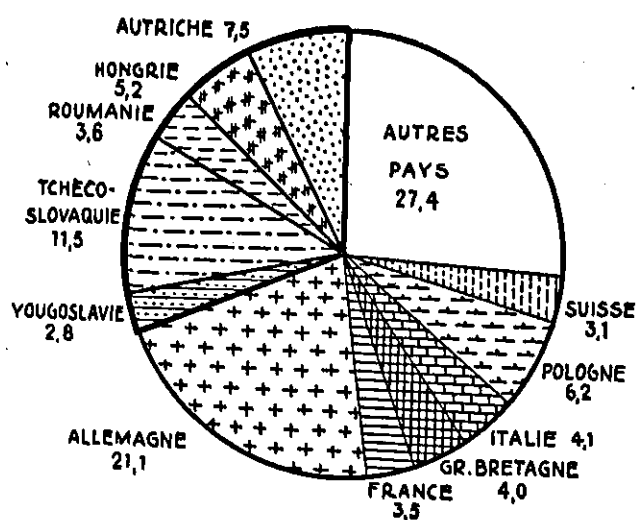
3. IMPORTANCE DU GROUPE DANUBIEN COMME ACHETEUR.

C.

D.

Comment se répartissent les importations globales du groupe danubien d'après leurs provenances.

Importance relative des fournisseurs extérieurs du groupe danubien.



Pour les importations, la situation est à peu près la même que pour les exportations. Ici également, le commerce des cinq pays entre eux joue le rôle principal (30%). Pour chacun d'eux, il est donc supérieur au commerce d'importation avec n'importe quel autre pays, sauf dans le cas de la Tchécoslovaquie, à laquelle l'Allemagne fournit plus de marchandises que les quatre autres pays danubiens réunis.

En dehors du groupe, l'Allemagne, premier client des pays danubiens, est en même temps leur plus important fournisseur puisqu'elle leur livre 21% des marchandises qu'ils importent. Suit à une distance considérable la Pologne, qui fournit au groupe danubien 6% de ses importations. Viennent après, en quantités égales, la Grande-Bretagne et l'Italie, dont chacune contribue pour environ 4% à l'approvisionnement des pays danubiens. La France participe aux importations de ces pays avec 3,5% et la Suisse avec 3,1%.

La diminution de l'importance relative du commerce des cinq pays danubiens entre eux, au cours des quatre années 1928 à 1931, que nous avons constatée pour leurs exportations, existe

¹ Les chiffres cités par la suite se rapportent également, sauf indication contraire, à l'année 1928, considérée comme année normale.

² Voir les graphiques consacrés à chacun de ces pays. (Deuxième Partie).

aussi en ce qui concerne les importations, mais elle est moins considérable et ne se réfère en outre qu'à l'année 1931.

Dans l'ordre d'importance des fournisseurs extra-danubiens du groupe danubien que nous avons considérés, aucun changement considérable ne s'est produit au cours des quatre dernières années.

4. DIMINUTION DE LA VALEUR DES ÉCHANGES ENTRE LES CINQ PAYS DANUBIENS.

On trouvera plus loin¹ des tableaux indiquant l'évolution du commerce des pays danubiens entre eux pour les toutes dernières années et notamment depuis 1930.

Ces tableaux permettent de constater que la valeur de ces échanges a partout fortement diminué, ce qui correspond du reste à l'évolution du commerce extérieur de ces pays avec le reste du monde et qui s'explique par la crise économique.

Cependant, en parcourant ces tableaux, il est nécessaire de se rappeler que, par suite d'une baisse générale des prix — qu'on peut évaluer, en moyenne, à 30 % —, à la chute des valeurs ne correspond pas une chute égale des quantités. Cette observation est d'autant plus essentielle en ce qui concerne les produits agricoles dont les prix ont accusé une baisse beaucoup plus considérable, de sorte que les exportations des pays agricoles ont diminué en quantités beaucoup moins que ne semblerait l'indiquer la ligne descendante de la valeur de ces exportations. Dans quelques cas même, les quantités peuvent avoir augmenté malgré la diminution de leur valeur globale.

Tout en tenant compte de ce fait, on constate que le commerce, à l'intérieur du groupe danubien, a subi une forte diminution, aussi bien en ce qui concerne les exportations que les importations. Cette règle, toutefois, n'est pas sans exception, notamment en ce qui concerne les exportations de la Yougoslavie et de la Roumanie.

¹ Voir « Deuxième Partie ».

A. RÉPARTITION DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR DE CHACUN DES CINQ PAYS DANUBIENS, EN 1929.
(en milliers de dollars.)

Importations

Pays importateurs	Total	Pays de provenance														
		Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchéco-slovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 5 pays		Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Bulgarie	Autres pays
							Valeur	%								
Autriche . . .	467.810	—	46.220	18.010	83.350	18.670	166.250	35,5	98.070	12.470	16.870	17.010	41.100	20.990	2.500	92.550
Hongrie. . . .	185.080	24.380	—	16.730	39.790	9.370	90.270	48,8	36.980	4.310	5.220	8.160	8.860	4.880	1.740	24.660
Roumanie. . .	176.490	16.130	8.460	—	22.640	18.450	65.680	37,2	50.640	4.670	11.260	8.770	7.280	3.320	190	24.680
Tchécoslovaquie	589.600	45.820	28.500	13.970	—	10.040	98.330	16,7	147.590	22.530	23.950	13.620	38.390	14.330	2.200	228.660
Yougoslavie. .	133.670	23.300	8.620	3.210	23.390	—	58.520	43,8	20.910	5.300	7.500	14.480	2.990	1.970	100	21.900

Exportations

Pays exportateurs	Total	Pays de destination														
		Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchéco-slovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 5 pays		Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Bulgarie	Autres pays
							Valeur	%								
Autriche . . .	312.960	—	23.850	15.860	42.140	23.930	105.780	33,9	49.700	10.760	13.920	28.170	15.100	17.710	3.520	68.300
Hongrie. . . .	180.710	54.910	—	8.190	29.600	10.660	103.360	57,2	21.090	2.250	6.470	12.450	3.030	7.270	1.500	23.290
Roumanie. . .	173.690	20.830	17.280	—	13.870	3.280	55.260	31,8	39.360	9.120	13.810	10.750	3.140	2.140	4.250	35.860
Tchécoslovaquie	604.310	90.720	38.540	22.790	—	33.750	185.800	30,8	116.390	9.440	41.970	16.580	26.260	16.520	5.390	185.960
Yougoslavie. .	139.360	21.790	9.470	18.040	7.500	—	56.800	40,7	11.800	5.560	1.870	34.690	1.580	3.100	1.690	22.270

Balance

	Balance Totale	Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchéco-slovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 5 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Bulgarie	Autres pays
Autriche . . .	— 154.850	—	— 22.370	— 2.150	— 41.210	+ 5.260	— 60.470	— 48.370	— 1.710	— 2.950	+ 11.160	— 26.000	— 3.280	+ 1.020	— 24.250
Hongrie. . . .	— 4.370	+ 30.530	—	— 8.540	— 10.190	+ 1.290	+ 13.090	— 15.890	— 2.060	+ 1.250	+ 4.290	— 5.830	+ 2.390	— 240	— 1.370
Roumanie. . .	— 2.800	+ 4.700	+ 8.820	—	— 8.770	— 15.170	— 10.420	— 11.280	+ 4.450	+ 2.550	+ 1.980	— 4.140	— 1.180	+ 4.060	+ 11.180
Tchécoslovaquie	+ 14.710	+ 44.900	+ 10.040	+ 8.820	—	+ 23.710	+ 87.470	— 31.200	— 13.090	+ 18.020	+ 2.960	— 12.130	+ 2.190	+ 3.190	— 42.700
Yougoslavie. .	+ 5.690	— 1.510	+ 850	+ 14.830	— 15.890	—	— 1.720	— 9.110	+ 260	— 5.630	+ 20.210	— 1.410	+ 1.130	+ 1.590	+ 370

B. a) COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR TOTAL DES CINQ PAYS DANUBIENS ENTRE EUX ET AVEC LES AUTRES PAYS.

(En milliers de dollars.)

En examinant dans son ensemble le commerce extérieur total des cinq pays danubiens entre eux et avec les autres pays, on a obtenu les tableaux qui suivent.

Pour établir le tableau relatif à l'importation, on a tout d'abord additionné les chiffres de l'importation (quelle qu'en soit la provenance), de chacun des cinq pays danubiens. Les colonnes groupées sous la rubrique générale « Pays de provenance », montrent comment est alimentée cette importation totale, en donnant le détail, en valeurs et en pourcentages, d'après les pays de provenance, danubiens ou non.

Pour établir le tableau relatif à l'exportation, on a procédé d'une manière analogue, c'est-à-dire qu'on a additionné les valeurs exportées (vers n'importe quelle destination) pour chacun des cinq pays danubiens. Les colonnes groupées sous la rubrique « Pays de destination » montrent vers quels pays cette exportation totale se dirige, en valeurs absolues et en pourcentages.

Importation	Total des importations des cinq pays danubiens	Pays de provenance												
		Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 5 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Autres pays
Années														
1928	1.578.080 100%	118.750 7,5%	81.460 5,2%	56.890 3,6%	181.590 11,5%	43.760 2,8%	482.450 30,6%	333.380 21,1%	54.480 3,5%	63.670 4,0%	64.170 4,1%	98.130 6,2%	49.990 3,1%	431.810 27,4%
1929	1.552.650 100%	109.630 7,1%	91.800 5,9%	51.920 3,4%	169.170 10,9%	56.530 3,6%	479.050 30,9%	354.190 22,8%	49.280 3,2%	64.800 4,2%	62.040 4,0%	98.620 6,4%	45.490 2,8%	399.180 25,7%
1930	1.255.720 100%	88.970 7,1%	80.070 6,4%	51.690 4,1%	139.500 11,1%	41.880 3,3%	402.110 32,0%	286.520 22,8%	45.890 3,7%	54.780 4,4%	58.380 4,6%	69.790 5,6%	37.690 3,0%	300.560 23,9%
1931	923.790 100%	56.630 6,1%	38.890 4,2%	47.720 5,2%	85.820 9,3%	33.330 3,6%	262.390 28,4%	228.090 24,7%	32.600 3,5%	43.640 4,7%	43.190 4,7%	52.460 5,7%	30.180 3,3%	231.240 25,0%

Exportation	Total des exportations des cinq pays danubiens	Pays de destination												
		Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 5 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Autres pays
Années														
1928	1.374.740 100%	182.910 13,3%	96.690 7,0%	53.420 3,9%	90.370 6,6%	64.020 4,7%	487.410 35,5%	272.220 19,8%	29.380 2,2%	77.320 5,6%	96.400 7,0%	52.560 3,8%	48.680 3,5%	310.770 22,6%
1929	1.411.030 100%	188.250 13,3%	89.140 6,3%	64.880 4,7%	93.110 6,5%	71.620 5,1%	507.000 35,9%	238.340 16,9%	37.130 2,7%	78.040 5,5%	102.640 7,3%	49.110 3,5%	46.740 3,3%	352.030 24,9%
1930	1.231.960 100%	153.490 12,5%	68.300 5,5%	38.350 3,1%	80.520 6,5%	78.720 6,4%	419.380 34,0%	197.160 16,0%	42.550 3,5%	85.150 6,9%	115.620 9,4%	35.860 2,9%	40.600 3,3%	295.640 24,0%
1931	960.220 100%	113.230 11,8%	36.870 3,8%	21.590 2,3%	56.130 5,8%	45.850 4,8%	273.670 28,5%	166.900 17,4%	53.030 5,5%	81.110 8,4%	72.550 7,5%	23.040 2,5%	41.890 4,4%	248.030 25,8%

B. b) COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR DES CINQ PAYS DANUBIENS, CONSIDÉRÉS COMME FORMANT UN GROUPE, AVEC LES AUTRES PAYS.

Dans les deux tableaux suivants, on a examiné le commerce extérieur que les cinq pays danubiens, considérés comme formant un groupe, font avec tous les autres pays ; c'est-à-dire qu'on a fait abstraction de la partie du commerce extérieur que les cinq pays danubiens font entre eux. Ainsi, dans la colonne « Total » figurent les chiffres obtenus en déduisant des chiffres du commerce total extérieur ceux relatifs au commerce des pays danubiens entre eux.

Importation

(Valeur en milliers de dollars.)

Années	Total ¹	Pays de provenance						
		Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Autres pays
1928	1.095.630 100 %	333.380 30,4 %	54.480 5,0 %	63.670 5,8 %	64.170 5,9 %	98.130 9,0 %	49.990 4,5 %	431.810 39,4 %
1929	1.073.600 100 %	354.190 33,0 %	49.280 4,6 %	64.800 6,0 %	62.040 5,8 %	98.620 9,2 %	45.490 4,2 %	399.180 37,2 %
1930	853.610 100 %	286.520 33,6 %	45.890 5,4 %	54.780 6,4 %	58.380 6,8 %	69.790 8,2 %	37.690 4,4 %	300.560 35,2 %
1931	661.400 100 %	228.090 34,5 %	32.600 4,9 %	43.640 6,6 %	43.190 6,5 %	52.460 7,9 %	30.180 4,6 %	231.240 35,0 %

Exportation

(Valeur en milliers de dollars.)

Années	Total ²	Pays de destination						
		Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Autres pays
1928	887.330 100 %	272.220 30,7 %	29.380 3,3 %	77.320 8,7 %	96.400 10,9 %	52.560 5,9 %	48.680 5,5 %	310.770 35,0 %
1929	904.030 100 %	238.340 26,4 %	37.130 4,1 %	78.040 8,6 %	102.640 11,4 %	49.110 5,4 %	46.740 5,2 %	352.030 38,9 %
1930	812.580 100 %	197.160 24,3 %	42.550 5,2 %	85.150 10,5 %	115.620 14,2 %	35.860 4,4 %	40.600 5,0 %	295.640 36,4 %
1931	686.550 100 %	166.900 24,3 %	53.030 7,7 %	81.110 11,8 %	72.550 10,6 %	23.040 3,4 %	41.890 6,1 %	248.030 36,1 %

¹ Des importations des cinq pays danubiens provenant des autres pays.

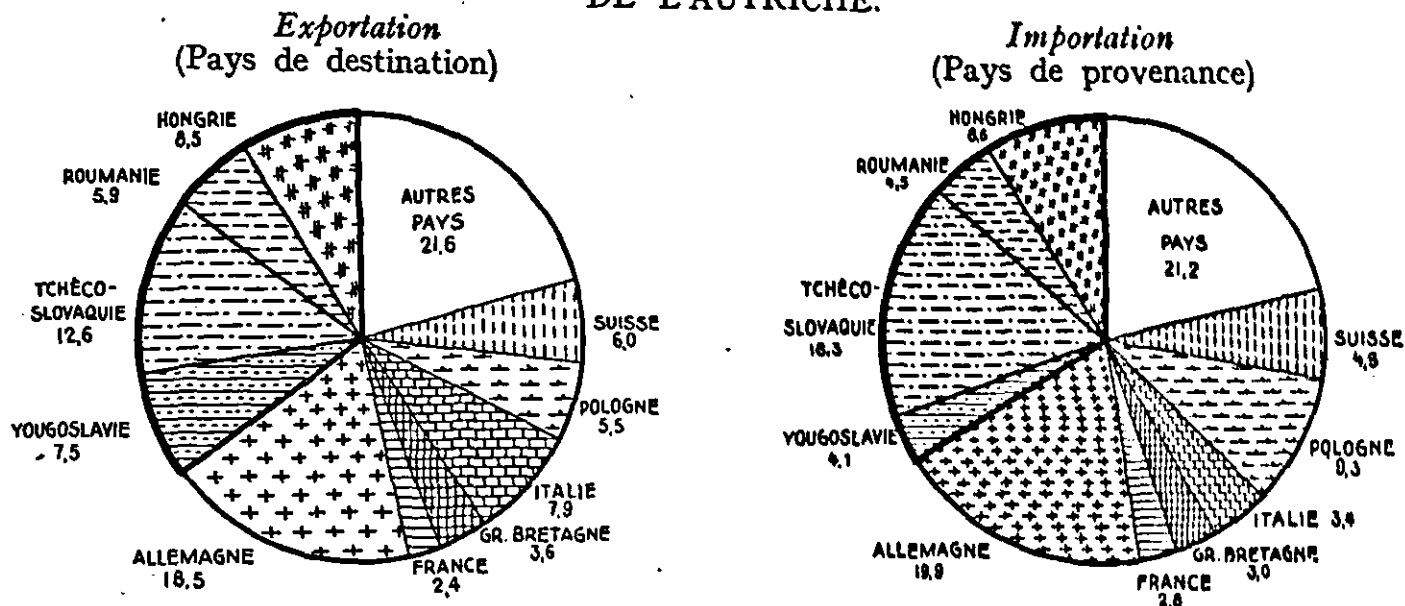
² Des exportations des cinq pays danubiens à destination des autres pays.

Deuxième Partie.

COMMERCE DES PAYS DANUBIENS CONSIDÉRÉS INDIVIDUELLEMENT.

1. AUTRICHE.

I. CARACTÉRISTIQUES ESSENTIELLES DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR DE L'AUTRICHE.



En 1928, 35% environ du commerce extérieur de l'Autriche s'est fait avec les quatre autres pays danubiens (34,5% des exportations et 35,5% des importations).

En dehors du groupe danubien, l'Allemagne est, pour le commerce extérieur de l'Autriche, le pays le plus important; car environ le cinquième des échanges commerciaux autrichiens s'est fait avec l'Allemagne (18,5% des exportations et 19,9% des importations).

Si l'on compare l'importance des différents pays (y compris les pays danubiens) comme *débouchés* pour l'Autriche, l'Allemagne tient la première place, suivie de la Tchécoslovaquie. Ces deux pays ont absorbé respectivement, en 1928, 18,5% et 12,6% des exportations autrichiennes. Viennent ensuite, par ordre d'importance, la Hongrie, l'Italie, la Yougoslavie, la Suisse, la Roumanie et la Pologne.

Il est toutefois à remarquer que, depuis 1928, l'Autriche tend à élargir ses débouchés en dehors du groupe danubien, et notamment en Europe occidentale, ce qui diminue d'autant pour elle l'importance relative du marché danubien.

En revanche, on voit augmenter d'une manière très sensible les exportations vers la Grande-Bretagne, la France, l'Italie et la Suisse.

Comme *fournisseurs* de l'Autriche, c'est la Pologne qui vient tout de suite après l'Allemagne et la Tchécoslovaquie; elle est suivie de la Hongrie, la Suisse, la Roumanie, la Yougoslavie et l'Italie.

Dans le complexe danubien, le rôle de l'Autriche est avant tout celui d'un fournisseur de produits industriels, qui constituent plus des quatre cinquièmes de ses *exportations*. Les *matières brutes* ne figurent dans ces exportations que pour la sixième partie. C'est la Tchécoslovaquie qui absorbe la plus grande quantité de ces deux catégories de produits. Viennent ensuite, par ordre d'importance, la Hongrie, la Yougoslavie et la Roumanie.

Dans le commerce danubien, parmi les produits fabriqués exportés par l'Autriche, les *textiles* (cotonnades, lainages, confection, soieries, etc.) occupent une place particulièrement importante: plus d'un tiers des exportations totales vers les pays danubiens. Viennent ensuite les *produits métallurgiques*: le cinquième environ des exportations totales autrichiennes vers les pays danubiens.

La troisième place est occupée par les *produits de l'industrie du papier* (6,2% des exportations totales autrichiennes vers les pays danubiens), suivis du *cuir* et des articles en *cuir*.

L'Autriche est un grand exportateur de bois. Mais ce bois trouve ses débouchés les plus importants en dehors du groupe danubien (Allemagne, Italie, France et Suisse). Toutefois, en parties à peu près égales, la Tchécoslovaquie et la Hongrie absorbent 13% des exportations autrichiennes de bois.

Les *importations autrichiennes provenant des autres pays danubiens* se composent pour environ la moitié, de *produits d'alimentation* (y compris les boissons et les animaux vivants), fournis 50% par la Hongrie et 25% par la Roumanie.

Les *produits fabriqués* (surtout textiles et produits métallurgiques) représentent le tiers des importations autrichiennes provenant des pays danubiens, et ils sont fournis en presque totalité par la Tchécoslovaquie, qui est également le fournisseur principal de l'Autriche en matières premières (combustibles, minéraux, métaux, etc.).

II. DONNÉES STATISTIQUES.

a) CHIFFRES GLOBAUX ANNUELS.

EXPORTATIONS (en milliers de schillings).

Destination	1928		1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%
Hongrie	187.472	8,5	169.156	7,6	122.094	6,5	92.100	6,9
Roumanie	130.980	5,9	112.499	5,1	85.691	4,6	45.540	3,4
Tchécoslovaquie	277.068	12,6	298.885	13,5	227.999	12,1	157.370	11,7
Yougoslavie	164.637	7,5	169.642	7,7	150.210	8,0	100.425	7,5
Total	760.157	34,5	750.182	33,9	585.994	31,2	395.435	29,5
Allemagne	407.320	18,5	352.500	15,9	331.509	17,6	217.148	16,2
France	52.428	2,4	76.338	3,4	78.322	4,2	63.171	4,7
Grande-Bretagne	80.199	3,6	98.707	4,5	102.031	5,4	93.224	7,0
Italie	174.342	7,9	199.800	9,0	176.390	9,4	109.625	8,2
Pologne	121.369	5,5	107.067	4,8	83.543	4,5	57.986	4,3
Suisse	133.153	6,0	125.627	5,7	109.917	5,9	99.736	7,4
Autres pays	479.215	21,6	509.377	22,8	411.908	21,8	304.229	22,7
Total général	2.208.183	100	2.219.598	100	1.879.614	100	1.340.554	100

IMPORTATIONS (en milliers de schillings).

Provenance	1928		1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%
Hongrie	279.218	8,6	327.779	9,9	285.142	10,4	196.935	8,9
Roumanie	146.793	4,5	127.721	3,8	130.545	4,8	122.069	5,5
Tchécoslovaquie	593.949	18,3	591.130	17,8	479.625	17,5	366.864	16,6
Yougoslavie	131.501	4,1	132.425	4,0	149.240	5,5	95.367	4,3
Total	1.151.461	35,5	1.179.055	35,5	1.044.552	38,2	781.235	35,3
Allemagne	644.843	19,9	695.517	21,0	580.024	21,2	490.785	22,2
France	89.030	2,8	88.455	2,7	71.248	2,6	56.501	2,6
Grande-Bretagne	97.775	3,0	119.655	3,6	93.537	3,4	75.547	3,4
Italie	110.552	3,4	120.597	3,6	107.138	3,9	93.948	4,3
Pologne	300.705	9,3	291.457	8,8	216.981	8,0	178.214	8,1
Suisse	158.774	4,9	148.830	4,5	116.404	4,2	94.307	4,3
Autres pays	686.035	21,2	674.121	20,3	509.045	18,5	437.697	19,8
Total général	3.239.175	100	3.317.687	100	2.738.929	100	2.208.234	100

BALANCE DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR (en milliers de schillings).

Pays	1928	1929	1930	1931
Hongrie	— 91.746	— 158.623	— 163.048	— 104.835
Roumanie	— 15.813	— 15.222	— 44.854	— 76.529
Tchécoslovaquie	— 316.881	— 292.245	— 251.626	— 209.494
Yougoslavie	+ 33.136	+ 37.217	+ 970	+ 5.058
Total	— 391.304	— 428.873	— 458.558	— 385.800
Allemagne	— 237.523	— 343.017	— 248.515	— 273.637
France	— 36.602	— 12.117	+ 7.074	+ 6.670
Grande-Bretagne	— 17.576	— 20.948	+ 8.494	+ 17.677
Italie	+ 63.790	+ 79.203	+ 69.252	+ 15.677
Pologne	— 179.336	— 184.390	— 133.438	— 120.228
Suisse	— 25.621	— 23.203	— 6.487	+ 5.429
Autres pays	— 206.820	— 164.744	— 97.137	— 133.468
Total général	— 1.030.992	— 1.098.089	— 859.315	— 867.680

b) CHIFFRES DÉTAILLÉS PAR MOIS.

(En milliers de schillings.)

	Hongrie		Roumanie		Tchécoslovaquie		Yougoslavie	
	mp.	Exp.	Imp.	E	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.
1929. . . .	327.779	169.156	127.721	112.499	591.130	298.885	132.425	169.642
1930 ¹	285.142	122.094	130.545	85.691	479.625	227.999	149.240	150.210
Janvier-juin.	158.177	59.258	66.629	43.804	237.995	117.434	76.904	73.539
Juillet . . .	27.564	9.302	11.105	5.084	37.012	17.405	11.088	10.212
Août. . . .	16.580	10.167	9.982	6.863	38.210	17.430	10.193	12.509
Septembre .	20.223	11.965	10.227	7.887	43.542	19.401	13.815	14.942
Octobre . .	20.164	10.580	8.905	7.086	42.818	19.411	10.222	12.669
Novembre .	19.644	10.252	11.041	7.172	43.347	17.845	12.564	11.784
Décembre. .	22.461	10.693	12.237	7.620	37.131	18.303	13.675	13.678
1931 ¹	196.935	92.100	122.069	45.540	366.864	157.370	95.367	100.425
Janvier-juin.	82.431	46.992	60.020	21.860	182.847	78.196	46.821	52.398
Juillet . . .	18.401	7.454	13.352	2.854	39.117	12.807	8.258	7.743
Août. . . .	13.445	6.107	8.369	3.193	34.130	11.295	6.814	7.676
Septembre .	15.484	8.526	10.369	3.659	26.042	13.931	8.441	9.780
Octobre . .	17.063	8.123	9.463	5.376	26.978	15.027	8.576	9.248
Novembre .	23.317	6.841	10.032	4.691	28.499	11.899	6.967	6.965
Décembre. .	26.369	8.295	10.154	3.897	28.938	14.593	9.338	6.593
1932								
Janvier . .	14.600	5.500	6.900	1.800	19.300	9.700	6.900	4.400

¹ La somme des chiffres mensuels ci-dessus ne concorde pas toujours avec les chiffres indiqués pour l'année correspondante. Les différences sont dues au fait que les statistiques les plus récentes donnent des chiffres définitifs pour les années, mais non pour les mois.

Autriche. — EXPORTATION PAR GROUPES DE MARCHANDISES (CLASSIFICATION DE BRUXELLES), EN 1928.

Groupes	Valeur (en milliers de schillings)	En % de l'expor- tation totale	Pays de destination														
			Hongrie	Rou- manie	Tchéco- slova- quie	Yougo- slavie	Total des 4 pays	Alle- magne	France	Grande- Bre- tagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats- Unis	Russie	Inde	Autres pays
I. Animaux vivants	22.892	1,0	101	15	164	97	377	21.549	30	4	393	19	484	1	—	—	35
	100%		0,4%	0,1%	0,7%	0,4%	1,6%	94,2%	0,1%	—	1,7%	0,1%	2,1%	—	—	—	0,2%
II. Aliments et boissons	53.549	2,4	3.210	257	5.557	1.672	10.696	19.249	669	748	12.677	877	3.732	1.364	15	50	3.472
	100%		6,0%	0,5%	10,4%	3,1%	20,0%	35,9%	1,3%	1,4%	23,7%	1,6%	7,0%	2,5%	—	0,1%	6,5%
III. Matières brutes ou simplement pré- parées	504.734	22,9	35.912	7.024	66.043	15.168	124.147	154.704	33.227	4.611	104.721	17.336	34.020	14.212	2.102	47	15.607
	100%		7,1%	1,4%	13,1%	3,0%	24,6%	30,7%	6,6%	0,9%	20,8%	3,4%	6,7%	2,8%	0,4%	—	3,1%
IV. Produits fabriqués	1.627.008	73,7	148.249	123.684	205.304	147.700	624.937	211.818	18.502	74.836	57.551	103.137	94.917	60.327	39.798	35.034	306.151
	100%		9,1%	7,6%	12,6%	9,1%	38,4%	13,0%	1,1%	4,6%	3,5%	6,3%	5,8%	3,7%	2,5%	2,2%	18,9%
Total	2.208.183	100	187.472	130.980	277.068	164.637	760.157	407.320	52.428	80.199	175.342	121.369	133.153	75.904	41.915	35.131	325.265
	100%		8,6%	5,9%	12,5%	7,5%	34,5%	18,5%	2,4%	3,6%	7,9%	5,5%	6,0%	3,4%	1,9%	1,6%	14,8%

IMPORTATION PAR GROUPES DE MARCHANDISES (CLASSIFICATION DE BRUXELLES), EN 1928.

Groupes	Valeur (en milliers de schillings)	En % de l'impor- tation totale	Pays de provenance														
			Hongrie	Rou- manie	Tchéco- slova- quie	Yougo- slavie	Total des 4 pays	Alle- magne	France	Grande- Bre- tagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats- Unis	Inde	Argen- tine	Autres pays
I. Animaux vivants	270.075	8,3	55.458	69.802	10.290	49.790	185.340	2.686	1	17	137	81.358	289	9	—	—	238
	100%		20,5%	25,9%	3,8%	18,4%	68,6%	1,0%	—	—	0,1%	30,1%	0,1%	—	—	—	0,1%
II. Aliments et boissons	747.493	23,1	179.222	33.977	93.697	47.194	354.090	30.402	6.083	1.712	58.972	60.180	5.952	46.430	8.146	34.328	141.198
	100%		24,0%	4,6%	12,5%	6,3%	47,4%	4,1%	0,8%	0,2%	7,9%	8,0%	0,8%	6,2%	1,1%	4,6%	18,9%
III. Matières brutes ou simplement pré- parées	939.023	29,0	28.427	39.546	117.785	27.484	213.242	128.814	12.578	15.413	25.353	146.018	19.100	143.052	41.976	7.686	185.791
	100%		3,0%	4,2%	12,6%	2,9%	22,7%	13,7%	1,3%	1,7%	2,7%	15,6%	2,0%	15,2%	4,5%	0,8%	19,8%
IV. Produits fabriqués	1.282.584	39,6	16.111	3.468	372.177	7.034	398.790	482.961	70.368	80.633	26.090	13.149	133.433	28.804	862	1.977	45.517
	100%		1,3%	0,3%	29,0%	0,5%	31,1%	37,7%	5,5%	6,3%	2,0%	1,0%	10,4%	2,4%	—	0,2%	3,6%
Total	3.239.175	100	279.218	146.793	593.949	131.502	151.462	644.863	89.030	97.775	110.552	300.705	158.774	218.295	50.984	43.991	372.744
	100%		8,6%	4,5%	18,3%	4,1%	35,5%	19,9%	2,8%	3,0%	3,2%	9,3%	4,9%	6,7%	1,6%	1,4%	11,5%

d) CHIFFRES PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES.

Autriche. — EXPORTATION PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES EN 1928.

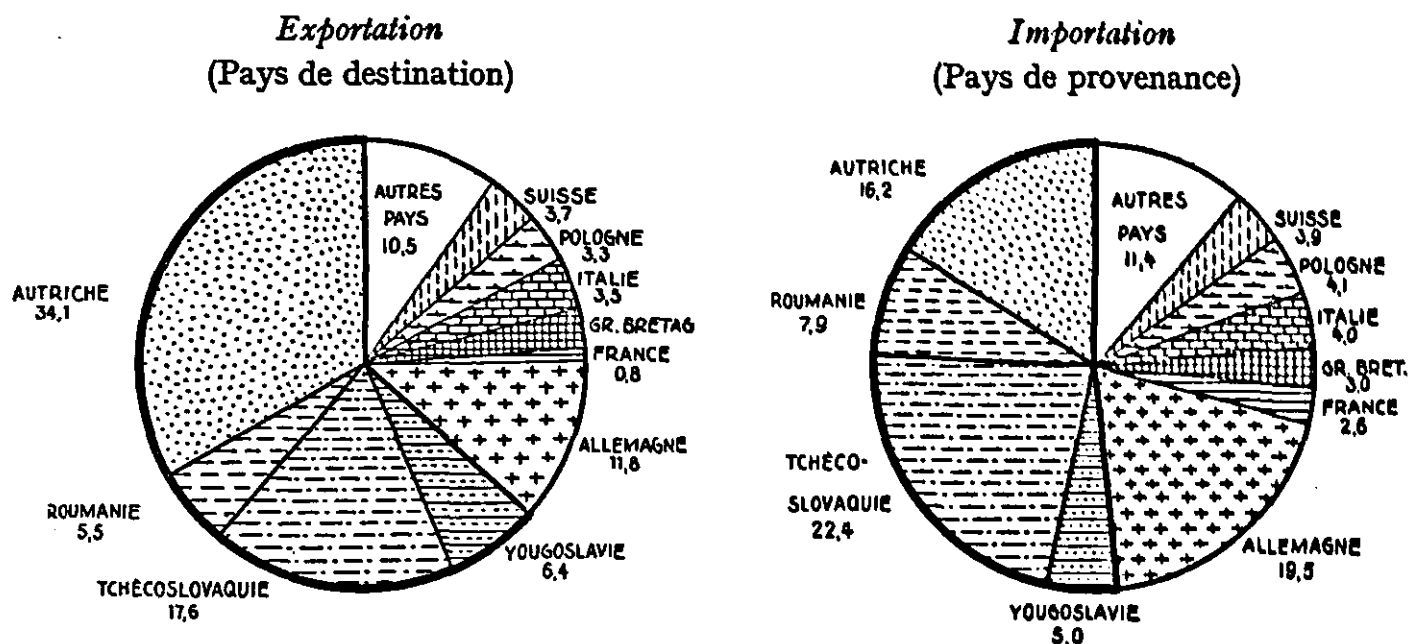
Marchandises exportées	Valeur en milliers de schillings	% de l'exportation totale	Pays de destination												
			Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats-Unis	Autres pays
Bois	248.335	11,2	16.992	11	15.889	149	33.041	95.286	23.429	47	69.069	37	20.927	100	6.399
	100%		6,8%	—	6,4%	0,1%	13,3%	38,4%	9,5%	—	27,8%	—	8,4%	—	2,6%
Articles en coton	229.191	10,4	25.957	39.658	13.213	25.769	104.597	13.800	434	5.713	1.811	5.669	52.644	2.071	42.452
	100%		11,3%	17,3%	5,8%	11,2%	45,6%	6,0%	0,2%	2,5%	0,8%	2,5%	23,0%	0,9%	18,5%
Ouvrages en fer	167.783	7,6	10.294	12.890	17.467	25.758	66.409	23.463	1.236	2.041	8.937	12.961	4.686	1.180	46.870
	100%		6,1%	7,7%	10,4%	15,4%	39,6%	14,0%	0,7%	1,2%	5,3%	7,7%	2,8%	0,7%	28,0%
Machines et appareils	158.600	7,2	8.459	16.618	15.723	15.655	56.455	14.179	949	8.327	7.323	21.557	1.937	3.549	44.324
	100%		5,3%	10,5%	9,9%	9,9%	35,6%	8,9%	0,6%	5,3%	4,6%	13,6%	1,2%	2,2%	28,0%
Articles en soie	149.971	6,8	15.284	3.164	67.783	6.720	92.951	6.714	1.746	7.425	2.155	2.958	4.956	8.732	22.334
	100%		10,2%	2,1%	45,2%	4,5%	62,0%	4,5%	1,2%	5,0%	1,4%	2,0%	3,3%	5,8%	14,8%
Cuir, articles en cuir, sellerie . .	133.519	6,1	8.313	4.960	15.101	7.646	36.020	30.744	1.840	11.109	7.264	11.769	4.298	10.287	20.188
	100%		6,2%	3,7%	11,3%	5,7%	26,9%	23,0%	1,4%	8,3%	5,5%	8,8%	3,2%	7,7%	15,2%
Articles en laine	110.452	5,0	12.553	10.520	7.355	13.018	43.446	20.779	482	2.998	2.278	11.185	6.175	3.286	19.823
	100%		11,4%	9,5%	6,7%	11,8%	39,4%	18,8%	0,4%	2,7%	2,1%	10,1%	5,6%	3,0%	17,9%
Papier	108.032	4,9	23.291	3.822	3.215	11.533	41.861	2.805	847	5.469	5.339	4.055	1.838	1.417	44.401
	100%		21,6%	3,5%	3,0%	10,7%	38,8%	2,6%	0,8%	5,1%	4,9%	3,8%	1,7%	1,3%	41,0%
Vêtements et confection	94.971	4,3	7.009	3.137	6.006	4.697	20.849	15.783	2.264	9.939	2.333	2.984	3.326	4.757	32.736
	100%		7,4%	3,3%	6,3%	4,9%	21,9%	16,6%	2,4%	10,5%	2,5%	3,1%	3,5%	5,0%	34,5%
Ouvrages en autres métaux . .	92.302	4,2	4.298	5.279	7.788	6.404	23.769	12.356	1.765	3.418	3.620	6.650	3.089	4.759	32.876
	100%		4,7%	5,7%	8,4%	6,9%	25,7%	13,4%	1,9%	3,7%	3,9%	7,2%	3,4%	5,2%	35,6%
Véhicules	59.928	2,8	8.593	2.764	5.810	3.408	20.575	20.490	712	754	317	7.051	1.101	11	8.917
	100%		14,3%	4,6%	9,7%	5,7%	34,3%	34,2%	1,2%	1,3%	0,5%	11,8%	1,8%	—	14,9%
Pâte à papier	46.346	2,1	972	107	1.441	3.295	5.815	3.215	5.130	239	24.339	407	2.760	3.655	786
	100%		2,1%	0,2%	3,1%	7,1%	12,5%	6,9%	11,1%	0,5%	52,5%	0,9%	6,0%	7,9%	1,7%
Métaux bruts	44.221	2,0	3.120	1.715	8.184	4.173	17.192	13.549	3	548	2.978	1.250	6.124	6	2.571
	100%		7,1%	3,9%	18,5%	9,4%	38,9%	30,6%	—	1,2%	6,7%	2,8%	13,9%	—	5,9%
Autres produits	564.532	25,4	42.337	26.335	92.093	36.412	197.177	134.157	11.591	22.172	36.579	32.836	19.292	32.094	78.634
	100%		7,5%	4,7%	16,3%	6,5%	35,0%	23,8%	2,0%	3,9%	6,5%	5,8%	3,4%	5,7%	13,9%
Total (non compris lingots et espèces)	2.208.183	100	187.472	130.980	277.068	164.637	760.157	407.320	52.428	80.199	174.342	121.369	133.153	75.904	403.311
	100%		8,6%	5,9%	12,5%	7,5%	34,5%	18,5%	2,4%	3,6%	7,9%	5,5%	6,0%	3,4%	18,2%

Autriche. — IMPORTATION PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES EN 1928.

Marchandises importées	Valeur en milliers de schillings	% de l'importation totale	Pays de provenance												
			Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats-Unis	Autres pays
Animaux vivants	270.075	8,3	55.458	69.802	10.290	49.790	185.340	2.686	1	17	137	81.358	289	9	238
	100%		20,5%	25,9%	3,8%	18,4%	68,6%	1,0%	—	—	0,1%	30,1%	0,1%	—	0,1%
Combustibles, minéraux	226.119	7,0	2.588	—	68.811	777	72.176	28.007	—	184	—	120.080	5	—	5.667
	100%		1,2%	—	30,4%	0,3%	31,9%	12,4%	—	0,1%	—	53,1%	—	—	2,5%
Céréales	217.757	6,7	82.679	16.916	22.352	16.300	138.247	14.824	83	—	2.185	1.287	41	10.614	50.476
	100%		38,0%	7,8%	10,3%	7,5%	63,6%	6,8%	—	—	1,0%	0,6%	—	4,9%	23,1%
Articles en coton	214.536	6,6	870	25	91.532	54	92.481	34.236	6.051	21.791	2.883	674	—	100	1.755
	100%		0,4%	—	42,7%	—	43,1%	16,0%	2,8%	10,2%	1,3%	0,3%	—	—	0,9%
Articles en soie	188.417	5,8	5.874	27	78.417	39	84.357	20.624	23.434	1.903	11.219	304	42.956	128	3.492
	100%		3,1%	—	41,6%	—	44,7%	11,0%	12,4%	1,0%	6,0%	0,1%	22,8%	0,1%	1,9%
Articles en laine	165.900	5,1	761	20	78.347	61	79.189	34.897	7.427	21.911	2.542	5.957	5.903	160	7.914
	100%		0,5%	—	47,2%	—	47,7%	21,0%	4,5%	13,2%	1,5%	3,6%	3,6%	0,1%	4,8%
Machines et appareils	130.724	4,0	1.251	2	8.360	185	9.798	94.344	2.299	3.805	275	510	10.351	3.120	6.222
	100%		1,0%	—	6,4%	0,1%	7,5%	72,2%	1,8%	2,9%	0,2%	0,4%	7,9%	2,4%	4,7%
Ouvrages en métaux	126.308	3,9	1.536	20	35.627	355	37.538	67.309	3.855	3.514	285	2.772	3.697	2.753	4.585
	100%		1,2%	—	28,2%	0,3%	29,7%	53,3%	3,1%	2,8%	0,2%	2,2%	2,9%	2,2%	3,6%
Coton brut	115.660	3,6	418	170	1.115	103	1.806	648	21	292	38	94	190	86.152	26.419
	100%		0,4%	0,2%	0,9%	0,1%	1,6%	0,6%	—	0,3%	—	0,1%	0,2%	74,5%	22,7%
Denrées coloniales, épices, sucre .	100.614	3,1	4.651	55	42.814	11	47.531	1.182	175	543	317	47	1.662	1.221	47.936
	100%		4,6%	0,1%	42,6%	—	47,3%	1,2%	0,2%	0,5%	0,3%	—	1,7%	1,2%	47,6%
Métaux bruts	93.465	2,9	250	47	4.018	4.386	8.701	20.764	1.447	3.459	1.141	6.316	1.229	40.059	10.349
	100%		0,3%	0,1%	4,2%	4,7%	9,3%	22,2%	1,6%	3,7%	1,2%	6,7%	1,3%	42,9%	11,1%
Laine brute	89.043	2,7	1.113	152	2.438	90	3.793	17.954	3.122	5.038	713	275	14.881	443	42.824
	100%		1,2%	0,2%	2,7%	0,1%	4,2%	20,2%	3,5%	5,7%	0,8%	0,3%	16,7%	0,5%	48,1%
Farine	73.031	2,3	48.575	8.709	1.119	1.891	60.294	738	1.399	—	319	2	10	6.268	4.001
	100%		66,5%	11,9%	1,5%	2,6%	82,5%	1,0%	1,9%	—	0,4%	—	—	8,6%	5,6%
Viandes	71.834	2,2	6.658	5.195	6.198	9.318	27.369	455	—	—	607	37.806	5	134	5.458
	100%		9,3%	7,2%	8,6%	13,0%	38,1%	0,6%	—	—	0,9%	52,6%	—	0,2%	7,6%
Tabac	60.132	1,9	2.674	—	—	—	2.674	—	—	—	—	—	—	6.366	51.092
	100%		4,5%	—	—	—	4,5%	—	—	—	—	—	—	10,6%	84,9%
Autres articles	1.095.560	33,9	63.862	45.653	142.511	48.141	300.167	306.175	39.716	35.318	87.891	43.323	22.990	60.768	199.312
	100%		5,8%	4,2%	13,0%	4,4%	27,4%	27,9%	3,6%	3,2%	8,0%	4,0%	2,1%	5,5%	18,3%
Total (non compris lingots et espèces)	3.239.175	100	279.218	146.793	593.949	131.501	1.151.461	644.843	89.030	97.775	110.552	300.705	158.774	218.295	467.740
	100%		8,6%	4,5%	18,3%	4,1%	35,5%	19,9%	2,8%	3,0%	3,4%	9,3%	4,9%	6,7%	14,5%

2. HONGRIE.

I. CARACTÉRISTIQUES ESSENTIELLES DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR DE LA HONGRIE.



Pour la Hongrie, les échanges avec les autres pays danubiens présentent plus d'importance encore que pour n'importe lequel de ces pays.

En 1928, elle plaçait chez eux un peu plus des trois cinquièmes de toutes ses exportations, et elle y achetait la moitié des marchandises dont elle avait besoin.

Ses relations les plus intenses se faisaient avec l'Autriche et la Tchécoslovaquie qui absorbaient respectivement le tiers et le cinquième de ses exportations. Venaient ensuite comme débouchés, par ordre d'importance, l'Allemagne (11,8%), la Yougoslavie, la Roumanie, la Suisse, l'Italie et la Pologne.

Parmi les fournisseurs de la Hongrie, la Tchécoslovaquie tenait en 1928 la première place (22,4% des importations totales hongroises) et était suivie de près par l'Allemagne (19,5%) et par l'Autriche (16,2%). Venaient ensuite la Roumanie, la Yougoslavie, la Pologne et l'Italie.

Dans la période 1928-1931, les traits caractéristiques de ce tableau n'ont pas beaucoup changé en ce qui concerne les importations vers la Hongrie. Mais, en ce qui concerne ses exportations, l'importance du débouché danubien s'est abaissé de 63% en 1928 à 53% en 1930. Ce chiffre se trouve même réduit à 42,9% en 1931; d'ailleurs on ne saurait considérer cette modification comme durable, sa principale raison devant être recherchée dans l'absence d'un règlement contractuel des relations commerciales avec la Tchécoslovaquie.

Au contraire, dans la même période, l'importance des débouchés extérieurs augmentait: les exportations vers l'Italie passaient de 3,5% en 1928 à 12,9% en 1930 et 10,7% en 1931; les exportations vers la Grande-Bretagne suivaient une marche analogue; les exportations vers la Suisse et la France enregistraient également des avances considérables.

Dans le complexe danubien, le rôle de la Hongrie comme exportateur est double: à la Tchécoslovaquie et l'Autriche, elle fournit des produits de l'agriculture et de l'élevage. Vis-à-vis de la Roumanie et de la Yougoslavie, elle joue, dans des proportions beaucoup plus modestes, le rôle de fournisseur de certains produits industriels, notamment des textiles, des produits métallurgiques, machines, appareils électriques, etc.

Les céréales (froment et maïs) et les produits de l'élevage restent l'objet principal des exportations hongroises. En 1928, presque les trois quarts de ces produits trouvaient leur placement en premier lieu en Autriche, en second lieu en Tchécoslovaquie; mais c'est surtout pour ces articles qu'ont eu lieu les déplacements de débouchés dont il a été question plus haut: ainsi la Hongrie fournit de plus en plus de matières alimentaires à l'Italie, la Grande-Bretagne, la Suisse et l'Allemagne. La Pologne également a été, en 1928, un débouché intéressant, surtout pour le froment hongrois.

Les importations hongroises provenant des pays danubiens consistent surtout en textiles, en bois, en charbon, en huiles minérales, en produits métallurgiques et en produits de l'industrie du papier.

Presque la moitié des textiles achetés par la Hongrie proviennent, dans les années normales, de la Tchécoslovaquie et de l'Autriche, environ le quart étant fourni par la Suisse et par l'Allemagne. La Tchécoslovaquie et la Roumanie lui fournissent normalement la plus grande partie du bois, du charbon et des huiles minérales dont elle a besoin.

L'Autriche est le principal fournisseur de la Hongrie en produits métallurgiques et, en général, en produits finis de qualité.

II. DONNÉES STATISTIQUES.

a) CHIFFRES GLOBAUX ANNUELS.

EXPORTATIONS (en milliers de pengös).

Destination	1928		1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%
Tchécoslovaquie	145.184	17,6	170.097	16,4	153.237	16,8	24.196	4,3
Autriche	281.960	34,1	315.552	30,4	256.004	28,1	170.884	30,1
Roumanie	45.097	5,5	47.067	4,5	29.430	3,2	20.138	3,6
Yougoslavie	52.493	6,4	61.285	5,9	51.810	5,7	32.628	5,8
Total	524.734	63,6	594.001	57,2	490.481	53,8	247.846	43,8
Allemagne	97.810	11,8	121.197	11,7	94.124	10,3	68.371	12,0
France	6.971	0,8	12.935	1,2	16.210	1,8	28.349	5,0
Grande-Bretagne	22.761	2,8	37.159	3,6	51.530	5,7	55.373	9,8
Italie	29.221	3,5	71.525	6,9	117.264	12,9	57.316	10,1
Pologne	26.901	3,3	17.434	1,7	11.547	1,3	5.777	1,0
Suisse	30.815	3,7	41.799	4,0	36.939	4,1	37.532	6,6
Autres pays	86.761	10,5	142.490	13,7	93.571	10,1	66.556	11,7
Total général	825.974	100	1.038.540	100	911.666	100	567.120	100

IMPORTATIONS (en milliers de pengös).

Provenance	1928		1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%
Tchécoslovaquie	271.886	22,4	228.692	21,5	172.918	21,0	50.111	9,1
Autriche	196.233	16,2	140.092	13,2	94.825	11,5	69.454	12,6
Roumanie	95.734	7,9	96.146	9,0	72.908	8,9	71.205	13,0
Yougoslavie	60.955	5,0	53.890	5,1	42.043	5,1	39.784	7,2
Total	624.808	51,5	518.820	48,8	382.694	46,5	230.554	41,9
Allemagne	236.662	19,5	212.515	20,0	174.975	21,3	132.616	24,1
France	31.095	2,6	24.757	2,3	23.304	2,8	17.265	3,1
Grande-Bretagne	35.452	3,0	30.005	2,8	34.226	4,2	20.592	3,8
Italie	48.413	4,0	46.872	4,4	41.397	5,0	31.742	5,8
Pologne	49.344	4,1	50.922	4,8	29.797	3,8	25.085	4,6
Suisse	47.700	3,9	28.058	2,6	18.825	2,3	12.657	2,3
Autres pays	137.937	11,4	151.748	14,3	118.130	14,1	79.072	14,4
Total général	1.211.411	100	1.063.697	100	823.348	100	549.583	100

BALANCE DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR (en milliers de pengös).

Pays	1928	1929	1930	1931
Tchécoslovaquie	— 126.702	— 58.595	— 19.681	— 25.915
Autriche	+ 85.727	+ 175.460	+ 161.179	+ 101.430
Roumanie	— 50.637	— 49.079	— 43.478	— 51.067
Yougoslavie	— 8.462	+ 7.395	+ 9.767	— 7.156
Total	— 100.074	+ 75.181	+ 107.787	+ 17.292
Allemagne	— 138.852	— 91.318	— 80.851	— 64.245
France	— 24.124	— 11.822	— 7.094	+ 11.084
Grande-Bretagne	— 12.691	+ 7.154	+ 17.304	+ 34.781
Italie	— 19.192	+ 24.653	+ 75.867	+ 25.574
Pologne	— 22.443	— 33.488	— 18.250	— 19.308
Suisse	— 16.885	+ 13.741	+ 18.114	+ 24.875
Autres pays	— 51.176	— 9.258	— 24.559	— 12.516
Total	— 385.437	— 25.157	+ 88.318	+ 17.537

b) CHIFFRES DÉTAILLÉS PAR TRIMESTRE.

(En milliers de pengő.)

	Autriche		Roumanie		Tchécoslovaquie		Yougoslavie	
	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.
1929. . . .	140.092	315.552	96.146	47.067	228.692	170.097	53.890	61.285
1930. . . .	94.825	256.004	72.908	29.430	172.918	153.237	42.043	51.810
Janvier-juin.	49.074	144.145	35.858	14.686	85.462	69.568	22.259	26.728
Juillet-sept..	24.721	53.649	20.208	7.085	51.564	42.946	9.784	13.002
Sept.-déc. .	24.507	59.263	18.565	8.404	43.477	42.154	10.789	12.984
1931. . . .	69.454	170.880	71.205	20.138	50.111	24.196	39.784	32.628
Janvier-juin.	35.418	74.188	37.885	8.755	29.478	10.587	23.783	17.170
Juillet-sept..	16.658	39.878	16.319	6.167	8.647	6.250	8.901	9.245
Sept.-déc. .	17.378	56.814	17.001	5.216	11.986	7.359	7.100	6.213

¹ La somme des chiffres mensuels ci-dessus ne concorde pas toujours avec les chiffres indiqués pour l'année correspondante. Les différences sont dues au fait que les statistiques les plus récentes donnent des chiffres définitifs pour les années, mais non pour les mois.

c) CHIFFRES PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES.

Hongrie. — EXPORTATION PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES EN 1928.

(Valeur en milliers de pengö.)

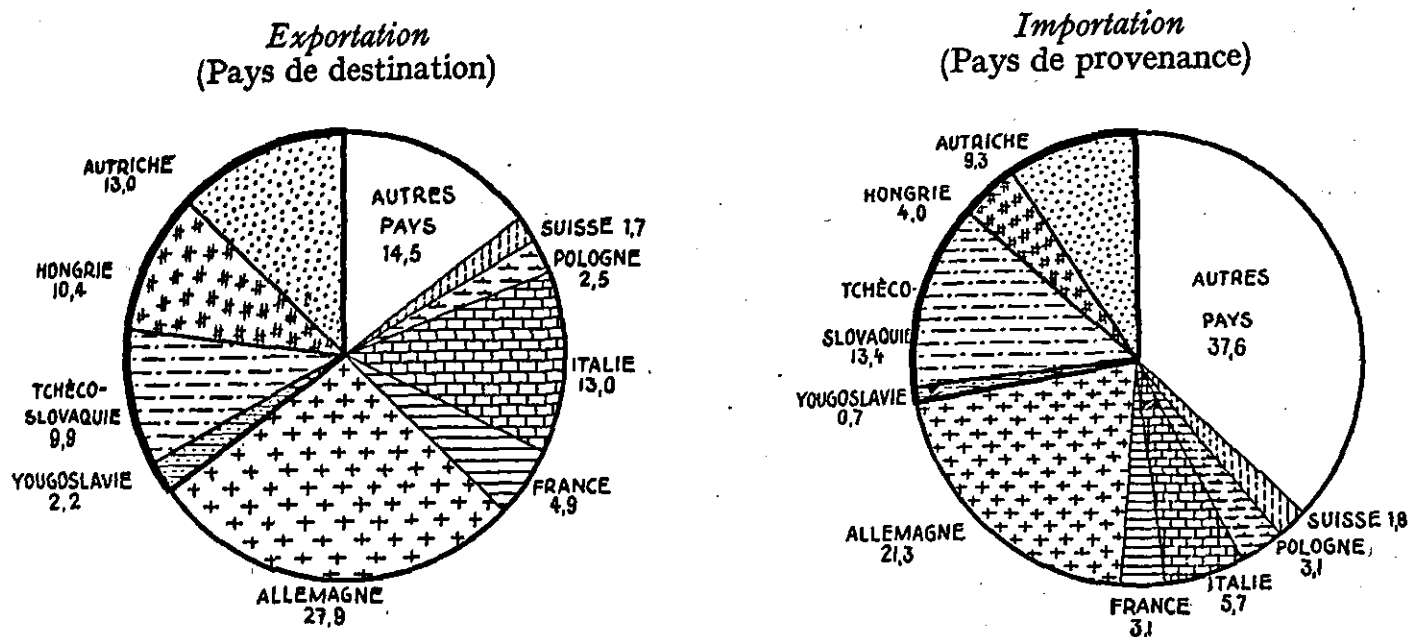
Marchandise exportée	Valeur en milliers de pengö	% de l'exportation totale	Pays de destination												
			Autriche	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats-Unis	Autres pays
Céréales, légumes et semences .	175.441	21,2	69.976	616	53.269	6.548	130.409	10.388	501	3.777	5.036	15.546	1.550	518	7.716
	100%		39,9%	0,3%	30,4%	3,7%	74,3%	5,9%	0,3%	2,1%	2,9%	8,9%	0,9%	0,3%	4,4%
Autres produits alimentaires . . .	134.614	16,3	70.524	700	26.048	3.800	101.072	1.678	336	450	1.758	805	5.190	171	23.154
	100%		52,4%	0,5%	19,3%	2,8%	75,0%	1,2%	0,2%	0,3%	1,3%	0,6%	3,9%	0,1%	17,4%
Animaux vivants	96.507	11,7	55.131	309	19.655	74	75.169	2.600	30	87	8.850	83	4.952	—	4.736
	100%		57,1%	0,3%	20,4%	0,1%	77,9%	2,7%	—	0,1%	9,2%	0,1%	5,1%	—	4,9%
Produits bruts d'animaux	72.043	8,7	28.461	78	8.752	129	37.420	22.952	1.175	7.771	989	918	555	74	189
	100%		39,5%	0,1%	12,1%	0,2%	51,9%	31,8%	1,6%	10,8%	1,4%	1,3%	0,8%	0,1%	0,3%
Produits de l'industrie textile . . .	56.024	6,8	13.756	7.301	2.051	5.113	28.221	5.514	63	1.193	622	262	11.599	979	7.571
	100%		24,6%	13,0%	3,7%	9,1%	50,4%	9,8%	0,1%	2,1%	1,1%	0,5%	20,7%	1,7%	13,6%
Matières brutes et déchets d'origine animale	44.326	5,4	4.321	347	10.394	291	15.353	22.021	814	434	821	1.130	406	1.466	1.871
	100%		9,8%	0,8%	23,4%	0,6%	34,6%	49,7%	1,8%	1,0%	1,9%	2,6%	0,9%	3,3%	4,2%
Machines et électrotechnique . . .	43.824	5,3	1.474	10.446	1.719	10.353	23.992	3.025	1.662	71	2.516	1.872	379	21	10.287
	100%		3,4%	23,8%	3,9%	23,6%	54,7%	6,9%	3,8%	0,2%	5,7%	4,3%	0,9%	—	23,5%
Fruits, légumes, plantes	41.293	5,0	12.445	196	4.621	2.230	19.492	9.005	319	12	3.786	2.008	787	140	5.744
	100%		30,1%	0,5%	11,2%	5,4%	47,2%	21,8%	0,8%	—	9,2%	4,9%	1,9%	0,3%	13,9%
Industries sidérurgiques et métallurgiques	40.645	4,9	1.785	16.646	754	11.454	30.639	493	7	561	1.128	614	38	12	7.153
	100%		4,4%	40,9%	1,9%	28,2%	75,4%	1,2%	—	1,4%	2,8%	1,5%	0,1%	—	17,6%
Autres articles	121.257	14,7	24.087	8.458	17.921	12.501	62.967	20.134	2.064	8.405	3.715	3.663	5.359	2.075	12.884
	100%		19,9%	7,0%	14,8%	10,3%	52,0%	16,6%	1,7%	6,9%	3,1%	3,0%	4,4%	1,7%	10,6%
Total (non compris lingots et espèces)	825.974	100	281.960	45.097	145.184	52.493	524.734	97.810	6.971	22.761	29.221	26.901	30.815	5.456	81.305
	100%		34,1%	5,5%	17,6%	6,4%	63,6%	11,8%	0,8%	2,8%	3,5%	3,3%	3,7%	0,7%	9,8%

Hongrie. — IMPORTATION PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES EN 1928.
(Valeur en milliers de pengö.)

Marchandises importées	Valeur en milliers de pengö	% de l'importation totale	Pays de provenance												
			Autriche	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats-Unis	Autres pays
Produits textiles	277.312	22,9	67.599	21	91.225	13	158.858	32.766	13.895	15.187	10.111	2.807	37.425	50	6.213
	100%		24,4%	—	32,9%	—	57,3%	11,8%	5,0%	5,5%	3,6%	1,0%	13,5%	—	2,3%
Produits forestiers	157.777	13,0	15.427	51.513	61.305	26.368	154.613	455	21	1	20	2.643	5	12	7
	100%		9,8%	32,7%	38,9%	16,7%	98,1%	0,3%	—	—	—	1,6%	—	—	—
Charbon, huiles minérales et produits de la distillation . . .	98.113	8,1	2.238	21.654	31.456	369	55.717	4.863	11	498	180	33.993	19	643	2.189
	100%		2,3%	22,1%	32,0%	0,4%	56,8%	5,0%	—	0,5%	0,2%	34,6%	—	0,6%	2,3%
Industrie sidérurgique et métallurgique.	77.263	6,4	15.224	571	10.548	3.206	29.549	36.146	733	1.802	112	4.213	1.092	2.340	1.276
	100%		19,7%	0,7%	13,7%	4,2%	38,3%	46,8%	0,9%	2,3%	0,1%	5,5%	1,4%	3,0%	1,7%
Machines et électrotechnique . .	74.771	6,2	10.202	56	6.131	77	16.466	34.952	1.527	2.906	494	362	2.344	9.980	5.740
	100%		13,6%	0,1%	8,2%	0,1%	22,0%	46,7%	2,0%	3,9%	0,7%	0,5%	3,1%	13,3%	7,8%
Produits industrie du papier . .	51.070	4,2	24.547	70	14.342	429	39.388	8.788	267	580	821	232	193	91	710
	100%		48,1%	0,1%	28,1%	0,8%	77,1%	17,2%	0,5%	1,1%	1,6%	0,4%	0,4%	0,2%	1,5%
Fruits, plantes et autres végétaux bruts de consommation . .	51.046	4,2	2.177	1.949	1.228	2.984	8.338	3.177	259	89	13.890	121	44	130	24.998
	100%		4,3%	3,8%	2,4%	5,8%	16,3%	6,2%	0,5%	0,2%	27,2%	0,2%	0,1%	0,3%	49,0%
Autres matières brutes et déchets d'origine végétale	48.775	4,0	1.105	485	1.739	3.114	6.443	6.375	410	620	868	26	39	20.780	13.214
	100%		2,2%	1,0%	3,6%	6,4%	13,2%	13,1%	0,8%	1,3%	1,8%	—	0,1%	42,6%	27,1%
Véhicules	35.992	3,0	4.871	218	655	2.419	8.163	11.178	3.412	2.305	2.002	—	98	6.813	2.021
	100%		13,5%	0,6%	1,8%	6,7%	22,6+	31,1%	9,5%	6,4%	5,6%	—	0,3%	18,9%	5,6%
Cuir et articles en cuir	35.524	2,9	10.956	—	6.231	533	17.720	9.344	1.985	3.001	73	638	718	385	1.660
	100%		30,8%	—	17,5%	1,5%	49,8%	26,3%	5,6%	8,5%	0,2%	1,8%	2,0%	1,1%	4,7%
Matières brutes et déchets d'origine animale	35.508	2,9	3.143	2.211	2.411	3.655	11.420	13.398	594	1.232	4.235	66	260	139	4.164
	100%		8,9%	6,2%	6,8%	10,3%	32,2%	37,7%	1,7%	3,5%	11,9%	0,2%	0,7%	0,4%	11,7%
Céréales, légumes, semences . .	27.864	2,3	857	2.899	488	1.208	5.452	2.534	172	186	5.265	1.668	1	—	12.586
	100%		3,1%	10,4%	1,8%	4,3%	19,6%	9,1%	0,6%	0,7%	18,9%	6,0%	—	—	45,1%
Minéraux et minerais	26.280	2,2	737	529	8.802	4.521	14.589	4.521	1	5	480	61	—	143	6.480
	100%		2,8%	2,0%	33,5%	17,2%	55,5%	17,2%	—	—	1,8%	0,2%	—	0,5%	24,8%
Industries: verre, argile, ciment, pierre	23.945	2,0	1.765	1.000	15.747	333	18.845	4.534	45	56	168	37	28	32	200
	100%		7,4%	4,2%	65,8%	1,4%	78,8%	18,9%	0,2%	0,2%	0,7%	0,1%	0,1%	0,1%	0,9%
Autres articles	190.171	36,3	35.385	12.558	19.578	11.726	79.247	63.631	7.763	6.984	9.694	2.477	5.434	1.546	13.395
	100%		18,6%	6,6%	10,3%	6,2%	41,7%	33,5%	4,1%	3,7%	5,1%	1,3%	2,9%	0,8%	7,0%
Total (non compris lingots et espèces)	1.211.411	100	196.233	95.734	271.886	60.955	624.808	236.662	31.095	35.452	48.413	49.344	47.700	43.084	94.853
	100%		16,2%	7,9%	22,4%	5,0%	51,5%	19,5%	2,6%	3,0%	4,0%	4,1%	3,9%	3,6%	7,8%

3. ROUMANIE.

I. CARACTÉRISTIQUES ESSENTIELLES DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR DE LA ROUMANIE.



En 1928, la Roumanie dirigeait 35,5% de ses *exportations* vers les quatre autres pays danubiens; 29,4% de ses *importations* provenaient de ces mêmes pays. L'importance relative du débouché danubien dans la période 1928 à 1930 a diminué encore plus fortement que pour les autres pays danubiens; elle passe en effet de 35,5% en 1928 à 25,4% en 1930.

En dehors du groupe danubien, c'est l'Allemagne qui joue le rôle principal dans le commerce extérieur de la Roumanie, couvrant à elle seule, suivant les années, du cinquième au quart des importations et exportations roumaines.

Suivent comme *débouchés* importants l'Autriche et l'Italie à peu près dans les mêmes proportions, l'Italie tendant à augmenter son rôle. Viennent ensuite la Hongrie, la Tchécoslovaquie, la Grande-Bretagne et la France.

A peu près la moitié des exportations roumaines consistent en céréales, les combustibles minéraux (le cinquième), le bois et le bétail suivant en ordre d'importance. Tandis que les quatre cinquièmes des céréales sont vendus en dehors du groupe danubien, le pétrole se répartit sur un nombre considérable de marchés, alors qu'environ la moitié des exportations de bois trouvent leur placement en Hongrie.

Les *importations* principales de la Roumanie sont constituées par les textiles de toute sorte (presque 50%) suivis de près par le fer et autres métaux, ouvrages en fer, machines et moteurs (environ 30%). Ses fournisseurs principaux en textiles sont la Tchécoslovaquie, l'Autriche, l'Italie, la Grande-Bretagne et la Pologne. Pour les produits métallurgiques et machines en général, c'est l'Allemagne qui occupe la première place, suivie à l'intérieur du groupe danubien par la Tchécoslovaquie et la Hongrie. Comme fournisseurs de ces matières jouent aussi un rôle important la Pologne (fer et ouvrages en fer), la Grande-Bretagne (appareils et machines), l'Italie et la France (véhicules).

II. DONNÉES STATISTIQUES.

a) CHIFFRES GLOBAUX ANNUELS.

EXPORTATIONS (en millions de lei).

Destination	1928 ¹		1929 ¹		1930		1931 ¹	
	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%
Autriche	3.507	13,0	3.472	12,0	2.589	9,1	2.928	
Hongrie	2.805	10,4	2.880	9,9	2.127	7,5	2.076	
Tchécoslovaquie	2.638	9,9	2.312	8,0	1.985	7,0	2.773	
Yougoslavie	601	2,2	546	1,9	510	1,8	232	
Total	9.551	35,5	9.210	31,8	7.211	25,4	8.009	
Allemagne	7.515	27,9	6.560	22,7	5.363	18,8	9.079	
France	1.336	4,9	1.520	5,3	1.959	6,9	3.695	
Grande-Bretagne	— ²		2.302	8,9	3.230	11,3	— ²	
Italie	3.507	13,0	1.792	6,2	3.675	12,9	2.679	
Pologne	668	2,5	523	1,8	452	1,6	261	
Suisse	451	1,7	357	1,2	55	0,2	836	
Autres pays	3.891	14,5	6.684	22,1	6.577	22,9	— ²	
Total	26.919	100	28.948	100	28.522	100	—²	

IMPORTATIONS (en millions de lei).

Provenance	1928 ¹		1929 ¹		1930		1931 ¹	
	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%
Autriche	3.006	9,3	2.688	9,1	2.679	11,6	1.104	
Hongrie	1.302	4,0	1.410	4,8	908	3,9	587	
Tchécoslovaquie	4.308	13,4	3.773	12,8	3.370	14,6	1.670	
Yougoslavie	217	0,7	3.075 ⁴	10,5	80	0,3	265	
Total	8.833	27,4	10.946	37,2	7.037	30,4	3.626	
Allemagne	6.847	21,3	8.440	28,8	5.778	25,1	3.631	
France	1.002	3,1	778	2,6	1.707	7,4	752	
Grande-Bretagne	— ²		1.876	6,4	1.874	8,1	— ²	
Italie	1.837	5,7	1.461	5,0	1.825	7,9	935	
Pologne	1.002	3,1	1.213	4,1	983	4,3	579	
Suisse	568	1,8	554	1,9	613	2,7	330	
Autres pays	12.056	37,6	4.147	14,0	3.227	14,1	— ²	
Total	32.145	100	29.415	100	23.044	100	—²	

¹ Chiffres empruntés aux statistiques nationales des pays importateurs et exportateurs.

² Chiffres non disponibles, compris dans « Autres pays ».

³ Chiffres non disponibles.

⁴ Le transit des céréales constitue la plus grande partie de ce chiffre.

BALANCE DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR (en millions de lei).

Pays	1928 ¹	1929	1930 ¹	1931 ¹
Autriche	+ 501	+ 784	— 90	+1.824
Hongrie	+1.503	+1.470	+1.219	+1.489
Tchécoslovaquie	—1.670	—1.461	—1.385	+1.103
Yougoslavie	+ 384	—2.529	+ 430	— 33
Total	+ 718	—1.736	+ 174	+4.383
Allemagne	+ 668	—1.880	— 415	+5.448
France	+ 334	+ 742	+ 252	+2.943
Grande-Bretagne	— ²	+ 426	+1.356	— ²
Italie	+1.470	+ 331	+1.850	+1.744
Pologne	— 334	— 690	— 531	— 318
Suisse	— 117	— 197	— 558	+ 506
Autres pays	—8.165	+2.537	+3.350	— ²
Total	—5.226	— 467	+5.478	—²

¹ Chiffres empruntés aux statistiques nationales des pays importateurs et exportateurs.

² Chiffre non disponible.

b) CHIFFRES DÉTAILLÉS PAR MOIS
(En milliers de lei.)¹

	Autriche		Hongrie		Tchécoslovaquie		Yougoslavie	
	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.
1929.	2.688	3.472	1.410	2.880	3.773	2.312	3.075	546
1930 ²	2.009.610	3.057.930	879.900	2.176.250	2.940.200	2.773.520	590.000	657.850
Janvier-juin.	1.029.390	1.565.780	428.240	1.045.620	1.570.920	1.281.830	515.510	272.020
Juillet	119.470	260.960	206.600	589.270	200.440	273.100	74.490	385.830
Août.	161.280	234.570			207.890	286.280		
Septembre . .	185.340	240.330	258.200	268.510				
Octobre . . .	166.520	209.270	259.580	231.540				
Novembre . .	168.540	259.460	238.710	241.870				
Décembre. . .	179.070	287.560	245.060	541.360	204.460	190.390		
1931 ²	1.069.970	2.861.330	588.100	2.082.120	1.680.310	2.791.340	265.500	233.050
Janvier-juin.	513.710	1.410.470	254.400	1.104.730	826.330	916.130	9.320	143.870
Juillet	67.070	313.770	179.830	475.860	129.580	236.570	256.180	89.180
Août.	75.040	196.670			143.360	252.320		
Septembre . .	85.990	243.670	155.140	323.250				
Octobre . . .	126.340	222.380	154.960	354.860				
Novembre . .	110.240	235.750	135.910	333.920				
Décembre. . .	91.580	238.620	153.870	501.530	135.030	374.290		

¹ Les chiffres de ce tableau sont empruntés aux statistiques des pays importateurs et exportateurs.

² Les chiffres sont le résultat de l'addition des chiffres mensuels; la conversion en monnaie roumaine étant faite avec une certaine approximation, ces sommes ne correspondent pas exactement aux chiffres du tableau du commerce annuel reproduit précédemment. En ce qui concerne l'année 1930, la différence provient aussi du fait que les chiffres du tableau du commerce annuel sont tirés des statistiques roumaines et les chiffres du présent tableau des statistiques des pays importateurs et exportateurs.

c) CHIFFRES PAR GROUPES DE MARCHANDISES PRINCIPAUX.

Roumanie. — EXPORTATION PAR GROUPES DE MARCHANDISES PRINCIPAUX EN 1927.

Marchandises exportées	Valeur totale en milliers de lei	% de l'exportation totale	Pays de destination												
			Autriche	Hongrie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats-Unis	Autres pays
Céréales et dérivés	19.015.734	49,9	2.009.987	445.227	687.057	29.559	3.171.830	4.796.747	525.692	1.049.208	1.071.585	2.479.840	3.936	11.591	5.905.305
100%			10,6%	2,3%	3,6%	0,2%	16,7%	25,2%	2,8%	5,5%	5,6%	13,0%	—	0,1%	31,1%
Combustibles minéraux, pétrole et dérivés	7.516.630	19,7	895.153	602.165	197.067	400.528	2.094.913	808.349	470.365	1.060.157	1.010.174	1.860	246	8.123	2.062.443
100%			11,9%	8,0%	2,6%	5,3%	27,8%	10,7%	6,3%	14,1%	13,4%	—	—	0,1%	27,6%
Bois et industries dérivées	4.610.289	12,1	20.602	1.488.657	58.225	14.298	1.581.782	372.365	165.389	76.167	340.747	332.170	5.454	8.446	1.727.769
100%			0,4%	32,3%	1,3%	0,3%	34,3%	8,1%	3,6%	1,7%	7,4%	7,2%	0,1%	0,2%	37,4%
Animaux vivants	2.562.886	6,7	1.592.932	39.019	790.806	18	2.422.775	32.803	485	18	33	80.751	5	5	26.011
100%			62,2%	1,5%	30,9%	—	94,6%	1,3%	—	—	—	3,1%	—	—	1,0%
Légumes, fleurs, plantes	1.021.224	2,7	60.596	58.076	65.429	2.224	186.325	188.518	129.207	13.220	92.008	220.010	179	796	190.961
100%			5,9%	5,7%	6,4%	0,2%	18,2%	18,5%	12,7%	1,3%	9,0%	21,5%	—	0,1%	18,7%
Produits animaux alimentaires	832.760	2,2	209.103	22.888	55.757	48	287.796	366.413	2.348	190	232	91.641	18.346	428	65.366
100%			25,1%	2,8%	6,7%	—	34,6%	44,0%	0,3%	—	—	11,0%	2,2%	—	7,9%
Graines de plantes	709.645	1,9	20.524	92.707	35.060	4.737	153.028	228.372	53.502	17.305	13.016	85.672	—	168	158.582
100%			2,9%	13,1%	4,9%	0,7%	21,6%	32,2%	7,5%	2,4%	1,8%	12,1%	—	—	22,4%
Autres articles	1.841.642	4,8	216.076	419.947	141.160	93.012	870.195	302.086	16.690	16.190	21.730	299.912	14.628	39.351	260.860
100%			11,7%	22,8%	7,7%	5,1%	47,3%	16,4%	0,9%	0,9%	1,2%	16,3%	0,8%	2,1%	14,1%
Total (non compris lingots et espèces)	38.110.810	100	5.024.973	3.168.686	2.030.561	544.424	10.768.644	7.095.653	1.363.678	2.232.455	2.549.525	3.591.856	42.794	68.908	10.397.297
100%			13,2%	8,3%	5,3%	1,4%	28,2%	18,6%	3,6%	5,9%	6,7%	9,4%	0,1%	0,2%	27,3%

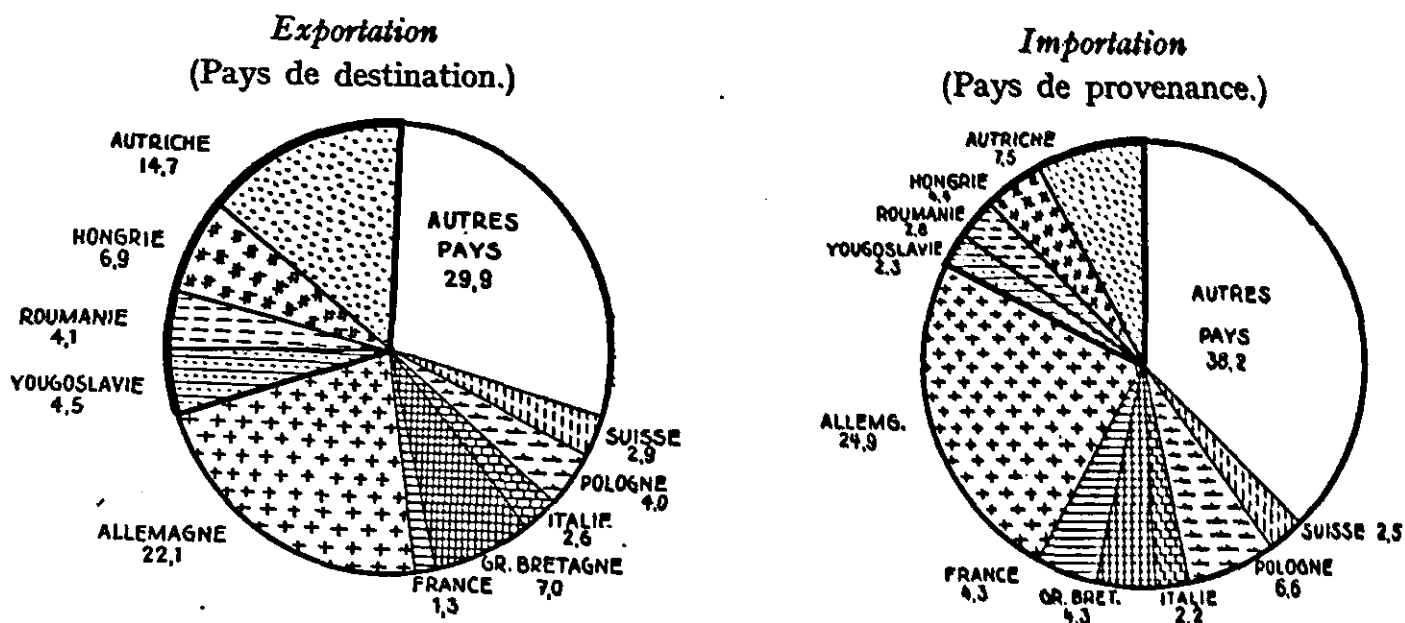
Roumanie. — IMPORTATION PAR GROUPES DE MARCHANDISES PRINCIPAUX EN 1927.

Marchandises et lingots importés	Valeur en milliers de lei	% de l'importation totale du pays	Pays de provenance												
			Autriche	Hongrie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yongoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats-Unis	Autres pays
Matières textiles végétales et industries dérivées	10.073.672	29,6	1.465.985	129.745	1.894.837	5.767	3.496.334	894.735	446.153	1.365.206	1.931.262	1.009.713	214.807	112.213	603.249
	100%		14,5%	1,3%	18,8%	0,1%	34,7%	8,9%	4,4%	13,6%	19,2%	10,0%	2,1%	1,1%	6,0%
Fer et ouvrages en fer	4.821.180	14,2	539.692	271.473	1.155.136	14.188	1.980.489	1.438.703	182.180	300.799	11.347	511.291	21.228	95.608	279.535
	100%		11,2%	5,6%	24,0%	0,3%	41,1%	29,8%	3,8%	6,2%	0,2%	10,6%	0,4%	2,0%	5,9%
Laines, poils et ouvrages de	3.589.135	10,6	625.372	74.970	633.600	2.438	1.336.380	719.583	405.093	303.179	218.343	331.324	112.111	6.801	156.321
	100%		17,4%	2,1%	17,7%	—	37,2%	20,0%	11,3%	8,4%	6,1%	9,2%	3,1%	0,2%	4,5%
Appareils, machines et moteurs	3.202.345	9,5	400.211	244.536	215.769	4.089	864.605	1.312.964	154.169	206.927	40.053	92.204	89.073	298.050	144.300
	100%		12,5%	7,7%	6,7%	0,1%	27,0%	41,0%	4,8%	6,5%	1,2%	2,9%	2,8%	9,3%	4,5%
Véhicules	1.588.054	4,7	86.335	87.706	29.892	1.660	205.593	290.044	261.299	13.774	133.703	2.457	4.907	322.076	354.201
	100%		5,4%	5,5%	1,9%	0,1%	12,9%	18,3%	16,5%	0,9%	8,4%	0,2%	0,3%	20,3%	22,2%
Peaux, ouvrages en peaux	1.472.695	4,3	195.308	68.839	117.480	11.668	393.295	548.665	186.733	39.634	43.029	66.826	42.601	7.481	144.431
	100%		13,3%	4,7%	8,0%	0,8%	26,8%	37,3%	12,7%	2,7%	2,9%	4,5%	2,9%	0,5%	9,8%
Fruits et denrées coloniales	1.101.169	3,3	52.363	37.428	13.739	1.689	105.219	114.275	65.790	126.932	178.204	7.310	1.167	11.125	491.147
	100%		4,8%	3,4%	1,2%	0,2%	9,6%	10,4%	6,0%	11,5%	16,2%	0,6%	0,1%	1,0%	44,6%
Autres métaux et métalloïdes	939.492	2,8	174.705	81.642	48.049	6.541	310.937	369.264	86.925	55.189	5.617	20.295	8.006	4.957	78.302
	100%		18,6%	8,7%	5,1%	0,7%	33,1%	39,3%	9,2%	5,9%	0,6%	2,2%	0,9%	0,5%	8,3%
Caoutchouc, celluloïd, sucs végétaux	931.316	2,8	206.958	25.084	33.565	613	266.220	136.042	175.194	64.929	48.923	15.618	19.446	66.843	138.101
	100%		22,2%	2,7%	3,6%	0,1%	28,6%	14,6%	18,8%	7,0%	5,3%	1,7%	2,1%	7,2%	14,7%
Produits chimiques et médicaments	665.671	2,0	68.667	18.121	20.880	5.878	113.546	250.699	143.768	89.244	23.770	16.758	10.047	2.263	15.576
	100%		10,3%	2,7%	3,1%	0,9%	17,0%	37,7%	21,6%	13,4%	3,6%	2,5%	1,5%	0,3%	2,4%
Autres articles ¹	5.467.402	16,2	685.217	222.583	552.608	45.809	1.506.217	1.570.124	510.795	275.942	318.858	447.408	158.809	57.753	621.496
	100%		12,5%	4,1%	10,1%	0,8%	27,5%	28,7%	9,3%	5,1%	5,8%	8,2%	2,9%	1,1%	11,4%
Total ¹ (non compris les espèces)	33.852.131	100	4.500.813	1.262.127	4.715.555	100.340	10.578.835	7.645.098	2.618.099	2.841.755	2.953.109	2.521.204	682.202	985.170	3.026.659
	100%		13,3%	3,7%	13,9%	0,3%	31,2%	22,6%	7,7%	8,4%	8,7%	7,5%	2,0%	2,9%	9,0%

¹ Y compris lingots, à savoir, en milliers de lei, 1.924.

4. TCHÉCOSLOVAQUIE.

I. CARACTÉRISTIQUES ESSENTIELLES DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR DE LA TCHÉCOSLOVAQUIE.



En 1928, la Tchécoslovaquie plaçait à peu près le 30% de ses *exportations* dans les autres pays danubiens, tandis que 17% de ses *importations* provenaient de ces mêmes pays. Dans la période 1928 à 1930, l'importance du débouché danubien pour la Tchécoslovaquie est restée à peu près la même.

C'est avec l'Allemagne et l'Autriche que les relations commerciales de la Tchécoslovaquie sont les plus intenses. Viennent ensuite, comme *débouchés*, par ordre d'importance, la Grande-Bretagne, la Yougoslavie, la Hongrie, la Suisse, la France et la Pologne.

Toutefois, en 1931, nous voyons diminuer très fortement les exportations vers la Hongrie, ce qui diminue d'autant, pour la Tchécoslovaquie, l'importance du débouché danubien dans son ensemble. Mais on ne saurait considérer cette modification comme durable, la principale raison devant en être recherchée dans l'absence d'un règlement contractuel des relations commerciales avec la Hongrie. Par contre, dans la même période, les exportations tchécoslovaques augmentent vers la Yougoslavie, la Grande-Bretagne, la France et la Suisse.

Plus des deux tiers des exportations tchécoslovaques consistent en produits fabriqués, parmi lesquels les textiles, le fer, les ouvrages en fer, le sucre, le cuir et articles en cuir, ainsi que les verreries sont d'importance primordiale.

Le cinquième à peu près des exportations tchécoslovaques est représenté par des matières brutes, parmi lesquelles dominent le charbon, la tourbe, le bois.

Environ la moitié des exportations de textiles et de charbon, ainsi qu'environ un tiers des exportations de bois, de fer et ouvrages en fer se dirigent vers les pays danubiens, l'Autriche venant en tête comme consommateur de ces articles, sauf pour le bois. Pour le fer et les ouvrages en fer, la Roumanie se place au même rang que l'Autriche, alors que la Hongrie est le plus fort acheteur danubien de bois tchécoslovaque.

Parmi les pays en dehors du groupe danubien qui importent des quantités considérables des marchandises indiquées ci-dessus, il convient de mentionner l'Allemagne et la Grande-Bretagne pour les textiles et les ouvrages en fer, et l'Allemagne pour le charbon et le bois. La plus grande quantité des exportations tchécoslovaques en cuir, articles en cuir et en verrerie se vend en dehors du marché danubien (notamment en Allemagne et en Grande-Bretagne). Parmi les pays danubiens, l'Autriche est l'acheteur le plus important de ces articles.

Les *importations* de la Tchécoslovaquie proviennent surtout de l'Allemagne et de l'Autriche. Viennent ensuite, par ordre d'importance, la Pologne, la Roumanie, la France, la Grande-Bretagne, la Yougoslavie et la Suisse.

Parmi ces importations, les matières brutes et les produits demi-finis de l'industrie textile jouent le premier rôle. Toutefois — à l'exception de l'Autriche, qui fournit un peu plus de la moitié des soieries — les fournisseurs les plus importants de textiles pour la Tchécoslovaquie sont en Europe (en sous-entendant le rôle primordial des pays d'outre-mer pour le coton et la laine brute): pour la laine et les articles en laine — l'Allemagne, la Grande-Bretagne et la France; pour le coton et les cotonnades — la Grande-Bretagne et l'Allemagne; pour les soieries — l'Allemagne, la France, la Suisse et l'Italie.

Les céréales, qui occupent la deuxième place dans les importations tchécoslovaques, proviennent, dans la proportion d'environ deux cinquièmes, du groupe danubien; la Hongrie couvre normalement à peu près le quart des besoins de la Tchécoslovaquie.

Plus de la moitié du bétail importé provient de la Pologne. Le reste vient en grande partie des pays danubiens, la Hongrie, la Roumanie et la Yougoslavie jouant dans ce commerce un rôle à peu près égal.

L'Autriche est la seule parmi les pays danubiens à fournir à la Tchécoslovaquie des quantités considérables de produits fabriqués (notamment papier, articles en papier, machines, appareils, etc.). Cependant, elle est de beaucoup dépassée dans ce rôle par l'Allemagne, notamment en ce qui concerne les articles spécifiés ci-dessus.

II. DONNÉES STATISTIQUES.
a) CHIFFRES GLOBAUX ANNUELS.
EXPORTATIONS (en millions de Kč.).

Destination	1928		1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%
Autriche	3.125	14,7	3.065	15,0	2.443	14,0	1.795	13,7
Hongrie	1.468	6,9	1.302	6,4	1.005	5,7	289	2,2
Roumanie	870	4,1	770	3,8	596	3,4	341	2,6
Yougoslavie	948	4,5	1.140	5,6	1.536	8,8	832	6,3
Total	6.411	30,2	6.277	30,8	5.580	31,9	3.257	24,8
Allemagne	4.695	22,1	3.932	19,3	2.971	17,0	2.039	15,6
France	284	1,3	319	1,6	404	2,3	460	3,5
Grande-Bretagne	1.478	7,0	1.418	7,0	1.371	7,8	1.356	10,3
Italie	545	2,6	560	2,7	491	2,8	336	2,6
Pologne	851	4,0	887	4,4	625	3,6	379	2,9
Suisse	619	2,9	558	2,7	514	2,9	468	3,6
Autres pays	6.341	29,9	6.465	31,5	5.539	31,7	4.845	36,7
Total	21.224	100	20.416	100	17.495	100	13.140	100

IMPORTATIONS (en millions de Kč.).

Provenance	1928		1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%
Autriche	1.443	7,5	1.548	7,8	1.211	7,7	847	7,2
Hongrie	849	4,4	963	4,8	922	5,9	134	1,1
Roumanie	536	2,8	472	2,4	563	3,6	566	4,8
Yougoslavie	450	2,3	339	1,7	439	2,8	384	3,2
Total	3.278	17,0	3.322	16,7	3.135	20,0	1.931	16,3
Allemagne	4.778	24,9	4.986	25,0	3.991	25,4	3.302	28,0
France	821	4,3	761	3,8	568	3,6	453	3,8
Grande-Bretagne	831	4,3	809	4,1	579	3,7	426	3,6
Italie	426	2,2	460	2,3	383	2,4	342	2,9
Pologne	1.264	6,6	1.297	6,5	882	5,6	619	5,3
Suisse	478	2,5	484	2,4	418	2,7	354	3,0
Autres pays	7.332	38,2	7.800	39,2	5.771	36,6	4.356	37,1
Total	19.208	100	19.919	100	15.727	100	11.783	100

BALANCE DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR (en millions de couronnes).

Pays	1928	1929	1930	1931
Hongrie	+ 619	+ 339	+ 83	+ 155
Roumanie	+ 334	+ 298	+ 33	— 225
Autriche	+1.682	+1.517	+1.232	+ 948
Yougoslavie	+ 498	+ 801	+1.097	+ 448
Total	+3.133	+2.955	+2.445	+1.326
Allemagne	— 83	—1.054	—1.020	—1.263
France	— 537	— 442	— 164	+ 7
Grande-Bretagne	+ 647	+ 609	+ 792	+ 930
Italie	+ 119	+ 100	+ 108	— 6
Pologne	— 413	— 410	— 257	— 240
Suisse	+ 141	+ 74	+ 96	+ 114
Autres pays	— 991	—1.335	— 232	+ 489
Total	+2.016	+ 497	+1.768	+1.357

b) CHIFFRES DÉTAILLÉS PAR MOIS

(En milliers de couronnes.)

	Autriche		Hongrie		Roumanie		Yougoslavie	
	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.
1929.	1.548.252	3.064.723	963.159	1.302.071	471.861	769.527	338.652	1.140.213
1930								
Janvier-juin.	629.616	1.218.641	423.032	468.660	260.007	318.646	161.977	656.530
Juillet	93.763	215.387	56.330	87.973	55.395	40.658	27.687	130.038
Août.	71.427	175.400	74.598	95.614	58.068	42.168	41.843	132.388
Septembre . .	94.685	212.872	87.377	99.605	54.464	52.374	43.430	92.805
Octobre . . .	108.086	237.793	81.539	86.909	46.965	52.653	43.701	146.439
Novembre . .	112.575	186.697	102.137	80.043	49.060	48.419	61.594	250.476
Décembre. . .	100.724	196.173	96.689	86.160	38.619	41.472	58.718	127.399
1930, total .	1.210.876	2.442.963	921.702	1.004.964	562.578	596.390	438.950	1.536.075
1931								
Janvier-juin.	418.520	909.090	57.655	153.903	185.828	167.612	163.945	424.493
Juillet	67.932	189.564	9.638	23.960	47.985	26.284	22.376	50.374
Août.	64.440	120.769	8.560	20.380	51.180	29.079	26.547	72.171
Septembre . .	68.205	135.185	12.001	21.761	65.568	31.468	28.757	66.744
Octobre . . .	72.998	144.677	16.809	23.365	71.980	31.432	35.349	62.737
Novembre . .	66.376	147.618	17.812	22.315	67.733	27.567	40.147	47.404
Décembre. . .	88.489	148.233	11.798	23.520	75.921	27.389	67.353	108.039
1931, total .	846.960	1.795.136	134.273	289.204	566.195	340.831	384.474	831.962

c) CHIFFRES PAR GROUPES DE MARCHANDISES.

Tchécoslovaquie. — EXPORTATION PAR GROUPES DE MARCHANDISES (CLASSIFICATION DE BRUXELLES), EN 1928.

Groupes	Valeur (milliers de Kš.)	% de l'ex- porta- tion totale	Pays de destination													
			Autriche	Hongrie	Rou- manie	Yougo- slavie	Total de ces 4 pays	Alle- magne	France	Grande- Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Pays-Bas	Etats- Unis	Autres pays
Animaux vivants	62.498 100%	0,3	46.089 73,8%	360 0,6%	8	62	46.519 74,4%	10.415 16,7%	158 0,2%	229 0,4%	52 0,1%	460 0,7%	4.258 6,8%	43 0,1%	175 0,3%	189 0,3%
Aliments et boissons . . .	2.901.246 100%	13,7	457.412 15,8%	22.937 0,8%	2.623 0,1%	15.593 0,5%	498.565 17,2%	617.634 21,3%	9.412 0,3%	195.116 6,7%	91.041 3,1%	42.282 1,4%	290.968 10,0%	21.344 0,8%	7.655 0,3%	1.127.229 38,9%
Matières brutes ou simple- ment préparées	3.668.213 100%	17,3	541.860 14,8%	538.952 14,7%	52.209 1,4%	35.433 1,0%	1.168.454 31,9%	1.917.893 52,3%	70.997 1,9%	50.176 1,4%	68.149 1,9%	146.110 4,0%	33.688 1,0%	26.565 0,6%	37.561 1,0%	148.620 4,0%
Produits fabriqués	14.553.740 100%	68,7	2.069.304 14,2%	905.416 6,2%	815.292 5,6%	896.966 6,2%	4.686.978 32,2%	2.121.256 14,6%	203.751 1,3%	1.232.356 8,5%	385.341 2,7%	661.744 4,5%	290.504 2,0%	338.250 2,3%	1.125.043 7,8%	3.508.517 24,1%
Total (non compris lin- gots et espèces) . . .	21.185.697 100%	100	3.114.665 14,7%	1.467.665 6,9%	870.132 4,1%	948.054 4,5%	6.400.516 30,2%	4.667.198 22,0%	284.318 1,3%	1.477.877 7,0%	544.583 2,6%	850.596 4,0%	619.418 2,9%	386.202 1,8%	1.170.434 5,5%	4.784.555 22,7%

IMPORTATION PAR GROUPES DE MARCHANDISES (CLASSIFICATION DE BRUXELLES), EN 1928.

Groupes	Valeur (milliers de Kš.)	% de l'im- porta- tion totale	Pays de provenance													
			Autriche	Hongrie	Rou- manie	Yougo- slavie	Total de ces 4 pays	Alle- magne	France	Grande- Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Pays-Bas	Etats- Unis	Autres pays
Animaux vivants	718.369 100%	3,8	853 0,1%	94.314 13,1%	116.795 16,3%	86.821 12,1%	298.783 41,6%	1.514 0,2%	306 —	51 —	109 —	409.569 57,0%	282 —	1.756 0,2%	85 —	5.914 1,0%
Aliments et boissons . . .	3.494.153 100%	18,2	34.847 1,0%	563.608 16,1%	226.591 6,5%	163.687 4,7%	988.733 28,3%	339.846 9,7%	46.964 1,3%	21.597 0,6%	176.694 5,1%	80.059 2,3%	25.751 0,7%	139.090 4,0%	107.032 3,1%	1.568.387 44,9%
Matières brutes ou simple- ment préparées	9.151.198 100%	47,7	328.599 3,6%	141.349 1,5%	187.869 2,1%	161.407 1,8%	819.224 9,0%	1.904.738 20,8%	404.819 4,4%	217.800 2,4%	154.491 1,7%	716.001 7,8%	44.844 0,5%	75.292 0,8%	803.138 8,8%	4.010.851 43,8%
Produits finis	5.808.167 100%	30,3	1.067.370 18,4%	49.920 0,8%	4.400 0,2%	37.649 0,6%	1.159.339 20,0%	2.514.020 43,3%	368.507 6,3%	591.843 10,2%	95.030 1,6%	58.469 1,0%	401.419 6,9%	53.708 0,9%	238.806 4,2%	326.846 5,6%
Total (non compris lin- gots et espèces) . . .	19.171.887 100%	100	1.431.669 7,5%	849.191 4,4%	535.655 2,8%	449.564 2,3%	3.266.079 17,0%	4.760.118 24,8%	820.733 4,3%	831.291 4,4%	426.324 2,2%	1.264.098 6,6%	472.296 2,5%	269.846 1,4%	1.149.061 6,0%	5.911.998 30,8%

¹ Les chiffres des deux tableaux suivants comprenant les données relatives aux métaux précieux sont, de plus, extraits des statistiques mensuelles. Les tableaux ci-dessus, qui ne comprennent pas l'or et l'argent, sont tirés des statistiques annuelles; c'est ce qui explique les légères différences qui existent entre ces tableaux.

d) CHIFFRES PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES.

Tchécoslovaquie. — EXPORTATION PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES EN 1928.

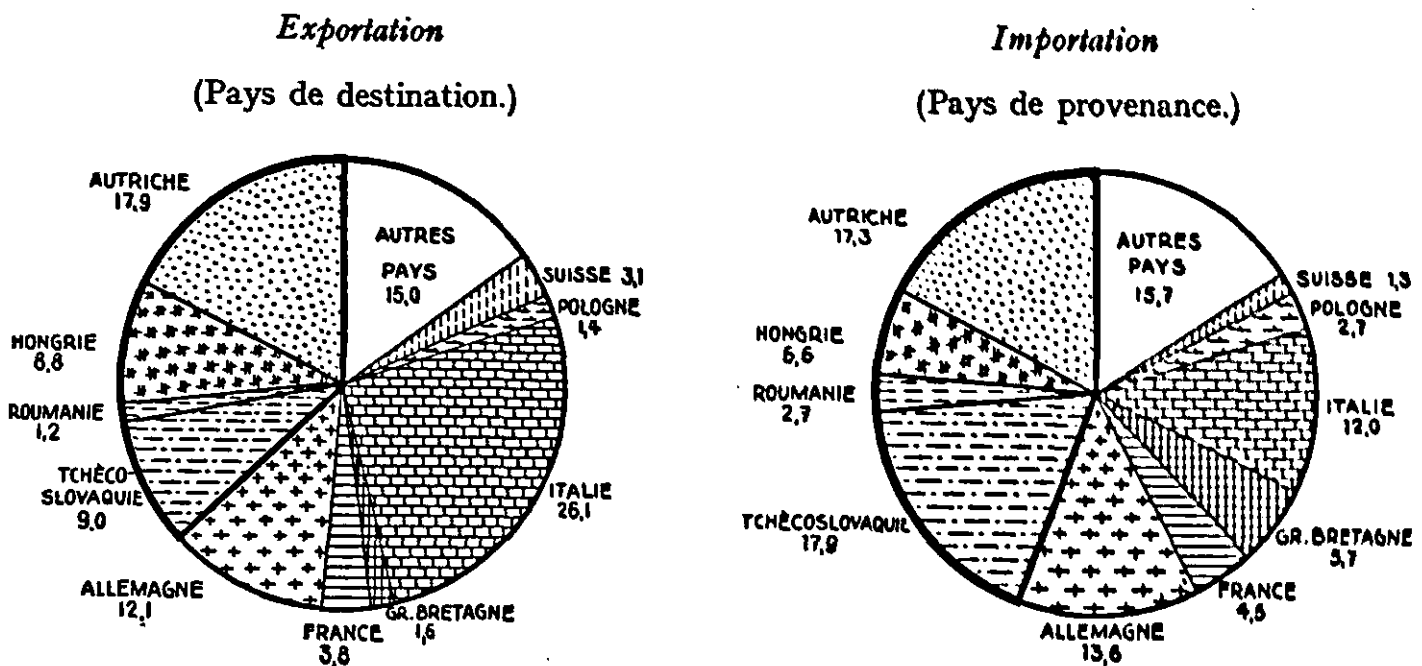
Marchandises exportées	Valeur (milliers de Kč.)	% de l'ex- porta- tion totale du pays	Pays de destination													
			Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Yougo- slavie	Total de ces 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande- Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats- Unis	Pays- Bas	Autres pays
Coton, fils et articles de coton	3.022.869	14,3	502.823	350.290	381.748	333.046	1.567.907	386.446	7.960	178.112	29.326	82.365	21.669	107.006	81.789	560.289
	100%		16,6%	11,6%	12,6%	11,0%	51,8%	12,8%	0,3%	5,9%	1,0%	2,8%	0,7%	3,5%	2,7%	18,5%
Laine, fils de laine et articles en laine	2.185.357	10,3	478.446	177.149	78.529	131.028	865.152	424.441	20.138	164.655	64.637	120.574	67.410	65.398	57.411	335.541
	100%		21,9%	8,1%	3,6%	6,0%	39,6%	19,4%	0,9%	7,5%	3,0%	5,5%	3,1%	3,0%	2,6%	15,4%
Fer et ouvrages en fer	1.770.385	8,3	173.338	53.226	176.350	139.754	542.667	147.508	13.655	118.592	59.079	55.452	62.748	22.653	20.252	727.778
	100%		9,8%	3,0%	10,0%	7,9%	30,7%	8,3%	0,8%	6,7%	3,3%	3,1%	3,5%	1,3%	1,1%	41,2%
Sucre	1.699.060	8,1	217.068	3.388	817	10.532	231.815	176.606	298	167.973	29.863	31	188.447	—	52	903.985
	100%		12,8%	0,2%	—	0,6%	13,6%	10,4%	—	9,9%	1,8%	—	11,1%	—	—	53,2%
Cuir et articles en cuir	1.432.641	6,7	92.673	34.319	26.059	42.746	195.797	520.102	9.870	125.681	37.296	97.436	32.776	198.681	38.125	176.877
	100%		6,5%	2,4%	1,8%	3,0%	13,7%	36,3%	0,7%	8,8%	2,6%	6,8%	2,3%	13,9%	2,7%	12,5%
Verre et articles en verre . . .	1.269.010	6,0	63.636	59.769	12.203	28.683	164.291	129.531	59.717	211.299	64.752	23.377	15.141	204.878	26.807	369.217
	100%		5,0%	4,7%	1,0%	2,3%	13,0%	10,2%	4,7%	16,7%	5,1%	1,8%	1,2%	16,1%	2,1%	29,1%
Charbon et tourbe	921.968	4,3	317.291	137.869	5.445	8.377	468.982	411.490	6	—	8.005	31.136	1.283	—	64	1.002
	100%		34,4%	15,0%	0,6%	0,9%	50,9%	44,6%	—	—	0,9%	3,4%	0,1%	—	—	0,1%
Bois	866.346	4,2	10.028	266.680	2.609	2.730	282.047	528.264	3.458	8.377	6.055	14.424	2.765	1.194	14.696	5.066
	100%		1,2%	30,8%	0,3%	0,3%	32,6%	61,0%	0,4%	1,0%	0,7%	1,7%	0,3%	0,1%	1,7%	0,5%
Céréales, malt, légumes à cosse, farines et produits de la meunerie, riz	850.087	4,0	178.048	1.118	419	3.773	183.358	254.069	2.367	22.729	52.612	28.721	99.371	1.589	19.024	186.247
	100%		20,9%	0,1%	0,1%	0,4%	21,5%	29,9%	0,3%	2,7%	6,2%	3,4%	11,7%	0,2%	2,3%	21,8%
Soie et articles en soie	702.501	3,4	411.320	12.159	2.142	12.714	438.335	44.483	6.266	36.289	6.350	5.490	33.245	13.181	10.075	108.787
	100%		58,6%	1,7%	0,3%	1,8%	62,4%	6,3%	0,9%	5,2%	0,9%	0,8%	4,7%	1,9%	1,4%	15,5%
Lin, chanvre, jute, etc.	687.818	3,2	57.112	44.980	23.866	39.887	165.845	164.241	7.345	61.491	8.963	11.407	14.683	138.388	8.118	107.337
	100%		8,3%	6,5%	3,5%	5,7%	24,0%	23,9%	1,1%	8,9%	1,3%	1,7%	2,1%	20,2%	1,2%	15,6%
Autres articles	5.719.568	27,2	622.808	327.329	160.325	194.544	1.305.006	1.777.481	153.119	382.841	180.112	380.401	79.796	417.437	109.807	933.568
	100%		10,9%	5,7%	2,8%	3,4%	22,8%	31,1%	2,7%	6,7%	3,1%	6,7%	1,4%	7,3%	1,9%	16,3%
Total	21.227.610	100	3.123.531	1.468.276	870.512	947.814	6.410.193	4.694.662	284.199	1.478.039	547.050	850.844	619.334	1.170.405	386.220	4.786.664
			14,7%	6,9%	4,1%	4,5%	30,2%	22,1%	1,3%	7,0%	2,6%	4,0%	2,9%	5,5%	1,8%	22,5%

Tchécoslovaquie. — IMPORTATION PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES EN 1928.

Marchandises importées	Valeur (milliers de Kš.)	% de l'im- porta- tion totale	Pays de destination													
			Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Yougo- slavie	Total de ces 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande- Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats- Unis	Inde	Autres pays
Coton, fils et articles de coton	2.604.926	13,6	79.661	4.146	564	267	84.638	150.719	38.758	181.296	4.904	2.041	90.658	701.997	232.185	1.117.730
	100%		3,1%	0,1%			3,2%	5,8%	1,5%	7,0%	0,2%		3,6%	26,9%	8,9%	42,9%
Laine, fils de laine et articles en laine	2.081.199	10,8	116.304	31.711	3.654	1.179	152.848	629.504	378.178	290.504	2.936	45.429	43.595	887	456	536.862
	100%		5,6%	1,4%	0,2%	0,1%	7,3%	30,2%	18,2%	13,4%	0,1%	2,2%	2,2%			25,8%
Céréales, malt, légumes à cosse, farines et produits de la meunerie, riz	1.920.813	10,0	7.110	480.195	218.599	124.433	830.337	209.853	15.107	577	18.974	24.184	20	15.467	20.645	785.649
	100%		0,3%	25,0%	11,4%	6,5%	43,2%	10,9%	0,8%		1,0%	1,3%		0,8%	1,1%	40,9%
Soie et articles en soie	791.566	4,1	403.942	987	39	36	405.004	125.848	37.050	20.690	46.067	3.597	122.621	459	2	30.228
	100%		51,0%	0,1%	9,470	60.068	51,2%	15,9%	4,7%	2,6%	5,8%	0,5%	15,5%			3,8%
Produits animaux	743.649	3,9	25.275	28.915	1.2%	8,1%	123.728	99.556	13.918	4.378	22.023	92.705	4.100	2.580	22.683	357.958
	100%		3,4%	3,9%			16,6%	13,4%	1,9%	0,6%	3,0%	12,5%	0,6%	0,2%	3,1%	48,1%
Animaux de boucherie et de trait	714.523	3,7	742	91.548	116.834	86.749	295.873	1.011	255	30	—	409.436	253	—	—	7.665
	100%			12,8%	16,4%	12,2%	41,4%	0,1%				57,3%				1,1%
Papier et articles en papier	713.936	3,7	53.879	1.230	118	781	56.008	312.595	13.988	25.422	449	62.230	11.216	17.780	729	213.519
	100%		7,5%	0,2%			7,8%	43,8%	2,0%	3,6%		8,7%	1,6%	2,5%	0,1%	29,9%
Machines, appareils et leurs pièces détachées, en bois, en fer ou en métaux com- muns	702.410	3,7	46.899	5.615	352	233	53.099	453.864	20.791	73.404	370	5.745	25.740	36.605	—	32.792
	100%		6,7%	0,8%			7,6%	74,6%	3,0%	10,4%		0,8%	3,7%	5,2%		4,7%
Fruits, légumes, plantes et parties de plantes	701.959	3,7	13.760	44.467	10.566	35.599	104.392	75.685	10.900	2.900	65.076	10.100	877	6.177	107.876	317.976
	100%		2,0%	6,3%	1,5%	5,1%	14,9%	10,8%	1,6%	0,4%	9,3%	1,4%		0,9%	15,4%	45,3%
Fer et ouvrages en fer	633.073	3,3	110.906	3.876	418	5.383	120.583	340.453	17.647	40.792	504	17.718	9.329	6.754	3	79.290
	100%		17,5%	0,6%		0,9%	19,0%	53,8%	2,8%	6,4%	0,1%	2,8%	1,5%	1,1%		12,5%
Minéraux	609.553	3,2	61.608	9.841	4.433	24.160	100.042	87.139	3.554	951	12.748	20.166	1.293	10.089	3.206	370.365
	100%		10,1%	1,6%	0,7%	4,0%	16,4%	14,3%	0,6%	0,2%	2,1%	3,3%	2,1%	1,7%	0,5%	60,8%
Graisses	570.103	3,0	13.882	43.365	163	436	57.846	70.952	312	3.117	345	5.460	82	79.643	351	351.995
	100%		2,4%	7,6%		0,1%	10,1%	12,4%	0,1%	0,5%	0,2%	1,0%		14,0%		61,7%
Charbon et tourbe	549.600	2,9	653	6.797	18	—	7.468	337.765	137	98	10	202.105	—	—	—	2.017
	100%		0,2%	1,2%			1,4%	61,5%				36,8%				0,3%
Lin, chanvre, jute et autres matières textiles végétales non spécialement dénom- mées, fils et articles de ces matières	463.013	2,4	9.597	14.463	33	9.179	33.272	43.997	9.116	17.016	25.465	66.817	1.532	70	134.423	131.305
	100%		2,0%	3,1%		2,0%	7,2%	9,5%	2,0%	3,7%	5,5%	14,4%	0,3%		29,0%	28,4%
Matières chimiques auxi- liaires et produits chi- miques	433.088	2,3	31.397	2.073	5.746	25.634	64.850	218.359	7.459	2.915	12.512	8.154	3.851	10.930	—	114.058
	100%		7,1%	0,4%	1,3%	5,8%	14,6%	49,3%	1,7%	0,7%	2,8%	1,8%	0,9%	2,5%		25,7%
Autres articles	4.950.179	25,7	466.790	79.756	166.111	77.584	790.241	1.610.978	250.936	165.637	213.879	287.902	162.807	258.129	10.132	1.199.558
	100%		9,4%	1,6%	3,4%	1,6%	16,0%	32,5%	5,1%	3,3%	4,3%	5,8%	3,3%	5,2%	0,3%	24,2%
Total	19.193.590	100	1.442.405	848.985	537.118	451.721	3.280.229	4.768.278	818.106	829.727	426.262	1.263.789	477.974	1.147.567	532.691	5.648.967
	100%		7,5%	4,4%	2,8%	2,4%	17,1%	24,8%	4,3%	4,3	2,2%	6,6%	2,5%	6,0%	2,8%	29,4%

5. YOUGOSLAVIE.

I. CARACTÉRISTIQUES ESSENTIELLES DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR DE LA YOUGOSLAVIE.



En 1928, 36,9% des exportations totales yougoslaves ont été écoulées sur le marché danubien et 44% des importations yougoslaves provenaient de la même région.

Dans la période 1928-1930, l'importance relative du débouché danubien pour la Yougoslavie reste à peu près la même (voir, toutefois, le chapitre sur les céréales).

En dehors du groupe danubien, c'est l'Italie qui joue le rôle principal comme débouché en absorbant plus du quart des exportations totales yougoslaves. Viennent ensuite, à une distance considérable, les autres marchés principaux, dans l'ordre suivant: Autriche, Allemagne, Tchécoslovaquie et Hongrie.

A peu près les trois quarts des exportations yougoslaves se composent des produits des champs, des forêts et de l'élevage. Le bois joue le rôle principal (25%) et est suivi par les animaux vivants, œufs, céréales, tabac, légumes, etc. Ces exportations se dirigent principalement vers les autres pays danubiens et vers l'Italie. Celle-ci absorbe plus de la moitié du bois disponible, dont des quantités considérables se placent également en Hongrie.

L'Autriche et l'Italie sont les débouchés principaux pour les animaux vivants. Elles sont suivies à quelque distance par la Tchécoslovaquie. Les œufs yougoslaves se vendent surtout en Italie, mais les marchés allemand, suisse et autrichien présentent également une grande importance pour cet article.

Quant aux céréales, elles trouvent leur placement presque total à l'intérieur du groupe danubien, et notamment en Autriche et en Tchécoslovaquie.

La moitié des exportations de viande se vend en Autriche et environ le quart en Italie. Certaines quantités entrent toutefois aussi en Allemagne et en Suisse.

En passant aux importations, on constate que les deux pays industriels du groupe danubien — à savoir, la Tchécoslovaquie et l'Autriche — fournissent à la Yougoslavie, en quantités à peu près égales, 50% des produits dont elle a besoin. Elles sont suivies, par ordre d'importance, de l'Allemagne, de l'Italie, puis, à une distance considérable, de la Hongrie et de la Grande-Bretagne.

Il est à remarquer que le rôle relatif de l'Allemagne comme fournisseur tend à augmenter constamment, tandis que celui de l'Autriche tend à diminuer dans une proportion semblable.

Plus de la moitié des importations yougoslaves est formée par les textiles de toutes sortes (environ 28%), suivis de près par le fer et autres métaux, ouvrages en fer, machines et moteurs (environ 25%).

Les trois fournisseurs principaux de textiles sont la Tchécoslovaquie, l'Italie et l'Autriche. Entrent toutefois en ligne de compte, pour des quantités considérables: pour le coton, la Grande-Bretagne; pour la laine, l'Allemagne et la Grande-Bretagne; pour la soie, en premier lieu la France, suivie de l'Allemagne et de la Suisse.

Les produits métallurgiques proviennent surtout de l'Autriche, suivie de très près de l'Allemagne et de la Tchécoslovaquie. La Hongrie et la Pologne en fournissent également des quantités considérables.

L'Allemagne vient en tête pour la livraison des produits de l'industrie mécanique et électrotechnique. Viennent ensuite, sur un pied à peu près égal, l'Autriche et la Hongrie, suivies par la Tchécoslovaquie et la Grande-Bretagne.

Pour les moyens de transport sur rail, l'Allemagne est le fournisseur principal, tandis que la Tchécoslovaquie, la France et l'Italie se partagent l'importation des autres moyens de transport.

Le commerce avec la Roumanie, exception faite du transit des céréales, n'est pas considérable.

II. DONNÉES STATISTIQUES.

a) CHIFFRES GLOBAUX ANNUELS.

EXPORTATIONS (en millions de dinars).

Destination	1928		1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%
Autriche	1.154	17,9	1.238	15,6	1.199	17,7	727	15,2
Hongrie	567	8,8	538	6,8	487	7,2	318	6,6
Roumanie	77	1,2	1.025 ²	12,9	200	3,0	90	1,9
Tchécoslovaquie	580	9,0	426	5,4	556	8,2	744	15,5
Total	2.378	36,9	3.227	40,7	2.442	36,1	1.879	39,2
Allemagne	779	12,1	675	8,5	791	11,7	543	11,3
France	247	3,8	316	4,0	283	4,2	193	4,0
Grande-Bretagne	102	1,6	106	1,3	104	1,5	96	2,0
Italie	1.680	26,1	1.971	24,9	1.919	28,3	1.199	25,0
Pologne	89	1,4	90	1,1	49	0,7	61 ¹	1,3
Suisse	200	3,1	176	2,2	178	2,6	138	2,9
Autres pays	970	15,0	1.361	17,3	1.014	14,9	691	14,3
Total	6.445	100	7.922	100	6.780	100	4.800	100

IMPORTATIONS (en millions de dinars).

Provenance	1928		1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%
Autriche	1.355	17,3	1.324	17,4	1.171	16,8	730	15,2
Hongrie	520	6,6	490	6,5	405	5,8	252	5,3
Roumanie	208	2,7	182	2,4	223	3,2	79	1,6
Tchécoslovaquie	1.402	17,9	1.329	17,5	1.225	17,6	872	18,2
Total	3.485	44,5	3.325	43,8	3.024	43,4	1.933	40,3
Allemagne	1.067	13,6	1.188	15,6	1.221	17,6	925	19,3
France	353	4,5	301	4,0	269	3,9	211	4,4
Grande-Bretagne	447	5,7	426	5,6	412	5,9	316	6,6
Italie	939	12,0	823	10,8	783	11,3	494	10,3
Pologne	212	2,7	170	2,3	114	1,6	67	1,4
Suisse	99	1,3	112	1,5	111	1,6	126	2,6
Autres pays	1.233	15,7	1.250	16,4	1.026	14,7	728	15,1
Total	7.835	100	7.595	100	6.960	100	4.800	100

¹ D'après les statistiques polonaises.

² Le transit des céréales constitue la plus grande partie de ce chiffre.

BALANCE DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR (en millions de dinars).

Pays	1928	1929	1930	1931
Autriche	— 201	— 86	+ 28	— 3
Hongrie	+ 47	+ 48	+ 82	+ 66
Roumanie	— 131	+ 843	— 23	+ 11
Tchécoslovaquie	— 822	— 903	— 669	— 128
Total	— 1.107	— 98	— 582	— 54
Allemagne	— 288	— 513	— 430	— 382
France	— 106	+ 15	+ 14	— 18
Grande-Bretagne	— 345	— 320	— 308	— 220
Italie	+ 741	+ 1.148	+ 1.136	+ 705
Pologne	— 123	— 80	— 65	— 6
Suisse	+ 101	+ 64	+ 67	+ 12
Autres pays	— 263	+ 111	— 12	— 37
Total	— 1.390	+ 327	— 180	0

b) CHIFFRES DÉTAILLÉS PAR SEMESTRE.
(En millions de dinars.)

	Autriche		Hongrie		Roumanie		Tchécoslovaquie	
	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.
1929.	1.324	1.238	490	538	182	1.025	1.329	426
1930								
Janvier-juin.	598	565-	195	229	92	175	599	208
Juillet-déc. .	573	634	210	258	131	25	626	348
1930, total .	1.171	1.199	405	487	223	200	1.225	556
1931								
Janvier-juin.	408	353	129	183	49	3	438	197
Juillet-déc. .	322	374	123	135	30	87	434	547
1931, total .	730	727	252	318	79	90	872	744

c) CHIFFRES PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES.

Yougoslavie. — EXPORTATION PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES EN 1928.

Marchandises exportées	Valeur (en milliers de dinars)	% de l'ex- por- tation totale	Pays de destination													
			Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchéco- slovaquie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande- Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats- Unis	Grèce	Autres pays
Produits de la sylviculture. (91-102)	1.642.457 100%	25,5	52.023 3,2%	198.461 12,1%	199 —	9.522 0,6%	260.205 15,9%	95.058 5,8%	53.129 3,2%	38.175 2,3%	855.609 52,1%	33 —	20.437 1,3%	21.445 1,3%	153.300 9,3%	145.066 8,8%
Animaux vivants (50-57)	884.012 100%	13,7	349.979 39,6%	1.847 0,2%	269 —	114.630 13,0%	466.725 52,8%	5.211 0,6%	— —	995 0,1%	188.371 21,3%	45 —	1.832 0,2%	— —	208.180 23,6%	12.653 1,4%
Lait et œufs (62-63)	468.386 100%	7,3	84.926 18,1%	6.096 1,3%	— —	2.308 0,5%	93.330 19,9%	119.297 25,5%	— —	194 —	139.331 29,8%	— —	114.943 24,5%	— —	1.263 0,3%	28 —
Céréales (1-4,6)	451.734 100%	7,0	149.207 33,0%	60.440 13,4%	55.579 12,3%	158.954 35,2%	424.180 93,9%	2.062 0,5%	— —	— —	6.971 1,5%	418 0,1%	1.804 0,4%	— —	14.772 3,3%	1.527 0,3%
Métaux et articles en métaux (527-645)	439.000 100%	6,8	45.154 10,3%	30.180 6,9%	2.871 0,6%	13.575 3,1%	91.780 20,9%	167.092 38,1%	147.281 33,6%	12 —	16.304 3,7%	352 0,1%	62 —	855 0,2%	5.477 1,2%	9.785 2,2%
Plantes industrielles et médi- cinales (38-46)	380.531 100%	5,9	12.773 3,4%	18.222 4,8%	92 —	61.940 16,3%	93.027 24,5%	187.079 49,1%	7.155 1,9%	970 0,3%	16.556 4,3%	56.254 14,8%	2.632 0,7%	7.190 1,9%	312 0,1%	9.356 2,4%
Légumes, fruits (7-14)	337.354 100%	5,2	85.848 25,4%	19.697 5,8%	542 0,2%	39.831 11,9%	145.918 43,3%	63.102 18,7%	7.209 2,1%	94 —	72.299 21,4%	1.976 0,6%	5.854 1,7%	6.217 1,9%	30.109 8,9%	4.576 1,4%
Produits chimiques (196-235)	255.663 100%	4,0	27.048 10,6%	52.014 20,3%	5.798 2,3%	57.944 22,7%	142.804 55,9%	16.734 6,6%	575 0,2%	31.481 12,3%	43.214 16,9%	4.972 1,9%	237 0,1%	458 0,2%	1.630 0,6%	13.558 5,3%
Viande fraîche ou préparée . (58-61)	234.504 100%	3,6	127.306 54,3%	1.107 0,5%	— —	3.746 1,6%	132.159 56,4%	17.868 7,6%	210 0,1%	5.102 2,2%	63.931 27,3%	— —	14.891 6,3%	31 —	290 0,1%	22 —
Laine, poils, plumes, peaux, etc. (71-76)	228.444 100%	3,5	34.195 15,0%	26.265 11,5%	778 0,3%	18.882 8,3%	80.120 35,1%	42.333 18,5%	3.821 1,7%	1.357 0,6%	54.176 23,7%	2.421 1,1%	8.517 3,7%	1.516 0,7%	32.698 14,3%	1.485 0,6%
Terres et pierres (147-164)	173.019 100%	2,7	794 0,5%	1.089 0,6%	63 —	85 0,1%	2.031 1,2%	1.182 0,7%	1.243 0,7%	3.045 1,7%	31.219 18,0%	— —	792 0,5%	6 —	13.279 7,7%	120.222 69,5%
Engrais artificiels (262-263)	143.786 100%	2,2	31.461 21,9%	16.707 11,6%	— —	14.714 10,2%	62.882 43,7%	205 0,1%	— —	— —	43.225 30,1%	17.646 12,3%	— —	100 0,1%	3.076 2,1%	16.652 11,6%
Autres articles	805.810 100%	12,6	152.801 19,0%	134.613 16,7%	10.972 1,4%	83.477 10,3%	381.863 47,4%	62.224 7,7%	25.977 3,2%	20.789 2,6%	148.384 18,4%	4.515 0,6%	27.865 3,4%	21.743 2,7%	70.626 8,8%	41.824 5,2%
Total (non compris lin- gots et espèces)	6.444.700 100%	100	1.153.515 17,9%	566.738 8,8%	77.163 1,2%	579.608 9,0%	2.377.024 36,9%	779.447 12,1%	246.600 3,8%	102.214 1,6%	1.679.590 26,1%	88.632 1,4%	199.866 3,1%	59.561 0,9%	535.012 8,3%	376.754 5,8%

Yougoslavie. — IMPORTATION PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES EN 1928.

Marchandises importées	Valeur en milliers de dinars	% de l'importation totale	Pays de provenance												
			Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Total de ces 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats-Unis	Autres pays
Coton et articles en coton . . .	1.338.516	17,1	192.456	21.343	16	463.314	677.129	44.726	40.146	130.865	375.639	3.543	18.656	1.866	45.946
	100%		14,4%	1,6%	—	34,6%	50,6%	3,3%	3,0%	9,8%	28,1%	0,3%	1,4%	0,1%	3,4%
Fer et ouvrages en fer	953.781	12,2	259.211	107.234	1.109	222.592	590.146	158.489	15.525	12.606	10.155	135.168	4.036	8.206	19.450
	100%		27,2%	11,2%	1,2%	22,3%	61,9%	16,6%	1,6%	1,3%	1,1%	14,2%	0,4%	0,9%	2,0%
Laine et articles en laine	525.543	6,7	168.047	5.505	808	172.320	346.680	48.178	41.287	35.999	31.210	5.001	3.793	159	13.236
	100%		32,0%	1,0%	0,2%	32,8%	66,0%	9,2%	7,8%	6,9%	5,9%	1,0%	0,7%	—	2,5%
Machines	486.627	6,2	67.149	78.896	338	61.583	207.966	176.073	15.582	42.975	6.070	2.515	4.501	20.084	10.861
	100%		13,8%	16,2%	0,1%	12,7%	42,8%	36,2%	3,2%	8,8%	1,2%	0,5%	0,9%	4,1%	2,3%
Céréales, riz, légumes, fruits . .	450.305	5,8	3.275	68.015	29.759	6.031	107.080	410	2.452	3.311	186.403	112	46	91.360	59.131
	100%		0,7%	15,2%	6,6%	1,3%	23,8%	0,1%	0,5%	0,7%	41,4%	—	—	20,3%	13,2%
Denrées coloniales	270.651	3,5	2.020	3	—	95	2.118	2.567	904	32.923	6.013	—	138	1.108	224.880
	100%		0,7%	—	—	0,1%	0,8%	0,9%	0,3%	12,2%	2,2%	—	—	0,4%	83,2%
Plantes industrielles et médicinales	268.197	3,4	727	4.103	34	5.747	10.611	1.597	4.261	8.307	4.658	2	—	107.283	131.478
	100%		0,3%	1,5%	—	2,1%	3,9%	0,6%	1,6%	3,1%	1,7%	—	—	40,0%	49,1%
Papier et articles en papier	205.521	2,6	132.147	3.604	166	33.016	168.933	23.448	7.061	1.848	1.820	733	399	284	995
	100%		64,3%	1,8%	—	16,1%	82,2%	11,4%	3,4%	0,9%	0,9%	0,4%	0,2%	0,1%	0,5%
Chanvre, lin, jute, etc.	199.082	2,5	22.607	14.483	400	61.874	99.364	14.637	1.446	6.444	66.908	2.795	24	997	6.467
	100%		11,3%	7,3%	0,2%	31,1%	49,9%	7,3%	0,7%	3,2%	33,6%	1,4%	—	0,5%	3,4%
Métaux autres et ouvrages en . . .	194.767	2,5	58.740	23.598	20	14.198	96.556	53.484	9.861	10.132	6.950	176	7.909	1.925	7.774
	100%		30,2%	12,1%	—	7,3%	49,6%	27,5%	5,1%	5,2%	3,6%	—	4,1%	1,0%	4,0%
Combustibles minéraux	190.370	2,4	10.959	21.204	9.705	15.827	57.695	22.242	8.832	57.479	2.306	39.557	—	408	1.851
	100%		5,8%	11,1%	5,1%	8,3%	30,3%	11,7%	4,6%	30,2%	1,7%	20,8%	—	0,2%	1,0%
Moyens de transport	188.217	2,4	11.628	4.589	8	15.098	31.323	35.811	29.184	3.471	2.603	—	10	53.887	31.928
	100%		6,2%	2,4%	—	8,0%	16,6%	19,0%	15,5%	1,8%	1,4%	—	—	28,6%	17,1%
Produits de minoterie	186.133	2,4	2.787	32.934	478	38.817	75.016	6.759	11.439	6.306	12.971	916	67	18.785	53.874
	100%		1,5%	17,7%	0,3%	20,8%	40,3%	3,6%	6,2%	3,4%	7,0%	0,5%	—	10,1%	28,9%
Soie et articles en soie	185.575	2,4	64.156	2.220	4	18.023	84.403	26.250	32.874	1.326	15.981	3	19.423	139	5.176
	100%		34,6%	1,2%	—	9,7%	45,5%	14,1%	17,7%	0,7%	8,6%	—	10,5%	—	2,9%
Machines et appareils électriques .	60.735	2,1	35.360	35.413	11	16.090	86.874	56.709	4.271	1.695	1.501	—	3.752	732	5.201
	100%		22,0%	22,0%	—	10,0%	54,0%	35,3%	2,7%	1,1%	0,9%	—	2,3%	0,4%	3,3%
Aliments d'origine animale	49.828	0,6	11.095	3.696	3	565	15.359	2.975	3.069	7.813	1.303	16	3	8.684	10.606
	100%		22,3%	7,4%	—	1,1%	30,8%	6,0%	6,2%	15,7%	2,6%	—	—	17,4%	21,3%
Animaux vivants	1.079	—	481	486	24	33	1.024	25	1	—	1	—	—	—	28
	100%		44,6%	45,0%	2,2%	3,0%	94,8%	2,3%	0,1%	—	0,1%	—	—	—	2,7%
Autres articles	1.976.736	25,2	312.109	92.310	165.553	256.890	826.862	392.129	124.803	83.041	206.690	21.291	36.296	69.536	216.088
	100%		15,7%	4,7%	8,4%	13,0%	41,9%	19,8%	6,3%	4,2%	10,5%	1,1%	1,8%	3,5%	10,9%
Total (non compris lingots et espèces)	7.831.663	100	1.354.954	519.636	208.436	1.402.113	3.485.139	1.066.509	352.998	446.541	939.182	211.828	99.053	385.443	844.970
	100%		17,3%	6,6%	2,7%	17,9%	44,5%	13,6%	4,5%	5,7%	12,0%	2,7%	1,3%	4,9%	10,8%

Troisième Partie.

LES RELATIONS COMMERCIALES DE CERTAINS PAYS EUROPÉENS AVEC LES PAYS DANUBIENS.

1. ALLEMAGNE.

I. CARACTÉRISTIQUES ESSENTIELLES DE SON COMMERCE AVEC LES PAYS DANUBIENS.

En 1929, le montant des échanges entre l'Allemagne et les pays danubiens a atteint 2.605 millions de Reichsmarks, soit presque 10 % du volume global du commerce extérieur allemand. Les exportations allemandes vers ces pays se sont élevées à 1.562 millions de Reichsmarks, soit 11,6 % de ses exportations totales¹. Par contre, l'Allemagne a importé de ces pays pour 1.043 millions de Reichsmarks, soit 7,8 % de ses importations totales.

La même année, le groupe des cinq pays danubiens a acheté à l'Allemagne un peu plus de marchandises que son meilleur client, les Pays-Bas. De même, l'Allemagne a acheté à ce groupe un peu plus qu'elle n'a importé de la Grande-Bretagne, qui vient habituellement au deuxième rang parmi ses fournisseurs.

En tenant compte des oscillations annuelles, on constate que le groupe des cinq pays danubiens se place, pour l'Allemagne, au premier rang comme acheteur et, comme fournisseur, tout de suite après les États-Unis, qui occupent le premier rang.

La balance commerciale de l'Allemagne avec tous les pays du monde s'est soldée en 1929 par un excédent de + 36 millions de Reichsmarks. Avec les cinq pays en question, l'excédent de la balance commerciale s'est élevé à + 519 millions de Reichsmarks. Le commerce allemand avec les pays danubiens a donc été un facteur très important pour le redressement de la balance commerciale de l'Allemagne.

L'Allemagne avait en 1929 un excédent d'exportation vis-à-vis de tous les pays danubiens, sauf vis-à-vis de la Roumanie.

Excédent d'exportation (+) ou d'importation (—) de l'Allemagne dans les échanges avec les pays danubiens.

(En millions de Reichsmarks.)

Année	Autriche	Tchéco-slovaquie	Yougoslavie	Hongrie	Roumanie
1929	+ 239,5	+ 177,3	+ 91,7	+ 57,4	— 46,9

Les exportations allemandes vers les cinq pays danubiens consistent surtout en matières brutes ou simplement préparées et en produits fabriqués. Dans ces exportations, les ouvrages en fer, les machines et les articles électro-techniques jouent un rôle tout à fait prédominant.

Le pourcentage des produits fabriqués exportés de l'Allemagne est d'autant plus élevé que le caractère agricole du pays importateur est plus accentué. C'est ainsi que dans les exportations de l'Allemagne vers la Tchécoslovaquie les produits fabriqués ne représentent que le 54 %, tandis que ces mêmes produits représentent dans les exportations vers la Yougoslavie et la Roumanie environ le 91 %.

Il ne faut pas perdre de vue, en examinant les statistiques d'exportation de l'Allemagne, que tous les produits mentionnés dans ces statistiques ne sont pas d'origine allemande. L'Allemagne joue, pour certains de ces produits, le rôle d'intermédiaire entre les pays danubiens et les pays d'outre-mer. Tel est probablement le cas pour le riz, le coton, la laine, le cuivre.

L'Allemagne importe de la Tchécoslovaquie et de l'Autriche surtout des matières brutes ou simplement préparées et des produits fabriqués, tandis qu'elle achète dans les trois autres pays danubiens principalement des objets d'alimentation et des matières brutes ou simplement préparées.

Dans les exportations tchèques et autrichiennes vers l'Allemagne, les fils et tissus jouent un rôle très important. D'autres exportations caractéristiques sont les chaussures et les verreries pour la Tchécoslovaquie, et les vêtements, la lingerie, les articles en cuir, les fourrures, les livres et la musique pour l'Autriche.

¹ Y compris les livraisons au titre des réparations à la Yougoslavie et à la Roumanie.

Pour les pays danubiens, sauf la Hongrie, l'Allemagne est extrêmement importante comme marché pour l'exportation du bois. Il en est de même de l'orge en ce qui concerne la Roumanie (presque la moitié de son exportation vers l'Allemagne) et la Tchécoslovaquie.

Pour le blé et le maïs, au contraire, les quantités que l'Allemagne importe des pays danubiens ne jouent qu'un rôle très modeste dans son approvisionnement en ces matières.

II. DONNÉES STATISTIQUES.

A.

COMMERCE DE L'ALLEMAGNE AVEC LES PAYS DANUBIENS. (Chiffres globaux.)

Exportations (en millions de Reichsmarks).

Pays de destination	1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹
Tchécoslovaquie.	657,6	4,9	528,2	4,4	423,9	4,4
Autriche	441,2	3,3	360,3	3,0	275,3	2,8
Yougoslavie.	152,6	1,1	172,1	1,4	95,1	1
Roumanie	164,1	1,2	137,3	1,1	92,5	0,96
Hongrie	146,8	1,1	118,3	1,0	84,4	0,87
Total	1.562,3	11,6	1.316,2	10,9	971,2	10,03

¹ De l'exportation totale allemande.

Importations (en millions de Reichsmarks).

Pays de provenance	1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	%
Tchécoslovaquie.	480,3	3,6	359,0	3,5	243,7	3,6
Roumanie	211,0	1,6	236,9	2,3	102,4	1,5
Autriche	201,7	1,5	181,2	1,7	113,9	1,6
Hongrie	89,3	0,7	82,1	0,8	55,2	0,8
Yougoslavie.	60,9	0,4	74,8	0,7	40,1	0,6
Total	1.043,2	7,8	934,0	9,0	555,3	8,1

¹ De l'importation totale allemande.

B.

EXPORTATIONS DE L'ALLEMAGNE VERS LES PAYS DANUBIENS EN 1929.

(Par groupes de marchandises en millions de Reichsmarks.)

Marchandises	Tchécoslovaquie		Autriche		Roumanie		Yougoslavie		Hongrie	
	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%
I. Animaux vivants	0,4	0,06	0,37	0,08	0,04	0,02	0,03	0,02	0,11	0,07
II. Objets d'alimentation et boissons	37,12	5,65	19,73	4,48	0,83	0,50	0,49	0,32	2,80	1,90
III. Matières brutes ou simplement préparées	264,81	40,26	99,45	22,54	13,8	8,42	11,93	7,82	23,22	15,83
IV. Produits fabriqués	355,28	54,03	321,68	72,90	149,4	91,06	140,13	91,84	120,63	82,20
	657,61	100	441,23	100	164,07	100	152,58	100	146,76	100

IMPORTATIONS DE L'ALLEMAGNE DES PAYS DANUBIENS EN 1929.

(Par groupes de marchandises en millions de Reichsmarks.)

Marchandises	Tchécoslovaquie		Roumanie		Autriche		Hongrie		Yougoslavie	
	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%	Valeur	%
I. Animaux vivants	1,57	0,35	1,47	0,7	9,8	4,8	1,1	1,3	0,33	0,5
II. Objets d'alimentation et boissons	64,16	13,38	137,90	65,3	10,16	5	44,17	49,5	21,12	34,8
III. Matières brutes ou simplement préparées	220,25	45,82	68,57	32,5	67,81	33,7	33,32	37,3	36,37	59,8
IV. Produits fabriqués	194,33	40,45	3,08	1,5	113,97	56,5	10,75	11,9	3,04	4,9
	480,31	100	211,02	100	201,74	100	89,34	100	60,86	100

C.

EXPORTATIONS DE L'ALLEMAGNE VERS LES PAYS DANUBIENS EN 1929¹.

(En millions de Reichsmarks.)

Marchandises exportées	Tchécoslovaquie		Autriche		Roumanie		Yougoslavie		Hongrie	
	Valeurs	%	Valeurs	%	Valeurs	%	Valeurs	%	Valeurs	%
I. Animaux vivants . . .	0,4		0,37		0,04		0,03		0,11	
II. Objets d'alimentation et boissons	37,12		19,73		0,83		0,49		2,80	
dont:										
Froment.	2,84		1,24							
Seigle	2,68									
Avoine.			3,02							
Riz	9,58									
Poissons	3,45		2,56							
Huiles végétales.	6,83		5,63							
III. Matières brutes ou simplement préparées	264,81		99,45		13,8		11,93		23,22	
dont:										
Laine et coton	113,16	17,2	32,01	7,2	4,62	2,8	1,87	1,2	7,60	3,1
Lin, chanvre, jute.	4,37									
Peaux de veaux et de bœufs Issues de boucherie	6,02		1,83				1,0		2,05	
Charbon et coke.	2,09		3,32							
Fer	37,45	5,6	24,50	5,5			3,46	2,2	3,30	2,2
Cuivre.	10,91		2,01						1,03	
Sels de potasse	21,44	3,2	3,45							
Sels de potasse	7,44		1,67							
IV. Produits fabriqués . .	355,28		321,68		149,40		140,13		120,63	
dont:										
Fils de soie, de laine, de coton	20,93	3,1	10,68	2,4	10,11	6,1	1,45		6,54	4,4
Tissus de soie, de laine, de coton	9,93	1,5	41,96	9,5	8,63	5,2	9,85	6,4	13,32	9
Cuir.	14,55	2,2	16,61	3,7	2,01		1,98		4,94	
Fourrures	24,26	3,6	21,36	4,8	6,35	3,8	2,05		7,83	5,3
Ouvrages en caoutchouc . .	7,93		4,48		1,45		2,21		2,16	
Meubles et autres ouvrages en bois.	3,01		2,64				3,48		0,98	
Ouvrages en celluloïd, gala- lite, etc., sauf films	5,50		3,27						1,03	
Papier et ouvrages en papier	12,09	1,8	10,81		2,39		1,98		4,87	
Livres et musique gravée ou imprimée.	7,17		11,57	2,6			0,99		1,38	
Couleurs, teintures et vernis.	22,24	3,3	8,72		3,69		3,01		4,45	
Verres et ouvrages en verre.	9,45		7,66		3,05		2,67		4,04	
Chaudières et accessoires. .	10,56	1,6	7,54		6,50	3,9	3,14		2,68	
Outils	5,74		3,98		2,87		3,88		1,78	
Ouvrages en cuivre	11,56		7,90		5,19		4,27		3,69	
Machines pour l'industrie textile, machines-outils, machines électriques	36,37	5,5	19,32	4,3	8,39	5,1	13,08	8,5	8,70	5,9
Articles électriques	21,29	3,2	20,11	4,5	11,54	7	4,96	3,2	7,37	5
Voitures automobiles et mo- tocyclus	4,32		4,96		0,91		3,95		1,67	
Vélocipèdes et accessoires .	2,91		1,51		1,98		1,11		2,89	
Instruments de musique, phonographes.	6,18		3,33		1,45		1,07		0,92	
Total.	657,61		441,23		164,07		152,58		146,76	

¹ Afin de ne pas surcharger le tableau, les chiffres de moindre importance ont été omis.

IMPORTATIONS DE L'ALLEMAGNE DES PAYS DANUBIENS EN 1929¹. (En millions de Reichsmarks.)

Marchandises importées	Tchécoslovaquie		Roumanie		Autriche		Hongrie		Yougoslavie	
	Valeurs	%	Valeurs	%	Valeurs	%	Valeurs	%	Valeurs	%
I. Animaux vivants . . .	1,57		1,47		9,8		1,1		0,33	
II. Objets d'alimentation et boissons	64,16		137,90		10,16		44,17		21,12	
Froment	1,35		2,27				5,98	6,7		
Seigle	3,02		2,38							
Orge	13,74	2,8	99,73	47,2			3,17			
Maïs			6,50							
Malt	18,92	3,9	—							
Haricots et pois	1,08		3,46				3,07			
Fruits	4,81		3,24				2,88		4,15	
Viandes, lards et saucissons	3,78		1,33	8,1	1,64		9,30	10,4		
Œufs de volaille	2,62		17,06		2,41		5,80	6,4	12,38	20,3
Bières	5,93									
III. Matières brutes ou simplement préparées	220,25		68,57		67,81		33,32		36,37	
Laine	9,45		1,17		1,41		6,86	7,6		
Coton	4,86				1,58					
Peaux brutes de veaux et de bœufs	3,99				1,33					
Peaux brutes de moutons									2,12	
Peaux pour fourrures	3,46		5,35		2,86				1,48	
Poils et plumes	10,84		1,99		2,47		10,77	12		
Houblon	7,25								2,05	
Graines non oléagineuses	4,65		1,23				2,24			
Tourteaux	6,02		6,56				1,16			
Sons et autres fourrages	3,26		2,18							
Bois et pâtes de bois	59,89	12,4	17,15	8,1	29,99	14,8	1,68	1,8	7,6	1,2
Charbon	5,06									
Lignite	42,76	8,9								
Goudron de houille	6,14									
Huiles minérales	1,03		26,17	12,4						
Cuivre brut	5,30				3,42				13,38	21,9
Aluminium					3,02					
IV. Produits fabriqués	194,33		3,08		113,97		10,75		3,04	
Fils de soie, de laine, de coton, de lin, de chanvre, de jute, etc.	51,82	10,7			7,44	3,6	1,10			
Tissus de soie, de laine, de coton, de lin, de chanvre, de jute, etc.	35,61	7,4			10,89	5,2				
Vêtements et lingerie					9,80	4,8				
Cuir	7,86				6,33					
Chaussures, articles en cuir et sellerie	23,96	4,9			2,98					
Fourrures et articles en fourrures	5,35				5,20					
Mebles et autres articles en bois	3,67				2,14					
Papier et articles en papier	2,12				2,32					
Livres et musique gravée ou imprimée	1,43				8,40	4,1				
Faïences et porcelaines	2,33									
Verres et articles en verre	17,56	3,6			1,01					
Fer en barres et profilés	2,71				4,59					
Fer blanc et fils de fer	2,42									
Chaudières et accessoires	2,22				2,88					
Articles en cuivre	1,46				5,66					
Articles dorés et argentés	2,08									
Articles électrotechniques					4,11		2,66	2,9		
Voitures, automobiles, motocycles et vélocipèdes					7,87	3,9				
Instruments de musique, phonographes, etc.	2,07									
Total	480,31		211,02		201,74		89,34		60,86	

¹ Afin de ne pas surcharger le tableau, les chiffres de moindre importance ont été omis.

2. GRANDE-BRETAGNE.

I. CARACTÉRISTIQUES ESSENTIELLES DE SON COMMERCE AVEC LES PAYS DANUBIENS.

Le commerce de la Grande-Bretagne avec les cinq pays danubiens n'est pas d'une très grande importance si on le compare avec la valeur globale du commerce extérieur britannique. En 1929, il a atteint un montant global de 9.521.607 livres sterling pour l'exportation britannique vers les cinq pays danubiens et de 12.907.496 livres sterling pour l'importation en Grande-Bretagne des produits danubiens. Ces deux montants représentent approximativement le 1,3% de l'importation et le 1,2% de l'exportation de la Grande-Bretagne. Comme fournisseurs et comme marché, les cinq pays danubiens représentent pour la Grande-Bretagne une importance quelque peu inférieure à la Norvège, mais un peu supérieure à la Suisse. Les chiffres de ce commerce pour 1929, détaillés par pays, par classes de marchandises et par groupes principaux d'articles sont reproduits dans les tableaux ci-joints.

Comme le montrent ces tableaux, l'exportation britannique vers les cinq pays danubiens consiste, en grande partie, en produits mi-fabriqués et fabriqués. *Les comestibles, boissons et tabacs*, d'une importance minime, consistent essentiellement en spécialités anglaises; *les produits bruts*, également peu importants en laine à destination de l'Autriche, de la Tchécoslovaquie, de la Roumanie, et en houille à destination de la Yougoslavie, ce dernier pays étant accessible par les ports de la mer Adriatique.

Les principales exportations de produits mi-fabriqués et fabriqués sont constituées par de produits de qualité de l'industrie textile britannique, filés et tissus de coton, filés et tissus de laine, dont une bonne partie constitue la matière première des industries de transformation des Etats importateurs, des produits mi-fabriqués de l'industrie sidérurgique (aciers spéciaux), des outils, des machines servant à l'équipement industriel plus spécialement textile, des automobiles légères. Les autres exportations de produits industriels anglais sont en grande partie des produits portant des marques connues et appréciées qui — tels certains produits chimiques, pharmaceutiques et cosmétiques, certains parfums et savons, des confections de la lingerie et de la bonneterie, des articles de modes, des produits des arts graphiques, des appareils et instruments scientifiques, de musique, etc., des ouvrages en cuir, des produits céramiques ou des cristaux — font l'objet d'un commerce régulier et ne rencontrant pas une concurrence directe comme les articles fabriqués en masse et standardisés.

L'importation de produits danubiens est, elle aussi, constituée en majorité par des produits mi-fabriqués et fabriqués, originaires surtout d'Autriche et de Tchécoslovaquie. Un fait digne de remarque est l'importance relative de l'importation des produits des industries textiles, en particulier des confections, des vêtements, de la bonneterie, branches qui font l'objet d'importantes exportations britanniques.

II. DONNÉES STATISTIQUES.

A. COMMERCE DE LA GRANDE-BRETAGNE AVEC LES PAYS DANUBIENS (chiffres globaux).

Pays	<i>Exportations</i> (en milliers de livres sterling).				<i>Importations</i> (en milliers de livres sterling).			
	1929		1930		1929		1930	
	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ²	Valeur	% ²
Autriche	2.521	0,3	2.040	0,4	2.566	0,2	3.389	0,4
Hongrie	1.059	0,2	739	0,1	659	0,05	943	0,1
Roumanie	2.317	0,3	1.947	0,3	2.965	0,3	4.726	0,5
Tchécoslovaquie.	2.101	0,3	1.731	0,3	6.250	0,6	6.067	0,6
Yougoslavie . .	1.524	0,2	1.159	0,2	587	0,05	694	0,07
Total	9.522	1,3	7.616	1,3	13.027	1,20	15.819	1,77

¹ De l'exportation totale britannique.
² De l'importation totale britannique.

B. EXPORTATION BRITANNIQUE VERS LES ETATS DANUBIENS EN 1929.
(Exprimée en livres sterling.)

I. Chiffres globaux par classes de marchandises.

	Autriche	Tchéco-slovaquie	Hongrie	Roumanie	Yougoslavie	Totaux des cinq pays	Exportation britannique totale par classes de marchandises
I. Comestibles, boissons, tabacs	17.175	13.470		5.317	19.910	55.872	55.656.069
II. Produits bruts	57.557	84.613		54.039	133.540	229.749	78.900.638
III. Produits mi-fabriqués et fabriqués	2.312.963	1.866.883	970.364	2.233.699	1.332.271	8.816.180	573.799.489
IV. Animaux non destinés à la consommation	2.268	128		142	238	2.776	2.025.272
V. Colis postaux	130.569	135.876	88.578	23.484	38.523	417.030	18.967.854
Totaux	2.520.532	2.100.970	1.058.942	2.316.681	1.524.482	9.521.607	729.349.322

2. Principales exportations.

	Autriche	Tchéco-slovaquie	Hongrie	Roumanie	Yougoslavie
II. Houille					120.323
Laine	38.416	25.180		54.039	
III. Filés de coton	267.226	546.823	} 117.660 {	446.389	205.990
Tissus de coton	330.890	62.528		475.771	203.277
Filés de laine	120.254	73.171	27.557	52.717	
Tissus de laine	580.997	234.980	225.405	143.902	121.383
Tissus et confections de soie naturelle et artificielle	73.237	58.187			
Ouvrages en caoutchouc	73.374	28.466		15.061	
Produits de la sidérurgie	37.930	30.691	33.535	257.798	
Métaux non ferreux et leurs ouvrages		5.225		60.923	85.303
Machines	111.558	248.443	182.181	223.181	88.057
Véhicules à moteur	175.783	237.112	93.743	62.037	259.982
Gramophones, phonographes et leurs parties	29.915	53.309		82.854	47.641
Cuirs et ouvrages en cuir	147.884	37.651	31.614		7.279

N. B. — Les places laissées en blanc indiquent que l'exportation, peu importante, n'a pas été mentionnée séparément dans les statistiques anglaises.

C. IMPORTATION DES ETATS DANUBIENS EN GRANDE-BRETAGNE EN 1929.
(Exprimée en livres sterling.)

I. Chiffres globaux par classes de marchandises.

	Autriche	Tchéco-slovaquie	Hongrie	Roumanie	Yougoslavie	Totaux des cinq pays	Importation britannique totale par classes de marchandises
I. Comestibles, boissons, tabacs	186.102	727.198	537.207	1.177.016	54.326	2.681.849	509.462.268
II. Produits bruts	57.049	157.431	27.736	212.681	279.509	734.406	285.284.260
III. Produits mi-fabriqués et fabriqués	2.297.502	5.365.994	94.307	1.453.460	253.604	9.464.867	305.464.269
IV. Animaux non destinés à la consommation	32	233	—	—	—	265	3.027.891
V. Colis postaux	26.103	6	—	—	—	26.109	7.824.784
Totaux	2.566.788	6.250.862	659.250	2.843.157	587.439	12.907.496	1.111.063.472

2. Principales importations.

	Autriche	Tchéco- slovaquie	Hongrie	Roumanie	Yougoslavie
I. Froment.				438.463	
Farine de froment			133.046		
Orge		57.015		634.592	
Sucre		567.341			
Volaille et gibier	170.209	46.140	186.231		43.893
Pois secs			95.641		
II. Graines oléagineuses . .				180.592	
Bois sciés	18.933	46.844		26.709	279.509
III. Tissus et confections co- ton (sauf vêtements) . . .	30.163	414.688			
Tissus et confections soie (sauf vêtements)	299.270	47.367	9.959		
Filés, tissus et confections laine (sauf vêtements). . .	31.966	631.553			
Vêtements.	422.103	259.842	40.811		
Bonneterie.	17.188	302.715	16.059		
Chapeaux, bonnets, etc. .	163.309	479.987			
Chaussures.	12.151	248.610			
Prod. de l'industrie du jute, chanvre, etc. . . .	75.772	249.472	10.509		
Fourrures (peaux et con- fections).	198.539		11.616		
Meubles et ouvrages en bois.	44.565	188.334			9.537
Cuirs et ouvrages en cuir .	160.866	42.009	28.208		
Mercerie.	70.409	147.172			
Appareils et appareillage électriques	301.884	53.546			
Poterie	15.799	105.514			
Papiers et cartons	108.724	39.027			
Verrerie.	12.662	970.659			
Produits de la sidérurgie. » chimiques	13.882	389.283			147.163
» dérivés du pé- trole	37.156	20.630	7.892	1.404.442	

N. B. — Les places laissées en blanc indiquent que l'importation est peu importante ou nulle.

3. BULGARIE.

I. CARACTÉRISTIQUES ESSENTIELLES DE SON COMMERCE AVEC LES PAYS DANUBIENS.

En 1929, le commerce extérieur de la Bulgarie s'est fait principalement avec les cinq pays danubiens et l'Allemagne qui, réunis, ont absorbé 50,6 % des exportations bulgares et ont fourni 52,1 % des marchandises importées en Bulgarie. Le commerce extérieur (importations et exportations) de la Bulgarie avec les cinq pays danubiens pris dans leur ensemble (25,8%) a dépassé légèrement celui avec l'Allemagne (25,5 %); et si l'Allemagne était le plus grand acheteur des produits bulgares, le groupe des pays danubiens était le principal fournisseur de la Bulgarie.

En achetant 20,7 % du total de ses exportations, le groupe des cinq pays danubiens a constitué un marché d'une grande importance pour la Bulgarie. Dans ce groupe, ce sont l'Autriche et la Tchécoslovaquie qui ont absorbé les produits de l'exportation bulgare (l'Autriche a acheté des produits agricoles et de l'élevage ainsi que du tabac, tandis que la Tchécoslovaquie et, dans une certaine mesure, la Hongrie se sont approvisionnées en Bulgarie en tabac uniquement); les autres Etats danubiens, étant eux-mêmes des pays agricoles, n'ont acheté presque rien à la Bulgarie.

En ce qui concerne les importations de la Bulgarie, les pays danubiens lui ont fourni 29,9 % du total des articles importés. La Bulgarie a acheté de l'Europe danubienne 23,1 % de ses besoins en produits métallurgiques (Tchécoslovaquie, Autriche, Hongrie) et 21,3 % de ses besoins en textile (Tchécoslovaquie, Autriche); 77 % de son importation des huiles minérales et 77,3 % de son importation de bois proviennent de la Roumanie, ainsi que le 69 % des céréales importées ont été de provenance yougoslave. Ainsi, on constate que les pays danubiens ont fourni, en 1929, à la Bulgarie aussi bien des produits fabriqués que des matières premières.

L'Allemagne qui, en 1929, a été le principal acheteur (29,9 %) et le plus grand fournisseur (22,2 %) de la Bulgarie, lui a acheté surtout du tabac et d'autres produits agricoles; elle a été en même temps le plus grand importateur des produits métallurgiques en Bulgarie.

L'Italie joue également un rôle important dans le commerce extérieur bulgare; elle a occupé, en 1929, la troisième place dans l'exportation (10,5 %) et la deuxième dans l'importation (10,7 %). L'Italie est le principal fournisseur de produits textiles.

La Grande-Bretagne (8,8 %) et la France (8,2 %) participent aussi largement dans les importations en Bulgarie.

[Voir page suivante.]

II. DONNÉES STATISTIQUES.

COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR DE LA BULGARIE EN 1929.

(En millions de leva.)

Exportation	Total		Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchéco- slovaquie	Yougo- slavie	Total de ces 5 pays	Allemagne	Italie	France	Grande- Bretagne	Pologne	Suisse	Autres pays
	Valeur	%													
Tabac	2.896	45	331	150		267		748 25,8%	1.001	273			538	8	328
Produits de l'agricul. et élevage ¹	2.475	39	437			22		459 18,9%	748	373	77	24	1	112	682
Essence de roses	343	5	1					1	33	2	231	36			40
Autres produits	682	11	33	23	27	15	17	115 16,8%	130	22	21	40	4	13	337
Total	6.396 100%	100	802 12,5%	173 2,7%	27 0,4%	304 4,8%	17 0,3%	1.323 20,7%	1.912 29,9%	670 10,5%	329 5,1%	100 1,6%	542 8,5%	133 2,1%	1.387 21,6%
Importation															
Produits métallurgiques . . .	2.659	32	213	104	4	282	11	614 23,1%	951	67	262	131	16	58	568
Produits textiles	2.571	31	195	22	11	314	6	548 21,3%	290	693	232	484	20	100	204
Denrées alimentaires	697	8		31	10	12	274	327 46,9%		54	23				293
Autres produits	2.361	29	228	37	564 ²	139	20	988 41,8%	599	77	160	115	12	52	350
Total	8.288 100%	100	636 7,7%	194 2,3%	589 7,1%	747 9,0%	311 3,8%	2.477 29,9%	1.840 22,2%	891 10,7%	677 8,2%	730 8,8%	48 0,6%	210 2,5%	1.415 17,1%

¹ Dont: œufs 735
céréales 550
peaux 335
animaux 996
cocons 188.

² Dont: pétrole 233
bois 297.

4. FRANCE.

I. CARACTÉRISTIQUES ESSENTIELLES DE SON COMMERCE AVEC LES PAYS DANUBIENS.

Par rapport à l'ensemble de ses échanges commerciaux, le commerce de la France avec les cinq pays danubiens est d'assez faible importance, aussi bien pour l'exportation que pour l'importation. L'exportation de la France vers le groupe des cinq pays danubiens s'élève, en 1929, à 702.400.000 francs, soit 1,48 % de l'exportation totale française. Dans la même année, l'importation de ces cinq pays en France atteint 971.200.000 francs, soit 1,59 % de l'importation totale française.

L'exportation française. — Le 1,48 % de l'exportation française qui se dirige vers les cinq pays danubiens — pays dont la population s'élève à 58 millions — représente environ un cinquième de l'exportation française en Suisse et un dixième de l'exportation française en Belgique.

Parmi les pays vers lesquels se dirige l'exportation française, la Tchécoslovaquie vient au trente et unième rang, l'Autriche au trente-cinquième, la Roumanie au trente-huitième, la Yougoslavie au quarante-troisième, la Hongrie au cinquante-quatrième.

Les principaux produits exportés par la France sont les fils et tissus, la carrosserie, les produits chimiques et la parfumerie, les machines et outils.

L'importation française. — Les cinq pays danubiens jouent dans l'importation française un rôle très modeste. A eux cinq ils importent en 1929 moins de 1,6 % de l'importation totale française — c'est-à-dire, un peu plus que la Suède (1,4) ou que la Russie (1,4), le tiers environ de ce qu'importe l'Argentine.

L'Autriche occupe le trentième rang parmi les pays importateurs en France, la Tchécoslovaquie le trente-huitième, la Yougoslavie le quarante-sixième, la Roumanie le trente-neuvième, la Hongrie le cinquante-neuvième.

Les produits que la France a importés en 1929 des pays danubiens varient suivant le pays considéré. La France importe de Roumanie presque exclusivement des huiles minérales et des bois; de la Tchécoslovaquie, elle importe des verres et cristaux, des tissus de jute et de coton, du houblon, des faïences et porcelaines, des ouvrages en cuir, des machines; de l'Autriche, des bois et des pâtes de cellulose, des poteries, des chapeaux de feutre et de soie; de la Yougoslavie, du cuivre et du bois; de la Hongrie, des légumes et des farines de légumes, des tabacs, des poteries, des conserves de viande et de gibier.

Le commerce d'importation provenant de la Roumanie s'est fortement développé, passant de 232,7 millions en 1929 à 565,6 millions en 1931. L'augmentation est due surtout à l'accroissement de l'importation de céréales (2,7 millions en 1929 et 203,6 millions en 1931) et de bétail (0,2 million en 1929, 49,5 millions en 1931).

Le commerce d'importation provenant de la Tchécoslovaquie s'est également développé, quoique dans une moindre mesure (de 244,6 millions en 1922 à 330,2 millions en 1930).

II. DONNÉES STATISTIQUES.

A. COMMERCE DE LA FRANCE AVEC LES PAYS DANUBIENS.

Exportations (en millions de francs).

Pays de destination	1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹
Autriche	176,1	0,4	215,0	0,5	177,0	0,6
Hongrie	41,4	0,08	48,0	0,1	44,0	0,1
Roumanie	149,6	0,3	171,2	0,4	115,2	0,4
Tchécoslovaquie.	233,1	0,5	222,3	0,5	220,1	0,7
Yougoslavie	102,2	0,2	109,0	0,3	99,1	0,3
Total	702,4	1,48	775,5	1,8	655,4	2,1

¹ De l'exportation totale française.

Importations (en millions de francs).

Pays de provenance	1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹
Autriche	309,2	0,5	304,0	0,6	252,0	0,6
Hongrie	52,2	0,09	70,0	0,1	137,0	0,3
Roumanie	232,7	0,4	375,2	0,7	565,7	1,3
Tchécoslovaquie	244,6	0,4	308,6	0,6	330,2	0,8
Yougoslavie	132,5	0,2	156,9	0,3	123,1	0,3
Total	971,2	1,59	1.214,7	2,3	1.408,0	3,3.

¹ De l'importation totale française.

B. EXPORTATIONS FRANÇAISES VERS LES PAYS DANUBIENS EN 1929.

Vers l'Autriche.

Désignation des marchandises	Valeur en millions de francs	Désignation des marchandises	Valeur en millions de francs
Exportation totale	176,1	Ouvrages en peaux et en cuir	6,5
Fils et tissus de soie et de bourre de soie	39,8	Bois et ouvrages en bois	5,7
Fils et tissus de lin, de chanvre, de coton, de laine	21,0	Parfumerie et médicaments	5,1
Carrosserie	16,6	Laines et déchets de laine	4,8
Pierres, gemmes, perles fines	10,9	Ouvrages en caoutchouc et en gutta-percha	4,6
Machines et outils	10,1	Vêtements et lingerie	4,0
Produits chimiques (engrais, colorants)	9,7	Autres produits	33,2

Vers la Hongrie.

Exportations totales	41,4	Produits résineux	1,5
Fils et tissus de soie, de laine, de coton	11,3	Ouvrages en caoutchouc	1,4
Carrosserie	6,2	Ouvrages en peaux et en cuir	1,3
Machines et outils	3,0	Laines et déchets de laine	1,3
Parfumerie et médicaments	1,7	Pierres, gemmes et perles fines	1,2
		Autres produits	11,5

Vers la Roumanie.

Exportation totale	149,6	Ouvrages en peaux et en pelleterie	6,7
Fils et tissus de coton	26,0	Carrosserie	6,1
Aéronefs et pièces détachées	17,1	Fers et aciers	6,1
Machines et outils	15,1	Produits chimiques	4,5
Fils et tissus de laine, de lin, de chanvre, de jute	9,5	Huiles et essences végétales	3,9
Parfumerie et médicaments	7,6	Papiers	2,9
Fils et tissus de soie et de bourre de soie	7,3	Produits résineux	2,2
		Autres produits	34,6

Vers la Tchécoslovaquie.

Exportation totale	233,1	Fils et tissus de soie et de bourre de soie	9,6
Laines et déchets de laine	70,2	Parfumerie et médicaments	8,5
Ouvrages en caoutchouc et en gutta-percha	23,2	Fils et tissus de laine	7,9
Fils et tissus de coton	18,0	Pierres, gemmes et perles fines	5,5
Machines et outils	14,0	Vins	3,6
Carrosserie	13,6	Or et platine	3,0
Ouvrages en peaux et en pelleterie	9,8	Autres produits	46,2

Vers la Yougoslavie.

Désignation des marchandises	Valeur en millions de francs	Désignation des marchandises	Valeur en millions de francs
Exportation totale	102,2	Fils et tissus de laine, de lin, de chanvre, de jute, de ramie	5,7
Aéronefs et pièces détachées	40,3	Houille crue et agglomérée	3,7
Tissus de soie ou de bourre de soie	13,0	Livres, journaux et imprimés	1,7
Carrosserie	6,3	Parfums, savons et médicaments	1,8
Machines et outils	8,6	Autres articles	14,6
Fils de coton	6,5		

C. IMPORTATIONS FRANÇAISES DES PAYS DANUBIENS EN 1929.

De l'Autriche.

Importation totale	309,2	Chapeaux de feutre et de soie, casquettes	8,5
Bois communs	155,1	Machines et outils	8,5
Pâte de cellulose	23,3	Tissus de soie et de bourre de soie	7,7
Poterie, carreaux et pavés céramiques	14,2	Drilles	6,9
Conserves de viande et de gibier	10,4	Fers et aciers	6,5
Pierres gemmes et perles fines	10,2	Autres produits	57,9

De la Hongrie.

Importation totale	52,2	Plumes à lit	2,0
Légumes secs et leurs farines	12,7	Chanvre	1,8
Tabac en feuilles ou en côtes	11,4	Légumes frais	1,7
Poterie, carreaux et pavés céramiques	3,5	Céréales	1,5
Conserves de viande et de gibier	2,7	Verres et cristaux	1,4
Machines motrices à vapeur et autres	2,5	Autres produits	11,0

De la Roumanie.

Importation totale	232,7	Bois communs	40,8
Huiles minérales	118,5	Légumes secs et leurs farines	34,5

De la Tchécoslovaquie.

Importation totale	244,6	Ouvrages en peaux ou en cuir	9,0
Verres et cristaux	38,5	Bijouterie fausse et ouvrages dorés ou argentés	8,3
Tissus de jute, coton, laine, alpaga, soie	28,0	Meubles et ouvrages en bois	7,3
Pâtes de cellulose	21,9	Pierres et terres servant aux arts et métiers	6,7
Machines et outils	20,6	Céréales	6,5
Houblon	19,8	Autres produits	54,7
Faïences et porcelaines	12,3		
Chapeaux de feutre et de soie, casquettes	11,0		

De la Yougoslavie.

Importation totale	132,5	Chanvre	7,5
Cuivre	56,8	Légumes secs et leurs farines	3,9
Bois communs	44,4	Autres produits	19,9

5. ITALIE.

I. CARACTÉRISTIQUES ESSENTIELLES DE SON COMMERCE AVEC LES PAYS DANUBIENS.

Au cours de l'année 1929, le commerce de l'Italie (importation et exportation) avec le groupe des cinq pays danubiens s'est élevé à 2.926 millions de liras, soit 8 % du commerce extérieur global de l'Italie. Ce pourcentage est de 10 % en 1931; par contre, la valeur des produits échangés entre l'Italie et les pays danubiens a diminué de 25 % de 1929 à 1931.

En 1929, l'Italie a exporté vers les cinq pays danubiens pour 1.141 millions de liras, soit 7,6 % de ses exportations totales. La même année, l'Italie a importé de ces cinq pays pour 1.785 millions de liras, soit 8,2 % de ses importations totales.

Le groupe des cinq pays danubiens occupe le cinquième rang parmi les clients de l'Italie (après la France et avant l'Argentine), et également le cinquième rang parmi ses fournisseurs (après la Grande-Bretagne et avant l'Argentine).

La balance commerciale de l'Italie avec les pays danubiens est caractérisée par un déficit constant pour l'Italie. Ce déficit, qui se chiffrait à 644 millions de liras en 1929, a atteint 1.119 millions de liras en 1930, pour tomber à 538 millions de liras en 1931. L'accroissement rapide du déficit en 1930 est dû principalement à une augmentation des importations de céréales (mauvaise récolte en Italie) et de bovidés. Les pays danubiens qui ont le plus contribué à former ce déficit sont: la Yougoslavie (444 millions de liras en 1930) et la Roumanie (338 millions de liras en 1930).

Pendant la période s'étendant de 1929 à 1931, la balance commerciale de l'Italie avec chacun des pays danubiens est restée en général déficitaire, sauf pour l'Autriche, vis-à-vis de laquelle l'Italie a enregistré en 1931 un solde actif de 28 millions de liras. La balance avec la Hongrie, autrefois active pour l'Italie, est devenue défavorable pour ce dernier pays depuis 1929, par suite des accroissements des importations hongroises en Italie.

Le commerce le plus développé est celui avec l'Autriche et la Yougoslavie — c'est-à-dire, avec les deux pays contigus au Royaume. Cependant, en 1930 et 1931, la Roumanie a pris, pour l'importation, la deuxième place, après la Yougoslavie.

En 1929, près de 50 % des importations en Italie de l'Autriche et de la Yougoslavie, et près de 19 % des importations de la Roumanie, consistent en bois commun. Les huiles minérales et leurs dérivés constituent près de 40 % des exportations de la Roumanie vers l'Italie. L'Italie représente un débouché important pour la Yougoslavie et la Hongrie, en ce qui concerne les bovidés, pour la Yougoslavie et la Roumanie en ce qui concerne le maïs.

En outre, l'Italie importe de l'Autriche de la pâte à papier, du papier et des cartons; de la Yougoslavie, des œufs; de la Hongrie, des céréales et des farines.

Parmi les produits que la Tchécoslovaquie fournit à l'Italie jouent un grand rôle: les barres, les tôles et autres ouvrages en fer et acier, les machines, les textiles, les articles en verre et le malt.

Dans les exportations italiennes vers les pays danubiens, deux groupes de produits occupent une place de premier ordre: les fruits (« agrumi », raisin, etc.) et les légumes frais, d'une part, qui sont absorbés principalement par les marchés autrichien et tchécoslovaque, et les produits textiles, d'autre part, qui sont dirigés vers la Yougoslavie, la Roumanie et la Hongrie. L'Italie exporte aussi vers les pays danubiens le riz, les vins (Autriche), les tourteaux (Tchécoslovaquie), les peaux brutes (Hongrie), etc.

II. DONNÉES STATISTIQUES.

A. COMMERCE DE L'ITALIE AVEC LES CINQ PAYS DANUBIENS.

Exportations (en millions de liras.)

Pays de destination	1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹
Autriche	427	2,8	389	3,2	319	3,1
Hongrie	116	0,8	103	0,9	88	0,8
Roumanie	168	1,1	162	1,3	121	1,2
Tchécoslovaquie . .	163	1,1	138	1,1	129	1,2
Yougoslavie	267	1,8	262	2,1	169	1,7
	1.141	7,6	1.054	8,6	826	8,0

¹ De l'exportation totale italienne.

Importations (en millions de lires).

Pays de provenance	1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹
Autriche	483	2,2	412	2,4	291	2,5
Hongrie	188	0,9	304	1,7	145	1,2
Roumanie	206	1,0	500	2,9	336	2,9
Tchécoslovaquie	270	1,2	251	1,4	182	1,6
Yougoslavie	638	2,9	706	4,0	410	3,5
	1.785	8,2	2.173	12,4	1.364	11,7

¹ De l'importation totale italienne.

B. COMMERCE DE L'ITALIE AVEC LES CINQ PAYS DANUBIENS EN 1929.

<i>Importations.</i>		AUTRICHE.	<i>Exportations.</i>	
	Valeur en millions de lires			Valeur en millions de lires
<i>Total.</i>	482,8	<i>Total.</i>		426,7
Bois et ouvrages en bois	204,5	Soie naturelle dévidée.		66,3
Pâte à papier	67,3	Raisins et autres fruits (frais et secs).		60,0
Papier et ouvrages en	27,6	Fils et tissus de coton, de laine, de chanvre, de lin.		44,2
Machines et instruments	24,5	Pommes de terre et légumes (frais et secs)		36,8
Fer, fonte et acier et ouvrages en	24,4	Oranges et citrons		36,3
Fils et tissus de coton, de laine, de soie, etc.	22,2	Riz.		21,7
Pommes de terre et légumes secs	15,5	Peaux brutes.		20,6
Peaux et ouvrages en peaux.	9,2	Soie artificielle.		18,4
Benzine.	5,5	Vins et vermouth.		17,5
Autres produits	82,1	Tissus et manufactures de soie arti- ficielle.		10,1
		Soufre		7,5
		Autres produits		87,3

<i>Importations.</i>		HONGRIE.	<i>Exportations.</i>	
	Valeur en millions de lires			Valeur en millions de lires
<i>Total.</i>	187,8	<i>Total.</i>		116,1
Céréales et farines	66,3	Oranges, citrons		19,4
Espèce bovine.	44,2	Fils et tissus de coton, de laine, de soie, de chanvre, de lin, de jute.		19,1
Pommes de terre.	14,2	Riz.		14,2
Légumes secs	13,5	Peaux brutes		13,0
Chevaux	12,9	Automobiles.		6,5
Autres produits	36,7	Amandes et marrons		5,3
		Tourteaux.		4,9
		Chapeaux		3,5
		Autres produits		30,2

<i>Importations.</i>		ROUMANIE.	<i>Exportations.</i>	
	Valeur en millions de lires			Valeur en millions de lires
<i>Total.</i>	205,6	<i>Total.</i>		167,7
Huiles minérales.	79,2	Fils et tissus de coton.		104,4
Produits de la distillation des huiles minérales.	44,3	Fils et tissus de lin, de jute, de laine, de soie, etc.		11,6
Bois	39,2	Oranges, mandarines et citrons		9,4
Maïs	17,4	Riz.		7,0
Autres produits	25,5	Automobiles.		5,5
		Autres produits		29,8

TCHÉCOSLOVAQUIE.

<i>Importations.</i>		<i>Exportations.</i>	
	Valeur en millions de lires		Valeur en millions de lires
<i>Total.</i>	269,6	<i>Total.</i>	162,8
Fonte, fer, acier (ouvrages en).	45,7	Tourteaux.	27,2
Fils et tissus de soie, de laine, de coton, de lin, de chanvre, de jute, etc.	33,7	Oranges et citrons	24,6
Verre, cristal et ouvrages en.	30,3	Raisins, fruits secs et frais.	22,0
Malt	20,0	Pommes de terre et légumes frais	9,8
Cellulose	14,4	Chanvre et étoupe	9,0
Machines et instruments	13,5	Automobiles.	7,1
Sucre.	11,2	Peaux brutes	6,2
Produits réfractaires et porcelaines.	10,7	Produits chimiques.	5,7
Bois et ouvrages en bois	10,0	Fils et tissus de chanvre, de lin, de soie, de coton, de laine.	5,3
Chaussures	8,6	Riz.	4,6
Peaux préparées et ouvrages en peaux.	8,3	Poissons frais et préparés	4,6
Mercerie	6,2	Soie dévidée et déchets de soie natu- relle et artificielle.	4,0
Autres produits	57,0	Vins et vermouths	3,4
		Autres produits	25,4

YUGOSLAVIE.

<i>Importations.</i>		<i>Exportations.</i>	
	Valeur en millions de lires		Valeur en millions de lires
<i>Total.</i>	637,8	<i>Total.</i>	267,3
Bois	309,4	Fils et tissus de coton.	114,2
Espèce bovine.	94,2	Fils et tissus de laine, de soie, de chanvre, de jute, de lin	30,3
Oufs.	34,6	Riz.	25,8
Maïs	34,1	Oranges et citrons	13,4
Viande fraîche ou en conserve.	26,8	Minerais de zinc	10,6
Volaille.	18,8	Peaux brutes	8,7
Légumes secs	18,7	Sulfate de cuivre.	8,6
Chevaux	18,0	Autres produits	55,7
Pierres calcaires et ciments	11,6		
Autres produits	71,6		

6. POLOGNE.

I. CARACTÉRISTIQUES ESSENTIELLES DE SON COMMERCE AVEC LES PAYS DANUBIENS.

1. Le commerce de la Pologne avec les cinq pays danubiens présente pour elle un intérêt considérable.

En 1929, dernière année normale, un septième environ des importations de la Pologne provenait des cinq pays danubiens (15,3 %), et plus du quart de ses exportations était dirigé vers les mêmes pays (26,2 %). Le commerce avec ces pays était donc moins important pour la Pologne que son commerce avec l'Allemagne (qui, en 1929, absorbait 31,2 % de ses exportations), mais plus important que son commerce avec n'importe quel autre pays.

En Autriche, en Hongrie et en Tchécoslovaquie, l'Allemagne est le seul pays non danubien dont les exportations dépassaient les exportations polonaises. En Roumanie et en Yougoslavie, la Pologne occupait le quatrième et le septième rang parmi les pays exportateurs non danubiens.

Le fléchissement du pouvoir d'achat a réduit entre 1929 et 1931 le commerce des pays danubiens avec la Pologne non seulement en chiffres absolus, mais même par rapport au commerce de la Pologne avec les autres pays. Tandis qu'en 1929, les pays danubiens absorbaient 26,2 % des exportations totales polonaises, ce pourcentage s'est abaissé à 22,5 % en 1930 et à 19,4 % en 1931.

Dans l'ensemble, l'exportation agricole de la Pologne vers les cinq pays danubiens consiste surtout en animaux vivants, produits animaux, comestibles et non comestibles, et certains produits spéciaux de la minoterie. Les exportations polonaises de céréales sont dirigées surtout vers le marché baltique et par suite ne font pas concurrence aux céréales danubiennes.

2. Le commerce de la Pologne avec la Tchécoslovaquie et l'Autriche représente environ les quatre cinquièmes de son commerce total avec les cinq pays danubiens. Les échanges commerciaux avec ces deux pays se traduisent par un excédent des exportations polonaises sur les importations. Vis-à-vis de ces deux pays industriels, la Pologne, pays agricole, remplit surtout le rôle de fournisseur de matières premières et de denrées alimentaires. En effet, elle y exporte principalement du charbon, des animaux vivants et des produits alimentaires de provenance animale. Elle exporte du bois surtout vers la Tchécoslovaquie.

Toutefois, la Pologne fournit à l'Autriche et à la Tchécoslovaquie aussi des quantités considérables de métaux et produits en métaux, ainsi que des produits textiles, notamment les lainages de Bielsko.

L'Autriche fournit à la Pologne surtout des articles en métaux, des machines et appareils, des instruments et matériaux électro-techniques, des véhicules, du papier et ses produits, des textiles et des vêtements. Les mêmes produits, à l'exception des machines et appareils électro-techniques, dominent dans les importations polonaises provenant de la Tchécoslovaquie; les produits céramiques s'y ajoutent.

Les chiffres des tableaux B et C ci-après indiquent l'importance que l'exportation des produits du raffinage du pétrole polonais présente dans le commerce avec la Tchécoslovaquie et l'Autriche, où ils entrent en concurrence avec le pétrole roumain. La Pologne place dans les cinq pays danubiens 42% de ses exportations totales de pétrole et dérivés.

3. Plus de la moitié des exportations polonaises vers la Hongrie consiste en charbon, coke, etc.; le reste est représenté surtout par les métaux, articles en métaux et les textiles.

Plus de la moitié de l'exportation de la Hongrie vers la Pologne consiste en produits alimentaires, à côté desquels il faut mentionner les exportations d'instruments et de matériaux électro-techniques.

La Pologne entretient un commerce actif avec la Roumanie, vis-à-vis de laquelle toutefois elle joue plutôt le rôle d'Etat industriel exportateur. En effet, plus de la moitié de ses exportations est constituée par des textiles. Viennent ensuite les exportations de métaux, articles en métaux, charbon et coke, et des produits du raffinage du pétrole.

Les produits alimentaires et les produits animaux constituent les deux tiers des exportations de la Roumanie vers la Pologne.

Le commerce entre la Pologne et la Yougoslavie ne présente qu'une très faible importance par rapport au chiffre global de leur commerce extérieur.

II. DONNÉES STATISTIQUES.

A. COMMERCE DE LA POLOGNE AVEC LES CINQ PAYS DANUBIENS.

	Importations			Exportations		
	(En pourcentages des importations ou des exportations polonaises)					
	1929	1930	1931	1929	1930	1931
Autriche	5,8	5,7	5,1	10,5	9,3	8,8
Hongrie	1,1	1,0	0,8	2,0	1,5	1,4
Roumanie	0,9	1,0	0,9	2,3	2,1	1,5
Tchécoslovaquie.	7,3	7,5	6,9	10,5	8,9	7,1
Yougoslavie	0,2	0,2	0,7	0,9	0,7	0,6
Total	15,3	15,4	14,4	26,2	22,5	19,4

LE COMMERCE AVEC LA POLOGNE, EN 1929, SE CHIFFRAIT POUR LES PAYS CI-DESSUS,
EN POURCENTAGES DE LEURS IMPORTATIONS OU EXPORTATIONS.

	Importations	Exportations
Autriche	8,9	4,9
Hongrie	4,8	1,6
Roumanie	7,4 *	9,2 *
Tchécoslovaquie.	6,5	4,3
Yougoslavie.	2,2	1,1

* En 1927.

B. COMMERCE DE LA POLOGNE AVEC L'AUTRICHE EN 1929.
(En millions de zloty.)

<i>Importations.</i>		<i>Exportations.</i>	
<i>Importations totales.</i>	181,3	<i>Exportations totales.</i>	294,7
Produits alimentaires.	5,8	Produits alimentaires	58,1
Produits animaux	36,6	Animaux vivants.	79,6
Métaux et objets fabriqués en métaux	21,1	Bois et ouvrages en bois.	7,7
Machines et appareils.	23,6	Charbon, coke, etc.	102,7
Instruments et matériaux électrotechniques	6,9	Produits de distillation de pétrole et asphalte	7,5
Moyens de communication	5,7	Métaux et produits en métaux	12,4
Papiers et produits en papier.	10,2	Textiles.	16,8
Textiles.	33,9		
Vêtements et confections	6,1		

C. COMMERCE DE LA POLOGNE AVEC LA HONGRIE EN 1929.
(En millions de zloty.)

<i>Importations.</i>		<i>Exportations.</i>	
<i>Importations totales.</i>	32,9	<i>Exportations totales.</i>	57,8
Produits alimentaires.	17,1	Matériaux et produits en bois.	4,6
Produits animaux	3,4	Charbon, coke, etc..	32,0
Instruments et matériaux électrotechniques	5,6	Produits de raffinage du pétrole.	0,5
		Métaux et produits en métaux	5,1
		Textiles.	6,5

D. COMMERCE DE LA POLOGNE AVEC LA ROUMANIE EN 1929.
(En millions de zloty.)

<i>Importations.</i>		<i>Exportations.</i>	
<i>Importations totales.</i>	27,6	<i>Exportations totales.</i>	65,0
Produits alimentaires.	12,9	Charbon, coke et produits du raffinage du pétrole	5,1
Produits animaux	4,6	Métaux et produits en métaux	5,8
		Textiles.	38,2

E. COMMERCE DE LA POLOGNE AVEC LA TCHÉCOSLOVAQUIE EN 1929.
(En millions de zloty.)

<i>Importations.</i>		<i>Exportations.</i>	
<i>Importations totales.</i>	227,8	<i>Exportations totales.</i>	296,3
Produit alimentaires.	15,6	Produits alimentaires	23,7
Produits animaux	28,1	Animaux vivants.	115,7
Matériel de construction et produits céramiques	14,4	Produits animaux	7,0
Verre et verrerie.	6,9	Matériaux et ouvrages en bois.	40,1
Combustibles	6,4	Plantes et leur parties	15,1
Produits chimiques organiques.	7,4	Charbon, coke, etc..	34,3
Métaux et objets fabriqués en métaux	20,5	Produits du raffinage du pétrole et asphalte	19,9
Machines et appareils.	29,1	Métaux et produits en métaux	22,1
Moyens de communication	7,5	Textiles.	18,2
Papiers et produits en papier	10,2		
Textiles	49,4		
Vêtements et confections	5,0		

F. COMMERCE DE LA POLOGNE AVEC LA YOUGOSLAVIE.

(En millions de zloty.)

<i>Importations totales.</i>	7,5
<i>Exportations totales.</i>	23,8
Métaux et articles en métaux	10,3
Combustibles, asphalte, pétrole et dérivés.	6,6
Textiles	3,5

7. SUISSE.

I. CARACTÉRISTIQUES ESSENTIELLES DE SON COMMERCE AVEC LES PAYS DANUBIENS.

Pour la Suisse, les relations commerciales avec les cinq pays danubiens sont importantes. En 1929, en effet, comme le montrent les tableaux suivants, l'exportation suisse à destination de ces pays atteignait un chiffre global de plus de 169 millions de francs, soit le 8 % de l'exportation totale, se montant à 2.104 millions de francs, et l'importation provenant des pays danubiens se montait au total à plus de 202 millions de francs, soit le 7,2 % de l'importation totale de 2.784 millions de francs. A ce moment, ces cinq pays, considérés comme un groupe, avaient une importance semblable à celle de l'Italie en tant que fournisseurs, et une importance un peu supérieure à ce pays comme clients. En 1930 et en 1931, les Etats danubiens ont dépassé l'Italie tant comme acheteurs que comme vendeurs.

Les caractères généraux de ce commerce sont les suivants:

Le courant commercial venant des Etats danubiens vers la Suisse comprend une part importante de denrées que la Suisse produit en quantité insuffisante pour ses besoins et une seconde part, très importante également, de matières premières et de produits mi-finis nécessaires aux industries suisses. Une troisième part est constituée par des produits finis, notamment des industries textiles et métallurgiques, des industries du cuir, de la chaussure, du papier, industries qui sont également développées en Suisse.

Le courant commercial allant de Suisse vers les Etats danubiens est constitué, dans sa très grande majorité, par des produits fabriqués. Une partie importante de ces produits — notamment l'horlogerie, les produits pharmaceutiques, les colorants — est peu ou pas fabriquée dans les Etats danubiens. Une autre partie non moins importante de l'exportation suisse est constituée par des produits des industries textiles, métallurgiques et mécaniques, qui sont elles-mêmes développées notamment en Tchécoslovaquie et en Autriche. Or, un examen détaillé des statistiques du commerce de la Suisse avec ces deux pays montre que l'échange réciproque des produits des industries textiles, métallurgiques et mécaniques, facilité par le facteur géographique, est assez actif, ce qui indique qu'entre les industries des trois pays il s'est établi une certaine spécialisation favorable aux échanges.

II. DONNÉES STATISTIQUES.

A. COMMERCE DE LA SUISSE AVEC LES PAYS DANUBIENS. (Chiffres globaux.)

Exportations (en milliers de francs).

Pays de destination	1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹
Autriche	68.473	3,3	54.616	3,1	44.884	3,3
Hongrie	17.235	0,8	13.642	0,8	9.493	0,7
Roumanie	17.127	0,8	16.863	1,0	10.207	0,8
Tchécoslovaquie.	55.243	2,6	49.756	2,8	39.973	3,0
Yougoslavie	11.110	0,5	11.773	0,7	11.543	0,9
Totaux.	169.188	8,0	146.650	8,3	116.100	8,7

¹ De l'exportation suisse totale.

Importations (en milliers de francs).

Pays de provenance	1929		1930		1931	
	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹	Valeur	% ¹
Autriche	54.945	2,0	50.540	1,9	43.274	1,9
Hongrie	36.862	1,3	41.456	1,6	39.537	1,8
Roumanie	11.033	0,4	20.584	0,8	25.870	1,1
Tchécoslovaquie	84.709	3,0	79.429	3,0	75.996	3,4
Yougoslavie	14.609	0,5	15.019	0,6	12.571	0,6
Totaux	202.158	7,2	207.028	7,9	197.248	8,8

¹ De l'importation suisse totale.

B. EXPORTATION DE LA SUISSE VERS LES PAYS DANUBIENS EN 1929.

(Par classes de marchandises — Valeurs en milliers de francs.)

Classes	Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchéco- slovaquie	Yougoslavie	Totaux des cinq pays	Exportation totale de la Suisse, par classes de marchandises
Substances alimen- taires	3.838	468	364	4.580	1.070	10.320	211.973
Matières premières	13.382	1.817	758	6.163	772	22.892	219.297
Produits fabriqués	51.253	14.950	16.005	44.500	9.268	135.976	1.673.185
Totaux	68.473	17.235	17.127	55.243	11.110	169.188	2.104.455

IMPORTATION EN SUISSE DES PRODUITS DES PAYS DANUBIENS EN 1929.

(Par classes de marchandises — Valeurs en milliers de francs.)

Classes	Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchéco- slovaquie	Yougoslavie	Totaux des cinq pays	Importation totale de la Suisse, par classes de marchandises
Substances alimen- taires	4.789	26.198	3.734	45.382	7.604	87.707	674.309
Matières premières	19.210	6.844	1.460	10.188	2.401	40.103	1.002.176
Produits fabriqués	30.946	3.820	5.839	29.139	4.604	74.348	1.107.367
Totaux	54.945	36.862	11.033	84.709	14.609	202.158	2.783.852

C. PRINCIPAUX POSTES POUR L'ANNÉE 1929 DU COMMERCE ENTRE LA SUISSE ET —
1^o L'AUTRICHE.

Exportation vers l'Autriche.

	Valeur en milliers de francs
<i>Exportation globale.</i>	68.473
Argent monnayé.	9.750
Tissus de soie naturelle et artificielle.	9.459
» de coton	7.949
Laine peignée	7.886
Horlogerie	6.069
Machines	4.913
Filés de coton.	4.803
Fils et bourre de soie naturelle	2.523
Instruments et appareils	1.692
Soie artificielle.	1.685
Fruits frais	1.457
Tissus de laine.	1.427
Aluminium et ses ouvrages	1.321
Fromages.	1.186
Produits pharmaceutiques, drogues et parfumerie	1.108
Couleurs d'aniline	945
Autres produits	4.300

Importation d'Autriche.

	Valeur en milliers de francs
<i>Importation globale.</i>	54.945
Bois bruts.	10.866
Bois sciés	5.346
Fer et acier et leurs ouvrages	3.937
Filés de laine	3.037
Lingerie et vêtements.	2.511
Beurre	2.078
Tissus de coton.	1.525
Tissus de soie naturelle et artificielle.	1.218
Papiers et cartons	1.201
Machines	1.173
Tissus écrus en jute.	1.052
Cellulose.	969
Chaussures.	925
Glycérine et lessive glycérique	899
Véhicules	824
Autres produits	17.384

2^o LA HONGRIE.

Exportation vers la Hongrie.

	Valeur en milliers de francs
<i>Exportation globale.</i>	17.235
Tissus de coton	2.378
Horlogerie	2.365
Filés de coton.	1.721
Machines	1.526
Tissus de soie naturelle et artificielle.	1.232
Or et argent non ouvrés	887
Tissus de laine.	854
Produits pharmaceutiques, drogues et parfumerie	615
Couleurs d'aniline	606
Fils et bourre de soie naturelle	590
Autres produits	4.461

Importation de Hongrie.

	Valeur en milliers de francs
<i>Importation globale.</i>	36.862
Céréales.	19.768
Animaux vivants.	2.574
Esprit-de-vin dénaturé	2.285
Paille.	1.828
Vin et Trois-six	1.511
Malt	1.415
Sucre.	1.403
Farine d'affouragement	1.349
Autres produits	4.729

3^o LA ROUMANIE.

Exportation vers la Roumanie.

<i>Exportation globale.</i>	17.127
Machines	5.961
Horlogerie	1.879
Tissus de coton	1.797
Couleurs d'aniline	1.158
Filés de coton.	869
Produits pharmaceutiques, drogues et parfumerie	703
Instruments et appareils	682
Autres produits	4.078

Importation de Roumanie.

<i>Importation globale.</i>	11.033
Benzine et benzol.	3.341
Bois sciés	2.518
Céréales.	2.229
Œufs	735
Volailles mortes	638
Pétrole	629
Autres produits	943

4° LA TCHÉCOSLOVAQUIE.

Exportation vers la Tchécoslovaquie.

<i>Exportation globale</i>	55.243
Horlogerie	6.386
Machines	6.070
Tissus de coton	4.607
Fromage	3.718
Couleurs d'aniline	3.513
Instruments et appareils	3.510
Fils et bourre de soie naturelle	3.056
Tissus de soie naturelle et artificielle.	2.837
Filés de coton.	2.537
Tissus de laine.	2.100
Soie artificielle.	1.988
Produits pharmaceutiques, drogues et parfumerie	1.794
Automobiles et leurs pièces détachées	1.527
Aluminium et ses ouvrages	1.023
Déchets de coton	1.008
Or non ouvré	966
Autres produits	8.603

Importation de Tchécoslovaquie.

<i>Importation globale</i>	84.709
Sucre.	24.517
Malt	15.525
Fer et acier et leurs ouvrages	8.233
Tissus de laine.	4.171
Céréales.	2.988
Chaussures.	2.772
Filés de laine	2.768
Lingerie, bonneterie, vêtements.	2.351
Verrerie.	2.307
Tissus de coton	2.101
Machines	1.398
Tissus écrus de jute	1.390
Bois sciés	1.279
Houblon	1.072
Autres produits	11.837

5° LA YUGOSLAVIE.

Exportation vers la Yougoslavie.

<i>Exportation globale</i>	11.110
Tissus de soie naturelle et artificielle.	1.918
» de coton	1.259
Machines	1.011
Horlogerie	853
Couleurs d'aniline	814
Produits pharmaceutiques, drogues et parfumerie	625
Chocolat	619
Tissus et confections de laine	330
Fromages.	314
Autres produits	3.367

Importation de Yougoslavie.

<i>Importation globale</i>	14.609
Œufs	5.203
Bois sciés	3.833
Volailles mortes	1.585
Déchets de lin, chanvre, jute, etc.	476
Minéral de fer	437
Autres produits	3.075

Quatrième Partie.

COMMERCE DE CERTAINES MATIÈRES PREMIÈRES ET DE QUELQUES PRODUITS AGRICOLES DANS LES PAYS DANUBIENS.

I. COMMERCE DES CÉRÉALES.

Deux des Etats danubiens, la *Tchécoslovaquie* et l'*Autriche*, sont fortement importateurs de céréales. Le premier des tableaux ci-joint (A) montre que les besoins d'importation annuels de ces deux pays se sont élevés à :

4.855.000	quintaux de blé;
3.921.000	» » maïs;
3.207.000	» » farine de froment.

En ce qui concerne l'orge, le seigle et l'avoine, l'*Autriche* est le seul pays déficitaire; les autres pays danubiens accusent ou de forts surplus d'exportations, comme la Hongrie, la Roumanie et la *Tchécoslovaquie*, ou des importations et exportations négligeables, comme la Yougoslavie. Les quantités importées en *Autriche* pendant l'année 1929 se sont élevées à :

690.000	quintaux pour l'orge;
1.050.000	» » le seigle;
1.010.000	» » l'avoine.

Pendant la période envisagée dans le tableau B, les excédents en céréales des trois pays agricoles danubiens (Hongrie, Roumanie et Yougoslavie) ont été :

8.169.000	quintaux de blé;
9.386.000	» » maïs.

En farine de froment, la Hongrie et la Roumanie ont des surplus d'exportation dont le total s'est élevé, dans la même période, à 2.507.000 quintaux.

En ce qui concerne l'orge, le seigle et l'avoine, les exportations totales de la Hongrie, de la Roumanie et de la *Tchécoslovaquie* ont été :

Orge	11.689.000 quintaux;
Seigle	1.811.000 quintaux;
Avoine	1.326.000 quintaux.

Si l'on considère les approvisionnements en céréales de l'*Autriche*, on constate que, déjà aujourd'hui, ses principaux fournisseurs sont les pays danubiens. La Hongrie lui fournit actuellement 53 % de ses besoins totaux en céréales; ensuite vient la *Tchécoslovaquie* avec des importations d'avoine, de seigle et d'orge; puis la Yougoslavie et, enfin, la Roumanie, dont les exportations agricoles ne couvrent qu'un pour cent des besoins de céréales de l'*Autriche*. Les pays d'outre-mer (Argentine, Canada et Etats-Unis d'Amérique) contribuent à l'approvisionnement de l'*Autriche* en céréales pour 12,5 %.

La *Tchécoslovaquie* couvre ses besoins en céréales dans les pays danubiens pour 62,8 %. Ici également, la Hongrie vient au premier rang en fournissant un tiers des importations totales, tandis que la Roumanie occupe, avec 12,5 %, la dernière place. Les pays d'outre-mer participent à l'approvisionnement de la *Tchécoslovaquie* pour 28,2 %; ils envoient notamment de la farine et du maïs.

Actuellement, c'est la Hongrie qui fournit surtout les autres pays danubiens en céréales, tandis que la plus grande partie des exportations roumaines (96 %) se dirige en dehors des pays danubiens.

La Tchécoslovaquie vient en deuxième rang, immédiatement après la Hongrie; la Yougoslavie en troisième, comme fournisseur des autres pays danubiens.

L'Allemagne et l'Italie sont de gros acheteurs de céréales danubiennes. L'Allemagne prend 38 % des exportations roumaines et 18 % des exportations de la Tchécoslovaquie. Au total, 22,8 % des exportations en céréales danubiennes vont en Allemagne.

La participation de l'Italie est moins considérable, à savoir 10,6 %. L'Italie constitue un marché important pour la Hongrie, la Roumanie et la Yougoslavie, tandis que l'Allemagne importe de fortes quantités seulement de la Roumanie et de la Tchécoslovaquie.

De grosses quantités de céréales roumaines se dirigent vers l'Europe occidentale (France, Grande-Bretagne et Pays-Bas) et il y a lieu de croire qu'une partie des exportations de la Yougoslavie en Roumanie gagne également ces pays.

Les chiffres figurant au tableau C — qui indiquent le rôle respectif, d'une part, des pays danubiens et, d'autre part, des pays d'outre-mer, dans le ravitaillement en céréales de certains pays importateurs de l'Europe — permettront d'apprécier la marge disponible pour des modifications éventuelles.

Il est bon de remarquer que, depuis 1929 — qui a été choisi comme dernière année normale —, les proportions ont légèrement varié en faveur de certains pays danubiens.

**A. IMPORTATIONS DE CÉRÉALES EN AUTRICHE
ET EN TCHÉCOSLOVAQUIE.**

(En milliers de quintaux.)

Pays d'importation	Pays de provenance	Froment		Maïs		Orge		Seigle		Avoine		Farine de froment	
		Quantité	%	Quantité	%	Quantité	%	Quantité	%	Quantité	%	Quantité	%
Autriche (Importations en 1929)	Hongrie	1610	70	220	18	270	40	570	54	260	26	1240	86
	Roumanie			40	3	50	7						
	Tchécoslovaquie			10	—	330	47	430	41	540	54		
	Yougoslavie	270	11	210	18	10	1						
	Total de ces pays	1880	81	480	38	660	95	1000	95	800	80	1240	86
	Allemagne			30	2					200	20		
	Autres pays européens	120	5	70	5	30	5	50	5	10	—	100	7
	Argentine	50	2	590	49								
	Canada	230	10									30	2
	Etats-Unis	60	3	70	5							60	4
	Pays inconnus			10	—							10	1
Total général	2340	100	1250	100	690	100	1050	100	1010	100	1440	100	
Tchécoslovaquie (Moyennes d'importations pour les années 1928 à 1930)	Hongrie	1193	47	383	14							722	40
	Roumanie	160	7	661	25							46	3
	Yougoslavie	700	28	464	18							4	—
	Total de ces pays	2053	82	1508	57							772	43
	Allemagne	174	7	—	—							—	—
	France	—	—	—	—							47	3
	Autres pays européens	238	9	150	6							65	4
	Hambourg	—	—	570	21							654	37
	Trieste	—	—	296	11							—	—
	Argentine	25	1	134	5							—	—
	Canada	20	1	—	—							180	10
Etats-Unis	5	—	13	—							49	3	
Total général	2515	100	2671	100							1767	100	

B. EXPORTATIONS DES CÉRÉALES DES PAYS DANUBIENS.
(Moyenne des pays danubiens, années 1928 à 1930, en milliers de quintaux.)

Pays d'exportation	Pays de destination	Froment		Maïs		Orge		Seigle		Avoine		Farine de froment		Total	
		Quantité	%	Quantité	%	Quantité	%	Quantité	%	Quantité	%	Quantité	%	Quantité	%
Hongrie	Autriche	1.269	34	166	28	214	40	683	62	142	84	1.471	64	3.945	46
	Tchécoslovaquie . . .	1.152	31	271	45	7	1	116	10	11	6	562	24	2.119	25
	Yougoslavie	—	—	—	—	66	12	3	—	—	—	—	—	69	1
	Total de ces pays	2.421	65	437	73	287	53	802	72	153	90	2.033	88	6.133	72
	Allemagne	125	3	46	8	79	15	61	5	—	—	23	1	334	4
	France	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	0
	Grande-Bretagne . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	55	2	55	1
	Italie	513	14	81	14	154	29	88	8	—	—	48	2	884	10
	Suisse	201	5	—	—	7	1	—	—	—	—	86	3	294	4
	Pays-Bas	—	—	—	—	—	—	104	9	—	—	—	—	104	1
	Pologne	157	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	157	2
Turquie	130	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	130	2	
Autres pays	172	6	30	5	11	2	74	6	16	10	51	4	354	4	
Total général	3.725	100	594	100	538	100	1.129	100	169	100	2.296	100	8.451	100	
Roumanie	Autriche	40	4	173	2	—	—	14	7	45	9	192	92	464	2
	Hongrie	58	5	—	—	—	—	8	4	—	—	4	2	70	—
	Tchécoslovaquie . . .	58	5	298	4	—	—	17	7	10	2	11	5	394	2
	Total de ces pays	156	14	471	6	—	—	39	18	55	11	207	—	928	4
	Allemagne	88	7	1.543	23	5.406	54	52	19	136	27	—	—	7.225	38
	France	178	15	287	4	219	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	684	4
	Grande-Bretagne . . .	147	13	520	8	938	9	24	10	13	2	2	1	1.644	9
	Italie	303	26	1.383	20	414	4	—	—	164	33	1	—	2.265	12
	Suisse	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Belgique	112	10	156	2	627	6	—	—	52	10	—	—	947	5
	Gibraltar	—	—	543	8	968	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	1.511	8
Pays-Bas	208	18	707	10	979	10	85	30	38	7	—	—	2.017	11	
Pologne	—	—	—	—	—	—	45	17	—	—	—	—	45	—	
Turquie	46	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	46	—	
Autres pays	—	—	1.150	19	489	5	12	6	51	10	—	—	1.702	9	
Total général	1.238	100	6.760	100	10.040	100	257	100	509	100	211 ¹	100	19.015	100	
Tchécoslovaquie	Autriche					354	32	404	95	488	75			1.246	57
	Yougoslavie					8	—	—	—	—	—			8	—
	Total de ces pays					362	32	404	95	488	—			1.254	57
	Allemagne					384	35	—	—	—	—			384	18
	Grande-Bretagne . . .					80	7	—	—	—	—			80	4
	Italie					28	3	—	—	53	8			81	4
	Suisse					18	2	10	2	64	10			92	4
Autres pays					239	21	11	3	43	7			293	13	
Total général					1.111	100	425 ²	100	648	100			2.184	100	
Yougoslavie	Autriche	510	16	530	26									1.040	20
	Hongrie	244	8	240	12									484	9
	Tchécoslovaquie . . .	537	17	510	25									1.047	20
	Total de ces pays	1.291	41	1.280	63									2.571	49
	Allemagne	11	—	8	—									19	—
	Italie	81	3	420	21									501	10
	Grèce	112	4	—	—									112	2
Roumanie ⁴	1.603	50	300	15									1.903	36	
Autres pays	108	3	24	1									132	3	
Total général	3.207	100	2.032	100									5.239	100	

¹ Ces chiffres ne se rapportent qu'aux exportations de l'année 1930.

² Ces chiffres ne donnent que la moyenne des années 1929 et 1930.

³ La production yougoslave d'orge, d'avoine et de seigle n'étant pas considérable, les importations de ces céréales dépassent les exportations. Surplus d'importation en moyenne pour les années 1928 à 1930: 19.000 quintaux pour l'orge, 7.000 quintaux pour l'avoine et 2.000 quintaux pour le seigle. Par contre, il y a un excédent d'exportation pour la farine de froment (44.000 quintaux).

⁴ Ces chiffres font apparaître le commerce de transit avec la Roumanie. Il semble que la plupart de ces exportations soient dirigées vers les pays de l'Europe occidentale et le Proche-Orient.

C. APPROVISIONNEMENT EN CÉRÉALES DE QUELQUES PAYS EUROPÉENS EN 1929.

(En quintaux.)

	Importations provenant de tous les pays d'Europe, y com- pris l'Europe danubienne, 1929	Importations provenant de l'Europe danubienne	Importations d'outre-mer
<i>Allemagne</i>	Blé 850.000 Maïs 540.000 Orge 7.260.000	410.000 430.000 6.320.000	20.560.000 6.150.000 10.400.000
<i>Italie</i>	Blé 860.000 Maïs 740.000 Orge 168.000	590.000 740.000 32.000	16.680.000 6.920.000 4.000
<i>France</i>	Blé 394.000 Maïs 70.000 Orge 51.000	 200.000	13.726.000 (dont 3.430.000 pour l'Afrique du Nord). 8.125.000 (dont 430.000 pour l'Afrique du Nord). 1.109.000 (dont 1.101.000 pour l'Afrique du Nord).
<i>Belgique</i>	Blé 450.000 Maïs 120.000 Orge 1.100.000	Insignifiantes Insignifiantes 220.000	11.330.000 5.730.000 2.160.000
<i>Pays-Bas</i>	Blé 720.000 Maïs 1.270.000 Orge 870.000	420.000 430.000 170.000	5.830.000 8.670.000 2.320.000
<i>Autriche</i>	Blé 2.350.000 Maïs 1.250.000 Orge 690.000	Presque tout d'Europe danubienne	340.000 670.000
<i>Tchécoslovaquie</i>	Blé 1.676.000 Maïs 1.850.000	1.440.000 820.000	10.000 150.000
<i>Suisse</i>	Blé 435.000 Maïs 30.000 Orge 560.000	431.000 20.000 380.000	4.245.000 1.060.000 220.000
<i>Suède</i>	Blé 970.000 Maïs 360.000	Insignifiantes Insignifiantes	1.760.000 410.000
<i>Espagne</i>	Blé Maïs 30.000	Insignifiantes Insignifiantes	3.430.000 2.800.000

2. COMMERCE DU BÉTAIL, DES VIANDES, ETC.

En ce qui concerne la production des matières faisant l'objet des tableaux A et B ci-après: œufs, cheptel et viandes, les cinq pays danubiens se divisent en deux groupes: la Hongrie, la Roumanie et la Yougoslavie, qui sont exportateurs; l'Autriche et la Tchécoslovaquie¹, qui sont importateurs.

Les trois pays danubiens exportateurs, tout en plaçant une proportion assez élevée de leur production en Autriche et en Tchécoslovaquie, doivent néanmoins rechercher des débouchés pour une partie considérable de leur exportation, dans d'autres pays européens. D'autre part, le rôle des deux pays importateurs n'est pas de la même importance pour les trois pays danubiens exportateurs. Ainsi, pour certains produits (œufs, bœufs, moutons), la Yougoslavie trouve en Italie et en Grèce plus d'acheteurs qu'en Autriche et en Tchécoslovaquie, tandis que la Hongrie et la Roumanie dirigent la plus grande partie de leurs exportations vers ces deux pays.

Les pourcentages d'exportation des produits envisagés de la Hongrie, de la Roumanie et de la Yougoslavie vers les deux autres pays danubiens sont les suivants: porcs 78,3 %, viandes 56,7 %, bœufs 55,3 %, œufs 25 % et moutons 4,1 %. (La faiblesse de ce dernier chiffre s'explique par le fait que la Yougoslavie exporte des quantités considérables presque exclusivement vers la Grèce et l'Italie.)

¹ Exception faite des pommes de terre, pour lesquelles la Tchécoslovaquie accuse un fort excédent se chiffrant à 20.000 tonnes, exporté principalement vers l'Autriche.

En se plaçant au point de vue de l'Autriche et de la Tchécoslovaquie, pays importateurs, on constate qu'ils se ravitaillent dans les proportions suivantes auprès des trois autres pays danubiens: moutons 84 %, bœufs 78 %, porcs 36,7 %, œufs 28 % et viandes 26,7 %. Toutefois, il faut remarquer que l'Autriche s'approvisionne plus largement auprès des pays danubiens que la Tchécoslovaquie.

Exportations de la Hongrie, de la Roumanie et de la Yougoslavie vers les pays autres que l'Autriche et la Tchécoslovaquie

Importations de l'Autriche et de la Tchécoslovaquie des pays autres que la Hongrie, la Roumanie et la Yougoslavie

(En milliers de tonnes ou de têtes.)

Œufs	30,8	14,6
Bœufs	130,7	48,7
Moutons	776,7	10,9
Porcs	29,5	998,0
Viandes	13,8	36,2

A. Exportations en 1929.

Pays exportateurs	Destination	Œufs		Espèce bovine		Espèce ovine		Espèce porcine		Viandes	
		Milliers de tonnes	%	Milliers de têtes	%	Milliers de têtes	%	Milliers de têtes	%	Milliers de tonnes	%
Hongrie	Autriche	3,5	48,6	40,2	45,2	4,4	10,4	154,0	56,4	4,0	80,0
	Tchécoslovaquie . . .			15,1	16,9	21,4	50,7	116,0	42,5		
	Yougoslavie										
	Total de ces 3 pays.	3,5	48,6	55,3	62,1	25,8	61,1	270,0	98,9	4,0	80,0
	Italie			33,7	37,9						
	Allemagne	3,4	47,2								
	Suisse					9,5	22,5				
	France					5,2	12,4				
Grèce											
Autres pays européens	0,3	4,2			1,7	4,0	3,0	1,1	1,0	20,0	
Total général	7,2	100,0	89,0	100,0	42,2	100,0	273,0	100,0	5,0	100,0	
Roumanie	Autriche	1,4	12,3	59,6	64,4	1,2	13,1	51,9	46,0	5,3	29,9
	Tchécoslovaquie . . .			30,6	33,1	6,7	72,8	60,7	53,8	3,5	19,8
	Total de ces 2 pays .	1,4	12,3	90,2	97,5	7,9	85,9	112,6	99,8	8,8	49,7
	Autres pays européens	10,0	87,7	2,3	2,5	1,3	14,1	0,2	0,2	8,9	50,3
Total général	11,4 *	100,0	92,5	100,0	9,2	100,0	112,8	100,0	17,7	100,0	
Yougoslavie	Autriche	5,2	23,3	17,7	15,8			156,0	69,3	5,3	57,6
	Tchécoslovaquie . . .							40,0	17,8		
	Total de ces 2 pays.	5,2	23,3	17,7	15,8			196,0	87,1	5,3	57,6
	Italie	6,6	29,6	66,5	59,3	30,3	3,9	16,0	7,1	3,7	40,2
	Grèce			20,6	18,4	725,0	95,6	11,0	4,9		
	Allemagne	5,9	26,5								
	Suisse	4,3	19,3								
Autres pays européens	0,3	1,3	7,6	6,5	4,0	0,5	2,0	0,9	0,2	2,2	
Total général	22,3	100,0	112,4	100,0	759,3	100,0	225,0	100,0	9,2	100,0	

* Chiffres de 1926, répartis suivant la proportion par poids de 1923. Dans les autres pays européens sont compris le Royaume-Uni (3,4), l'Allemagne (3,2) et la Pologne (1,7).

B. Importations en 1929.

Pays importateurs	Provenance	Œufs		Espèce bovine		Espèce ovine		Espèce porcine		Viandes	
		Milliers de tonnes	%	Milliers de têtes	%	Milliers de têtes	%	Milliers de têtes	%	Milliers de tonnes	%
Autriche	Hongrie	3,0	20,2	40,0	32,8	6,2	78,5	151,0	19,6	4,2	8,6
	Roumanie	0,4	2,7	56,0	45,9			52,0	6,7	4,0	8,2
	Yougoslavie	2,2	14,8	17,0	13,9	1,6	20,2	152,0	19,7	5,0	10,3
	Tchécoslovaquie	0,1	0,7								
	Total de ces 4 pays	5,7	38,4	113,0	92,6	7,8	98,7	355,0	46,0	13,2	27,1
	Pologne	5,2	34,9					416,0	53,9	14,0	28,7
	Autres pays européens	3,2	21,4	9,0	7,4	0,1	1,3	1,0	0,1	1,8	3,6
	Pays extra-européens	0,8	5,3							19,8	40,6
Total général	14,9	100,0	122,0	100,0	7,9	100,0	772,0	100,0	48,8	100,0	
Tchécoslovaquie	Hongrie			14,7	14,9	17,6	55,7	118,0	14,8		
	Roumanie			44,5	44,9	7,7	24,4	58,0	7,3		
	Yougoslavie							40,0	5,0		
	Total de ces 3 pays			59,2	59,8	25,3	80,1	216,0	27,1		
	Pologne	4,1	75,9	26,8	27,1	5,8	18,4	576,0	72,3	0,4	66,6
	Autres pays européens	1,1	20,4	12,9	13,1	0,5	1,5	5,0	0,6	0,1	16,7
	Pays extra-européens	0,2	3,7							0,1	16,7
Total général	5,4	100,0	98,9	100,0	31,6	100,0	797,0	100,0	0,6	100,0	

3. COMMERCE DU BOIS.

L'importance du commerce de bois pour les pays danubiens ressort du tableau suivant :

Pays	Quantité et valeur du bois exporté ¹		% des exportations totales
	En milliers de quintaux	En milliers de la monnaie indiquée	
Autriche	21.183	238.377 Schillings	10,7
Hongrie	386	4.692 pengö	0,45
Roumanie	18.990	4.262.089 leu	14,7
Tchécoslovaquie	19.518	619.932 couronnes	3,07
Yougoslavie	20.555	1.540.672 dinars	19,45

¹ Tous les chiffres cités se rapportent à l'année 1929.

A l'exception de la Hongrie, dont le patrimoine forestier est très réduit, tous les pays danubiens sont gros exportateurs de bois et les quantités de bois exportées par chaque pays sont à peu près égales. Toutefois, les qualités du bois exporté varient fortement selon le pays.

Pour l'Autriche, la Roumanie et la Yougoslavie, le bois est le principal article d'exportation.

Parmi les pays danubiens, il en est seulement deux qui importent des quantités considérables de bois: la Hongrie 27.244.000 quintaux et la Tchécoslovaquie 7.097.000 quintaux. Cette dernière importe 36 % en poids et 54 % en valeur des quantités qu'elle exporte.

Les fournisseurs de bois de la Hongrie et de la Tchécoslovaquie sont indiqués dans le tableau suivant :

Pays de destination	Pays de provenance	Quantités importées (en milliers de quintaux)	%
Hongrie	Autriche	1.764	6,5
	Roumanie	10.535	38,7
	Tchécoslovaquie	10.620	39,0
	Yougoslavie	4.285	15,7
	Total de ces quatre pays	26.604	99,9
	Autres pays	640	0,1
	Total général	27.244	100,0

Pays de provenance	Pays de destination	Quantités exportées (en milliers de quintaux)	%
Tchécoslovaquie	Autriche	2.186	30,8
	Hongrie	101	1,4
	Roumanie	414	5,8
	Yougoslavie	82	1,1
	Total de ces quatre pays	2.783	39,1
	Pologne	3.941	55,5
	Autres pays	373	5,4
	Total général	7.097	100,0

Il ressort de ce tableau que la Hongrie achète le bois dont elle a besoin presque entièrement dans les autres pays danubiens, tandis que la Tchécoslovaquie en importe des quantités considérables qui sont fournies par des pays qui se trouvent en dehors de ce groupe, notamment par la Pologne.

Les principaux acheteurs du bois danubien se trouvent indiqués ci-dessous:

Autriche	Hongrie	1.860	8,8
	Roumanie	1	—
	Tchécoslovaquie	2.340	11,4
	Yougoslavie	32	0,1
	Total de ces pays	4.233	20,3
	Allemagne	5.360	25,2
	France	2.273	10,7
	Italie	6.553	30,9
	Suisse	2.371	11,1
	Autres pays	393	1,8
	Total général	27.183	100,0
Tchécoslovaquie	Autriche	253	1,3
	Hongrie	10.539	54,0
	Roumanie	29	0,1
	Yougoslavie	37	0,2
	Total de ces pays	10.858	55,6
	Allemagne	7.675	39,4
	France	45	0,2
	Grande-Bretagne	72	0,4
	Italie	86	0,4
	Suisse	43	0,2
	Autres pays	739	3,8
Total général	19.518	100,0	
Yougoslavie ¹	Autriche	281	1,3
	Hongrie	3.574	17,3
	Total de ces pays	3.855	18,6
	Allemagne	229	1,1
	France	696	3,3
	Grande-Bretagne	363	1,7
	Italie	11.596	56,5
	Grèce	1.481	7,2
	Suisse	349	1,7
	Autres pays	1.613	3,9
	Total général	20.555	100,0
Roumanie ²	Autriche	53	0,3
	Hongrie	8.629	56,7
	Tchécoslovaquie	297	1,9
	Yougoslavie	18	0,1
	Total de ces pays	8.997	59,0
	Allemagne	1.135	7,5
	Grande-Bretagne	40	0,2
	France	262	1,7
	Italie	752	4,9
	Bulgarie	403	2,6
	Autres pays	3.640	23,9
Total général	15.229	100,0	

¹ Les statistiques yougoslaves ne donnent pas les chiffres relatifs au commerce de bois dans son ensemble. Les chiffres indiqués ci-dessus pour la Yougoslavie ont été trouvés en additionnant les exportations des différents principaux articles et sortes de bois. Ils ont, par conséquent, un caractère approximatif.

² Chiffres pour 1930, les statistiques roumaines se rapportant à l'année 1929 n'ayant pas été disponibles.

En ce qui concerne le commerce de bois de l'Autriche, l'importance du marché danubien est assez secondaire pour ce pays. Les régions les plus boisées sont situées dans les parties occidentales et méridionales du pays. Ainsi les exportations autrichiennes se dirigent-elles surtout vers l'ouest et vers le sud — c'est-à-dire, l'Allemagne, la Suisse, la France et l'Italie, qui absorbent 80,7 % des excédents d'exportation autrichiens.

La Yougoslavie exporte à peine un cinquième du bois dont elle dispose vers les quatre autres pays danubiens. Son débouché de beaucoup le plus important est l'Italie (56,5 %).

Pour la Tchécoslovaquie, au contraire, les exportations dans les pays danubiens ont une grande importance. Elles absorbent plus de la moitié de ses excédents (56 %), l'autre grand débouché étant l'Allemagne (39 %).

C'est surtout vers le groupe danubien que la Roumanie exporte de grandes quantités de bois (60 %). La Transylvanie a toujours été pour la Hongrie le principal fournisseur de bois.

4. COMMERCE DU PÉTROLE.

Le tableau ci-après montre que les exportations du pétrole et de ses dérivés de la Roumanie vers l'Autriche, la Hongrie, la Tchécoslovaquie et la Yougoslavie ne représentent que 19 % de son exportation totale — c'est-à-dire que, sur 3.555.000 tonnes, 747.000 seulement sont exportées vers les pays indiqués.

De leur côté, ces pays s'approvisionnent presque exclusivement en Roumanie. Sur un total d'importation de 1.143.000 tonnes, 753.000 proviennent de Roumanie, ce qui fait 73 % (la différence entre les deux chiffres 747 et 753 résulte du fait que le premier a été pris dans la statistique roumaine et le second dans les statistiques des autres pays considérés). Il n'y a guère que la Tchécoslovaquie qui s'approvisionne pour des quantités considérables, non seulement en Roumanie, mais aussi en Russie, en Pologne et aux Etats-Unis.

A. EXPORTATION DE LA ROUMANIE.

Pétrole et ses dérivés, 1930.

Pays exportateurs	Autriche		Hongrie		Tchécoslovaquie		Yougoslavie		Total des quatre pays			
	Milliers de tonnes	%	Milliers de tonnes	%	Milliers de tonnes	%	Milliers de tonnes	%	Milliers de tonnes	%	Milliers de tonnes	%
Roumanie	273	7	198	5	109	3	167	4	747	19		
	Allemagne		Italie		Grande-Bretagne		France		Autres pays		Total	
Roumanie	278	7	636	17	600	16	365	9	1.229	32	3.855	100

B. IMPORTATION DES AUTRES PAYS DANUBIENS.

Pays importateurs	Total		Roumanie		Pologne		U.R.S.S.		Etats-Unis		Autres pays	
Autriche	282	100	249	88	10	4	6	2	12	4	5	2
Hongrie	248	100	205	82	1	—	16	7	21	9	5	2
Tchécoslovaquie	427	100	127	29	46	11	131	30	37	9	86	20
Yougoslavie	186	100	172	92	2	1	—	—	3	2	9	5
Total pour les quatre pays	1.143		753		59		153		73		105	

5. COMMERCE DU CHARBON.

Dans les pays danubiens, le commerce du charbon n'a pas une grande importance, sauf en Tchécoslovaquie.

La Tchécoslovaquie a une importante production de houille qui couvre presque ses besoins, et une forte production de lignite qui les dépasse sensiblement. Elle exporte du lignite en Allemagne et dans une bien moindre mesure en Autriche. Ses exportations de houille et de coke, dirigées surtout vers l'Autriche, en une bien plus faible mesure vers l'Allemagne et la Hongrie, sont légèrement dépassées par ses importations qui proviennent d'Allemagne pour la houille et le coke, et de Pologne pour la houille.

Parmi les autres pays danubiens, *la Hongrie* est seule à avoir une production de houille d'une certaine importance. Elle est également productrice de lignite. Ses importations de houille et de lignite, provenant principalement de la Pologne et de la Tchécoslovaquie, dépassent sensiblement ses exportations. Elle importe du coke.

En Autriche, la production de houille est très faible et de grosses importations sont nécessaires, provenant surtout de la Pologne, puis de la Tchécoslovaquie et de l'Allemagne. Les importations de coke proviennent de l'Allemagne et de la Tchécoslovaquie. La production de lignite couvre la plus grande partie des besoins et rend très faibles les importations.

La Yougoslavie, qui a une assez forte production de lignite (supérieure à celle de l'Autriche et de la Roumanie, un peu inférieure à celle de la Hongrie), a importé, en 1929, 664.000 tonnes et, en 1930, 585.000 tonnes de charbon et de coke.

Les importations de *la Roumanie* sont sensiblement inférieures: elles ont été de 168.000 tonnes en 1930.

Autriche.

(En milliers de tonnes métriques.)

Houille.

Importations de:	1929	1930
Tchécoslovaquie	1.351	1.284
Allemagne	577	448
Sarre	68	26
Pologne	3.295	2.155
Autres pays	11	12
Importations totales	5.302	3.925
Exportations totales	7	9

Coke.

Importations de:	1929	1930
Allemagne	394	226
Tchécoslovaquie	283	201
Pologne	68	61
Autres pays	3	2
Importations totales	748	490
Exportations totales	27	44

Lignite.

Importations de:	1929	1930
Allemagne	24	17
Yougoslavie	34	35
Tchécoslovaquie	316	177
Autres pays	155	127
Importations totales	529	356
Exportations totales	8	5

Hongrie.

(En milliers de tonnes métriques.)

Houille, lignite, briquettes.

Importations de:	1929	1930
Tchécoslovaquie	310	270
Yougoslavie	18	12
Pologne	912	441
Autres pays	60	141
Importations totales	1.300	864
Exportations totales	407	382

Coke.

Importations totales	561	373
Exportations totales	2	1

Tchécoslovaquie.

Houille.

Importations de:		
Allemagne	1.387	1.129
Pologne	941	753
Autres pays	3	1
Importations totales	2.331	1.883
Exportations à:		
Allemagne	223	163
Autriche	1.337	1.276
Hongrie	223	227
Pologne	17	3
Autres pays	54	37
Exportations totales	1.854	1.706

Coke.

Importations de:		
Allemagne	360	214
Autres pays	26	1
Importations totales	386	215
Exportations à:		
Autriche	281	202
Hongrie	437	289
Pologne	127	57
Roumanie	16	15
Yougoslavie	19	15
Autres pays	4	6
Exportations totales	884	584

Lignite.

Importations totales	107	123
Exportations à:		
Allemagne	2.750	2.203
Autriche	309	174
Hongrie	1	—
Autres pays	2	1
Exportations totales	3.062	2.378

Cinquième Partie.

LES CINQ PAYS DANUBIENS CONSIDÉRÉS COMME DÉBOUCHÉS POUR QUELQUES MATIÈRES PREMIÈRES ET CERTAINES DENRÉES ALIMENTAIRES INTÉRESSANT LES PAYS D'OUTRE-MER.

1. *Matières premières.* — Les cinq pays danubiens importent des quantités assez importantes de matières premières qu'ils ne produisent pas ou produisent seulement en quantités insuffisantes pour couvrir les besoins de leurs industries. Ainsi, la *Tchécoslovaquie* a importé en 1929 environ 134.000 tonnes de coton brut, 39.000 tonnes de laine brute, 34.000 tonnes de peaux brutes et des quantités assez considérables de jute brut, de graines de lin et de ricin, d'amiante, de minerai de manganèse, etc.; l'*Autriche*, dans la même année, a importé entre autres près de 31.000 tonnes de coton brut, 12.000 tonnes de laine brute, et une quantité assez importante de jute brut; la *Hongrie*, également en 1929, a importé plus de 13.000 tonnes de coton brut, 7.000 tonnes de peaux brutes, etc. Les pays fournisseurs de ces matières n'ayant rien à craindre d'une concurrence intérieure, pourraient regarder avec faveur toute action qui aurait pour effet d'augmenter le pouvoir d'achat du marché danubien.

Pour le *coton*, les grands pays fournisseurs ont été les États-Unis, l'Égypte, et aussi l'*Inde*, qui, en 1929, a livré aux pays danubiens près de 30.000 tonnes de coton brut, soit environ le 16 % de leur importation totale, représentant le 4,2 % de l'exportation globale du coton hindou.

Pour la *laine*, les grands pays producteurs, tels que l'Australie et l'Afrique du Sud, ont participé à l'approvisionnement du marché danubien. Ainsi, en 1929, l'Australie a exporté, selon les indications des statistiques des pays destinataires, dans les pays danubiens, 6.297 tonnes, soit près du 2 % de son exportation totale de laine, et l'Afrique du Sud 2.903 tonnes, soit également le 2 % de son exportation. Or, cette quantité, qui représente environ le 20 % de l'importation totale de laine dans les pays danubiens, est très probablement de beaucoup inférieure à l'importation réelle des laines australiennes et sud-africaines dans ces pays. Ces laines y parviennent, en effet, souvent après avoir séjourné dans les entrepôts d'un pays transitaire, que les statistiques d'exportation des pays d'origine mentionnent comme destinataire, et les statistiques des pays de destination comme pays de provenance.

Quant aux autres matières premières mentionnées plus haut, les pays les plus intéressés à leur commerce ont été l'*Inde* pour le jute, les peaux brutes, les graines de lin et de ricin, le minerai de manganèse, et le *Canada* pour l'amiante et les minerais de divers métaux.

2. *Denrées alimentaires.* — Les pays danubiens sont producteurs de céréales et d'autres denrées de grande consommation. Cependant, deux d'entre eux — l'Autriche et la Tchécoslovaquie — tout en se ravitaillant, en grande partie, auprès des autres pays danubiens, importent cependant de petites quantités de blé et de farine canadiens. Ainsi, en 1929, l'*Autriche* a importé 23.000 tonnes de froment canadien et 3.000 tonnes de farine de froment canadienne, et la *Tchécoslovaquie* 1.000 tonnes de froment canadien et 19.000 tonnes de farine de froment de la même origine. Ces importations représentent, pour le froment, à peine le 0,5 % de l'exportation canadienne de cette céréale et, pour la farine environ le 3 % de l'exportation canadienne de ce produit.

Les pays danubiens importent en outre une assez grande quantité de riz. L'*Inde* est particulièrement intéressée à ce commerce. En 1929, en effet, les pays danubiens ont importé environ 30.700 tonnes de riz originaire de l'Inde, ce qui représente à peu près le 1,5 % de l'exportation globale du riz de cet État.

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THE COAL PROBLEM

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I. THE COAL PROBLEM.

REPORT OF THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE TO THE COUNCIL.

January 1932.

I. The Council will remember that, in 1929, the Economic Committee, having been asked to study the *problem of coal*, consulted experts familiar with all the important aspects of the problem — production, labour, commerce and consumption — and submitted a preliminary report (document C.150.1929.II), which was followed by a joint consultation of employers' and workers' experts (September 30th to October 3rd, 1929).

The ideas expressed by the experts still showed too much divergency to make it possible to provide for and define any international action in such a complicated matter. Furthermore, the situation of the coal industry at that time seemed to be improving, and demand was tending to increase together with prices. Certain experts hoped that the coal crisis would find its principal remedy in itself, and they relied on the spontaneous efforts of self-defence which are aroused by any economic crisis and only take effect by degrees.

This improvement, which was very definite in 1929, has unfortunately not continued. The discrepancy between the production and consumption of coal has since then been aggravated despite the very considerable reduction in the extraction of coal in the majority of countries. Consumption is diminishing more rapidly than production, and this decline cannot be kept pace with. Markets are more congested than ever, and all are affected simultaneously. Stocks are accumulating. Chaotic price-cutting by producers, being powerless to stimulate demand, simply increases the losses of the different undertakings. This has been accentuated by the recent monetary fluctuations and by the protectionist or restrictive measures which are being multiplied in both producing and importing countries. Finally, unemployment is severely affecting the mining districts.¹

In these circumstances, the Economic Committee considered that it should resume its enquiry with regard to coal without delay.

It found that the aggravation of the crisis had stimulated the movement of organisation among the coal-mines—a fact which made the resumption of its enquiry still more opportune. In countries with a large output, steps had been taken to organise the national industry. Certain international agreements had been concluded by the mine-owners, while others were being negotiated. Lastly, on June 18th, 1931, the International Labour Conference adopted an international Convention regulating the duration of labour in the mines.

Thus it was that the Economic Committee decided to organise a fresh consultation of experts, originally planned for October 22nd, 1931, but postponed to January 11th, 1932.

In accordance with the method which had proved effective in 1929, it made a point of enlisting the assistance of representatives of all the factors of production. The fundamental part played by the coal problem in the economic life of nations induced it on this occasion to add representatives of the Governments to the experts. The seven chief producing countries in Europe (Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Great

¹ This situation is described in detail in Part IV of this document.

Britain, the Netherlands and Poland) were represented at the meeting which has just closed (January 11th to 13th), and at which an Italian expert was asked to represent the interests of the consuming countries.

2. Already in 1929 the idea of an *international agreement between producers* had been put forward ; but the ground had not yet been prepared for carrying this proposal into effect. Many producers considered that an international agreement could only be built up step by step by detailed decisions on definite points. Local agreements of a free and spontaneous nature, eliminating the more irrational forms of competition, would provide material to serve as a foundation for a general agreement. The situation did not seem to be ripe for this agreement, and a comparatively long period of preparation appeared necessary. The parties concerned, hoping to find other solutions, held back.

During the present consultation, on the contrary, the Economic Committee found that all the experts of producing countries present, whether representing Governments, employers or workers, were unanimous as to the advantages of an international agreement calculated to remedy as soon as possible the chaotic state of the distribution of coal. Everyone recognised it to be in the interests of all producers, whatever their country, to combine their efforts for the purpose of regulating the competition between them, and thus helping to attenuate the effects of the crisis which, with its attendant evils of poverty, losses and unemployment, is entailing particularly severe hardships on the mining districts.

3. *National organisation* is a preliminary and necessary condition of international organisation. In 1929, one of the chief obstacles to this idea was the absence, in several countries, of national organisations—notably in Great Britain, the chief producing country in Europe.

To-day, we find that the national arrangements which are essential to the preparation and conclusion of any international agreement exist. A rapid organic development has taken place. Both in Great Britain and in Belgium the coal industry has been sufficiently organised. The advantages are generally recognised. Everywhere the necessity of dividing the consumption between the coal areas of a country has been recognised. The measures taken and proposed constitute a factor of essential importance for the general problem with which we are dealing. The prerequisite condition of any international agreement is present.

4. Moreover, it is now much easier than in 1929 to see *the general lines on which an agreement might be concluded* for regulating the distribution of coal among the various markets.

The numerous Government measures which at present stand in the way of the free circulation of coal do not seem to constitute an obstacle to the proposed agreements. Some of the experts, indeed, regard the two factors as closely related ; an international understanding brought to the knowledge of the Governments and making it possible to establish a certain equilibrium of competition would find a corollary in an adjustment of protectionist or restrictive measures.

A disciplined and rational distribution of the tonnage available, accepted by all parties in the international markets, would enable each producing centre to know what share it would have in the total consumption both of its own and of other countries. Knowing where it stood, it could adjust its output and aim at increasing its outlets by stimulating fresh consumption, but without carrying on bitter competition with other coal-producers.

Lastly, the industries thus united could, with less expense and much more chance of success, combine their efforts to find new uses for coal, and in all other activities of common concern to coal-producers, as already occurs in certain organised spheres, such as that of aluminium.

No doubt an organisation, however perfect, would have been powerless to prevent the material falling off in coal consumption which has been the outcome of the general

economic crisis and of difficulties unprecedented in their simultaneousness and amplitude. But we are entitled to believe that the social and commercial troubles brought about by the fall in consumption would have been more circumscribed if it had been possible to bring into play practical agreements adjusting production to the fluctuations of consumption on the various markets. If a rule for the distribution of the tonnage to be supplied to the various customers on each market had been laid down and observed, it may well be believed that mine-owners who, left to themselves, thought only of disposing at any price of a perhaps ill-regulated output would have regulated their supplies to a greater extent ; and this regulation would probably have rendered superfluous a whole series of measures tending to hinder the circulation of coal which have been introduced both in the producing and importing countries by the fear of imports on too large a scale creating unemployment. The fall would, in any case, have occurred, but very probably the losses thus distributed would have been less keenly felt.

In any case, there seems to be no doubt that, without an agreement, the coal industry would find it much more difficult to withstand a continuation of the crisis. Without an agreement, it would also have more difficulty in deriving the full advantage it is entitled to look for from a return to the normal rhythm of economic life. On the contrary, should demand recover, the agreement would be the more effective inasmuch as it would apply to an industry whose labour strength had been greatly reduced by the crisis.

5. The representative of the *consuming countries* voiced the anxiety with which consumers contemplate the harmful consequences that might, in their opinion, follow from any international agreement which tended to reduce production and consequently to increase prices. The reduction in the amount extracted would increase unemployment. Again, the increase in price would lead to a wider use of other sources of energy and would still further reduce consumption. On the whole, such agreements would therefore be harmful to the producers themselves. The injury caused to consumers might be considerable ; any increase in the price of coal has, indeed, immediate and serious effects on the cost price of essential products (*e.g.*, cast iron).

In the opinion of the consuming countries, it would therefore be desirable that the general lines of any agreements that might be reached between producers should beforehand be communicated to the consuming countries, which might then express their views on the matter, and only thus would it be possible to hope for any valuable result from the collaboration within the League of Nations for which the consuming countries have been asked and which they have gladly given.

The experts representing producers consider that these anxieties are groundless. They emphasise the considerable advantage consumers would derive from stability in prices, since they would no longer be exposed to perpetual fluctuations and might therefore more safely calculate their cost prices for long periods ahead.

Any increase in price would naturally be limited by the interests of the sellers themselves, for their first aim must be to obviate any decrease in consumption. On the other hand, economic correctives would certainly play their part in checking any possible abuses.

The competition of other sources of energy would make itself felt at once. The output of countries which remained outside the European agreement would exercise an influence. Moreover, this agreement would be open to countries which are both producers and importers, and such countries must be particularly careful of the interests of consumers.

Finally, the consultations which take place under the auspices of the League of Nations, and in which both consuming countries and producing countries are represented and may express their views, constitute a factor which provides a certain guarantee.

6. The Economic Committee examined the conclusions to be drawn from the *London Conference* (September 30th and October 1st, 1931), at which the mine-owners of the seven chief European producing countries set forth the general lines of a plan of international organisation. From what it heard during the consultation of the experts, it

thinks there are grounds for hoping that the efforts to reach an agreement will be resumed at the earliest possible moment and actively pursued. It expresses the hope that those negotiations may lead to a more rational organisation of the industry and may thus provide a remedy for a depression which is becoming more and more acute. The Committee proposes that the Council should bring to the notice of Governments the international importance of this movement in the serious situation prevailing at present, in the certainty that they will not fail to follow it carefully, encourage it if necessary, and, at the same time, satisfy themselves that there is no danger of the general interest being adversely affected.

The Economic Committee was glad to note that a recent difficulty of a psychological nature, which was caused by the disturbances resulting from rapid monetary fluctuations, seemed to have been gradually removed during the course of the meeting. In some quarters there was a tendency to think that the advantages — at all events the temporary advantages — which certain mine-owners might hope to derive from exceptional increases in tonnage would lessen the interest those mine-owners might take in the idea of an international agreement.

7. The discussion brought out the complex character of the *negotiations* which will be required if an international agreement on coal is to be reached. It seemed that the participation of too varied interests in the negotiations would still further complicate the conclusion of an agreement, and this is considered to be, if not the only, at all events the best solution in the difficult circumstances which prevail at present.

It would apparently be desirable for the conduct of the negotiations and the conclusion of the agreements to remain in the hands of those who have to execute the agreements and who must bear the direct responsibility for them. But there is reason to suppose that Governments and the public will be aware of the general lines of what is proposed, and will naturally judge them from the point of view of all the factors of the national economy concerned (workers, consumers, transport, etc.).

8. The Economic Committee proposes to follow attentively these efforts towards organisation. In view of the importance of the coal problem, the Committee is bound to be interested in it from the point of view of the general economic life of all countries.

Its action could go no further. There could be no question of the League of Nations assuming responsibility for initiating or directing these negotiations. Its task should be to study all the aspects of the problem and to ensure contact between all the interests involved. Though it may be proper, within the limits of its economic work, for it to take account of a general movement and to use its influence to guide it as far as possible along the lines which are most favourable to the general interest, it could not undertake any direct responsibility for the agreements that are to be concluded or for the precise form they might assume.

For the discharge of this duty, the Economic Committee considers that the *Committee of Experts*, as at present constituted, is both competent and adequate. This Committee includes representatives of Governments, mine-owners and miners and representatives of consuming countries, and, subject to any modifications which might seem desirable, appears to be the appropriate organ for closely following all developments, the progress of the agreements and changes in the international situation, for helping towards mutual understanding and for giving all the parties concerned an opportunity to meet on an international plane.

The Economic Committee therefore thinks it would be advisable to convene the Committee of Experts again at an opportune time as early as possible in the hope that, through the goodwill of all the interests involved, it will be possible to record progress by the time of the meeting proposed above.

It is, moreover, convinced that the present meeting, at which all have been able to exchange views freely, will contribute towards that mutual understanding between

the interests involved, whether common or opposed, without which there could be no hope of solving the problem in any way that would be both equitable and effective. Consumers and workers have so clearly set forth their legitimate anxieties that not even an organ representing only one interest could seriously contemplate ignoring them.

9. In conclusion, the Economic Committee, in view of the fact that, on the one hand, the aggravation of the crisis and, on the other hand, the progress effected in national organisation show that the realisation of the idea of an international coal agreement is both more urgent than ever and apparently within reach, considering the necessity for overcoming a crisis which affects one of the fundamental branches of production and for doing so without thereby injuring the interests of consumers, whether countries or individuals :

1. *Proposes that the Council should communicate the present report to Governments, bringing to their notice the international importance of this movement in the serious situation which exists at present ;*

2. *In accordance with the principle laid down by the World Economic Conference and confirmed by all subsequent studies of the Economic Organisation relating to the publicity given to important international agreements, the Economic Committee expresses its confidence that knowledge of the fundamental lines of the agreements which are already concluded, or which are to be concluded, will be available to all, so that the interests involved, and more particularly the consuming countries, may have all the information necessary to enable them to express an opinion on the effects of the said agreements.*

II. ANNEXES TO THE REPORT OF THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE.

A. LIST OF THE MEMBERS OF THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE.

- Dr. R. SCHÜLLER, *Chairman* (Austria), Director of the Economic Section, Foreign Affairs Department.
- M. W. STUCKI, *Vice-Chairman* (Switzerland), Director of the Commercial Division, Federal Department of Public Economy.
- M. CASARES (Argentine), Director of the Caisse de Conversion, formerly Under-Secretary of State for Agriculture.
- M. F. VAN LANGENHOVE (Belgium), Secretary-General of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
- M. F. PEROUTKA (Czechoslovakia), Chief of Section, Ministry of Commerce and Industry.
- M. P. ELBEL * (France), Director of the Commercial Agreements Section, Ministry of Commerce.
- Dr. E. TRENDELENBURG * (Germany), Secretary of State, Ministry of Economy.
- Sir Sydney CHAPMAN, K.C.B., C.B.E. * (Great Britain), Chief Economic Adviser to His Majesty's Government.
- Mr. H. A. F. LINDSAY, C.I.B., C.B.E. (India), Indian Trade Commissioner, London.
- M. A. DI NOLA * (Italy), General Director of the Istituto italiano di Credito Fondiario, Honorary Director-General, Ministry of National Economy.
- M. N. ITO (Japan), Counsellor of Embassy, Deputy-Director of the Imperial Japanese League of Nations Bureau.
- M. F. DOLÉZAL * (Poland), Under-Secretary of State, Ministry of Commerce and Industry.
- M. V. LUNDAVIK (Sweden), Director of the Federation of Swedish Industries.
- Mr. Lucius R. EASTMAN (United States of America), Ex-President of the Merchants' Association of New York.
- Professor Dr. Milan TODOROVIC (Yugoslavia), Professor of Political Economy at the University of Belgrade, Adviser for Economic Questions, Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

* The names of the members of the Committee's *Delegation* dealing with *coal questions* are marked by an asterisk.

B. LIST OF EXPERTS ON COAL MATTERS WHO TOOK PART IN THE
CONSULTATION OF JANUARY 11TH TO 13TH, 1932.

Belgium.

- M. CAPIAU, General Director of the "Comptoir belge des charbons industriels", and of the "Syndicat belge des cokes et charbons à coke".
- M. DELATTRE, Member of the House of Representatives, Secretary of the International Miners' Federation and of the "Centrale syndicale des Mineurs belges".
- M. LEBACQZ, General Director of the Mines Department.

Experts :

- M. J. DEJARDIN, President of the "Centrale syndicale des Mineurs belges".
- M. VAN BUGGENHOUT, President of the Christian Miners of Belgium, Secretary of the International Association of Christian Miners.

Czechoslovakia.

- M. BROZIK, of the Miners' Federation.
- M. FISCHER, Director at the Ministry of Public Works.
- M. SMEKAL, General Secretary of the Mine-Owners Association.

France.

- M. CUVELETTE, Manager and Director-General of the "Société des Mines de Lens".
- M. GUILLAUME, Director-General of the French State Mines in the Saar.
- M. VIGNE, General Secretary of the "Fédération Nationale des Travailleurs du Sous-Sol et Similaires".

Germany.

- Dr. BERGER, of the Miners' Federation.
- Dr. JANUS, Director-General of the Rhine-Westphalian Coal Syndicate.
- Dr. KRALIK, Director at the Ministry of Economy.

Experts :

- M. ROTTHÄUSER, Director of the Association of German Christian Miners.
- M. HUSEMANN, President of the Union of Miners of Germany.

Great Britain.

- Mr. EDWARDS, President of the Miners' Federation of Great Britain.
- Sir Alfred FAULKNER, Under-Secretary of State for Mines.

Lord HYNDLEY, of Stephenson, Clarke & Co.

Expert :

Mr. H. W. COLE, Deputy-Under-Secretary of State for Mines.

Italy.

Comm. Bartolomeo NOBILI, Director of the Supplies' Department, Ministry of Communications.

Netherlands.

Dr. W. F. J. FROWEIN, Director-President of the State Mines.

M. PELZER, Secretary of the Catholic Miners Association.

Expert :

M. VAN DE BILT, President of the Netherlands Miners' Organisation.

Poland.

M. CHOROSZEWSKI, former Director of Mines, Director of the State Salt-Mines.

M. CYBULSKI, Director-General of the Coal Convention.

M. STANCZYK, President of the Miners' Federation.

Expert :

M. ZAGRODSKI, Chief of Section at the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare.

III. RESOLUTION OF THE COUNCIL ON THE REPORT
OF THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE.

January 28th, 1932.

The Council,

Having read the report of the Economic Committee on the *coal* problem,

Notes with satisfaction the progress achieved in the direction of the national organisation of production in the various countries concerned and the encouraging possibility of the solution of this problem on an international basis in the near future ;

Requests the Secretary-General to communicate this report to all Governments, pointing out the importance of these tendencies in the present serious situation.

IV. DEVELOPMENT OF THE COAL INDUSTRY IN RECENT YEARS.

The object of the present note is to bring up to date and supplement the information contained in the report on the coal industry, issued by the Economic Committee of the League in 1929.¹

The following general survey falls into two main parts. The first four sections contain a summary of the conclusions that may be drawn from the statistics relating to the production and consumption of coal, the international trade in coal and the prices of coal. It covers the period from 1924 to 1931. For the base period the year 1924 has been selected, as the total production of coal in Europe — to which continent the international coal problem is mainly confined — and the distribution of the output among the principal producing countries was practically the same in that year as the annual average for the last pre-war quinquennium 1909 to 1913.

The three concluding sections review governmental and other measures affecting the coal industry and the international coal trade since the meeting of the Conference of Experts on Coal Matters in September 1929.

The annexes contain the detailed figures on which the statistical survey is based.

I. PRODUCTION.

It was shown in the report on the " Problem of the Coal Industry " that the root cause of the coal crisis lies in the discrepancy between productive capacity and demand.

This discrepancy has undoubtedly persisted throughout recent years. It was gradually reduced during the period 1924 to 1929, when the demand for coal increased owing to rapid industrial progress, and the coal industry of practically all producing countries underwent a progressive rationalisation. During the worldwide industrial depression since the autumn of 1929, however, the discrepancy between productive capacity and demand has again been widened, and the output of coal has fallen off more slowly than general industrial activity.

In 1924 and 1925, world production of coal was almost 2 per cent lower than in 1913, while the world production of basic commodities in general stood in 1925 at about 16 per cent, and that of industrial raw materials at about 25 per cent above the pre-war level. The subsequent development of world coal production as compared with the trend of the output of basic commodities in general will be seen from the following table :

¹ League of Nations Economic Organisation : " The Problem of the Coal Industry ", 2nd edition, April 12th, 1929 (document C.150.M.58.1929.II).

WORLD PRODUCTION.

Year	Coal	Coal and lignite ¹	Coal	Coal and lignite	Foodstuffs and raw materials	Raw materials
	Metric tons (000,000's)		Per cent		Indices	
1924	1,192	1,241	100	100	—	—
1925	1,190	1,241	100	100	100	100
1926	1,182	1,234	99	99	100	102
1927	1,280	1,335	107	108	104	107
1928	1,250	1,309	105	106	108	112
1929	1,330	1,393	112	112	111	120
1930	1,213	1,266	102	102	107	110
1931	1,068	1,118	90	90	² 102	² 99

It will be seen that the rate of increase in the world output of coal was much the same as the aggregate production of foodstuffs and raw materials, between 1925 and 1929, but the production of industrial raw materials proper increased at a much more rapid rate. Moreover, the growth of the transformation and transport industries was still greater. The increase in the demand for coal was, however, checked by improved methods of coal utilisation as well as by the increasing use of alternative sources of energy. The output of lignite increased by 24 per cent between 1925 and 1929, that of petroleum by 39 per cent, and that of electric current by some 50 per cent.

The world economic depression has affected the coal industry very seriously. The world output of coal (excluding lignite) which in 1929 reached its maximum, 1,330 million tons, fell in 1930 by 117 million tons or 9 per cent, and in 1931 by another 145 million tons, *i.e.*, in all, by 262 million tons or 19.7 per cent of the above maximum. In no year since 1922 has the world output been as low as in 1931. However, the decline in the activity of manufacturing industries has been still more pronounced.

Two-thirds of the total increase in world output of coal from 1924 to 1929 was accounted for by European producers. In 1930 and 1931, production in the United States fell considerably more than in Europe as a whole and more also than in other continents. Thus the share of Europe in world output has increased, and that of North America has decreased.

CONTINENTAL DISTRIBUTION OF COAL PRODUCTION.

	1924 per cent	1929 per cent	1930 per cent	1931 ² per cent
Europe (excluding the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics)	44.8	45.4	46.1	47.3
North America	44.3	42.5	40.6	38.0
Rest of world	10.9	12.1	13.3	4.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ Lignite in terms of coal.
² Provisional figures.

The share of the various producing countries in the total coal production of Europe during the period under review will be seen from the following table :

COAL PRODUCTION IN EUROPE.¹

Country	Metric tons (000,000's)				Share in total output per cent			
	1924	1929	1930	1931	1924	1929	1930	1931
United Kingdom	271.4	262.0	247.8	223.7	50.8	43.4	44.3	44.3
Germany	118.8	163.4	142.7	118.6	22.2	27.0	25.5	23.5
France	44.0	53.8	53.9	50.0	8.2	8.9	9.6	9.9
Poland	32.3	46.2	37.5	38.3	6.1	7.6	6.7	7.6
Belgium	23.4	26.9	27.4	27.0	4.4	4.5	4.9	5.3
Czechoslovakia	15.2	16.5	14.4	13.2	2.8	2.7	2.6	2.6
Netherlands	6.2	11.6	12.2	12.9	1.2	1.9	2.2	2.6
Rest of Europe	22.7	23.9	23.3	21.5	4.3	4.0	4.2	4.2
Europe (excluding the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics)	534.0	604.3	559.2	505.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

European coal production increased by over 13 per cent between 1924 and 1929, and dropped by almost 100 million tons or over 16 per cent in the two last years. The only country which did not participate in the increase up to 1929 is the United Kingdom. Her share in the total European production (excluding the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics) dropped from about 51 per cent in 1924 to somewhat over 44 per cent in 1930-31; or, if the output of lignite in the Continent is taken into account, from some 47 to a little over 39 per cent. The variations in German production during the period concerned have been much sharper. Production rose very rapidly up to 1929, but has since fallen off more sharply than the British; nevertheless, Germany produced practically the same amount of coal in 1931 as in 1924. The Polish output also shows considerable variation; after a heavy drop in 1930 it increased again in 1931. The relative shares of France, Belgium and the Netherlands in the total European output increased between 1929 and 1931, and, in the case of the two last-named countries, even the absolute quantity of this coal production was greater in 1931 than in 1929. The output of Russian coal, which is almost entirely consumed in the domestic market, has increased steadily from year to year. Thus the incidence of the depression upon the coal-mining industry in different countries has been very uneven.

It was pointed out above that the production of lignite increased more rapidly than that of coal until 1929. But the adverse effects of the depression have been more severely felt in the lignite than in the coal industry, as will be seen from the following table :

LIGNITE PRODUCTION (IN TERMS OF COAL) IN EUROPE.

Country	Metric tons (000,000's)			
	1924	1929	1930	1931
Germany	27.7	38.8	32.4	29.6
Czechoslovakia	12.0	13.3	11.3	10.6
Hungary	2.1	2.3	2.1	2.0
Rest of Europe	5.2	6.3	5.5	5.1
Europe (excluding Union of Soviet Socialist Republics)	47.0	60.7	51.3	47.3

¹ Excluding lignite.

The chief significance of these figures lies in the importance of the German output of lignite which is largely consumed at home. In that country, lignite has been gradually substituted for coal, particularly as fuel for the generation of electricity; since 1929, more current has in fact been generated from lignite than from coal. This may have increased the exportable surplus of coal from Germany.

The above tables may be supplemented by figures relating to the production of metallurgical coke in the principal producing countries of Europe.

OUTPUT FROM COKE OVENS IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES.

Country	Metric tons (000,000's)			
	1924	1929	1930	1931
Germany	24.9	39.4	32.7	22.7
United Kingdom	13.0	13.6	11.7	...
France	5.4	9.1	9.3	7.9
Belgium	4.2	6.0	5.3	4.9
Czechoslovakia	2.2	3.2	2.7	2.0
Netherlands	1.0	2.4	2.6	2.0
Poland	0.9	1.9	1.6	1.4

Metallurgical coke is used in industries producing capital goods, and these industries have been subject to greater variations than others. Thus the output of coke increased more than that of coal until 1929, but shows a greater relative drop in the two subsequent years. The output of coke has decreased even in countries where coal production has been maintained or increased.

The gas-works production of coke, which is used mainly for domestic purposes and has accordingly been omitted from the above table, has been subject to less marked fluctuations.

2. TRADE.

Of the total quantity of saleable coal and lignite produced in the world, only about one-seventh enters into international trade. But while exports represent little more than 4 per cent of the total North American production, they account for nearly 25 per cent of the European.

Up to 1924, international trade in coal had developed considerably less than production. Subsequently, up to 1929, coal exports increased more rapidly than production, partly as a result of the rapid economic progress, especially in Europe, and partly on account of the stimulus afforded by various governmental measures. During the present general economic depression, the exporting countries have endeavoured to maintain their exports and to conquer new markets, but in spite of price cuts and other competition the consumption of coal has declined. The international trade in coal has shrunk and its channels have considerably changed.

As will be seen from the Annex (Table V), there are only four countries in Europe which export more coal than they import. The ratio of their net exports to their production has varied as follows :

NET EXPORTS OF COAL AS PERCENTAGE OF PRODUCTION. ¹

Country	1924	1929	1930	1931
United Kingdom	31.5	31.7	30.7	27.8
Germany	8.0	15.8	15.6	16.9
Poland	35.6	29.7	33.4	36.6
Czechoslovakia	11.0	6.8	6.7	5.1

¹ All trade figures include, in addition to coal, also lignite, coke and briquettes, in terms of coal.

Many of the coal-importing countries are, however, also exporters of coal. Thus the gross exports from the Netherlands, Belgium and the French Customs territory including the Saar, all exceed those from Czechoslovakia.

The export of these countries during the period under review was as follows :

GROSS EXPORTS OF COAL FROM EUROPEAN COUNTRIES.

Country	Metric tons (ooo,ooo's)			
	1924	1929	1930	1931
United Kingdom	85.5	83.1	76.0	62.3
Germany	26.8	42.2	36.3	32.9
Poland and Danzig	11.9	14.1	12.7	14.2
Netherlands	3.5	8.3	8.7	9.3
Belgium	3.8	5.5	5.7	7.6
France and Saar	2.8	6.1	4.8	4.3
Czechoslovakia	4.1	4.9	3.9	3.4

It will be seen that the exports of coal from all countries concerned increased between 1924 and 1929 with one exception. That exception was the United Kingdom. The falling off in the consumption of coal in 1930-31 affected the United Kingdom more than the other chief exporters. Nevertheless, the share of coal in the total value of British exports increased during these years. The German and French exports also dropped considerably, and the Czechoslovak exports proportionately more than those of the United Kingdom. On the other hand, Poland nearly equalled, and the Netherlands and Belgium exceeded in 1931, the record figures reached in the year of the British coal stoppage, 1926.

The competition between the chief exporters of coal in the period under review is illustrated by the following tables relating to four European markets.

The northern European or Baltic region (Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Finland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania) is a free import market and forms the centre of the competitive coal trade.

EXPORTS TO THE NORTHERN EUROPEAN MARKET

Year	Metric tons (ooo's)			Percentage of total		
	From United Kingdom	From Germany	From Poland and Danzig	United Kingdom	Germany	Poland and Danzig
1924	12,543	243	28	97.9	1.9	0.2
1925	9,857	1,458	584	82.8	12.3	4.9
1926	3,375	3,775	4,302	29.5	33.0	37.5
1927	8,296	3,024	4,149	53.6	19.6	26.8
1928	7,275	1,525	5,834	49.7	10.4	39.9
1929	9,210	2,343	5,620	53.6	13.7	32.7
1930	7,610	1,952	6,055	48.7	12.5	38.8
1931	5,566	2,333	7,074	37.2	15.6	47.2

Comprehensive statistics of imports by countries of origin and destination are not yet available for 1931. If the import figures of the seven northern European countries are combined, a result rather different from that given above is obtained :

Imports into the Northern European market	Metric tons (ooo's)		
	1924	1929	1930
From United Kingdom	12,076	8,667	7,238
From Germany	607	3,703	3,242
From Poland and Danzig	—	4,447	4,750

It would appear that a large quantity of coal shown in the trade statistics of the Scandinavian countries as being imported from Germany is actually of Polish origin. For these reasons, the method employed in the table seems to be preferable.

It is of interest to contrast the growth in the imports of coal into the northern countries with the coal production in Europe. European output was, in 1929, 10 per cent and, in 1930, 7 per cent greater than in 1924 ; in 1931 it fell to 5 per cent below the 1924 figures. Imports of coal into northern markets, on the other hand, exceeded the 1924 level by 33 per cent in 1929, 20 per cent in 1930, and 14.5 per cent in 1931.

Of the combined exports of British, German and Polish coal to northern Europe in 1931, only 37 per cent was furnished by the United Kingdom, while in 1924 practically all and in 1925, 83 per cent of the total was of British origin. Owing to the depreciation of sterling, however, the exports from the United Kingdom increased in the last quarter of 1931 considerably more than those of her competitors. On the other hand, Poland supplied 47 per cent of the total in 1931, while prior to the middle of 1925, scarcely any coal reached the northern markets from that source. Both Poland and Germany increased their exports very much in 1926, the year of the British coal stoppage, but, while Poland has been able to increase hers still further, Germany has failed to hold the position thus gained.

Sales to the northern markets represented the following proportions of the total exports of coal from the three countries considered :

	United Kingdom Per cent.	Germany Per cent.	Poland Per cent.
1924	14.7	5.9	0.2
1931	8.9	7.1	50.0

The western European market, comprising the Netherlands, Belgium and France, is the most important from the point of view of quantities imported. The principal competitors are the United Kingdom and Germany.

IMPORTS INTO THE WESTERN EUROPEAN MARKET. ¹

Year	Metric tons (ooo's)			Percentage of total imports	
	From the United Kingdom	From Germany	Total imports	United Kingdom	Germany
1924	18,495	22,884	53,606	34.5	42.7
1925	13,782	25,230	47,294	29.1	53.3
1926	5,516	31,170	46,040	12.0	67.7
1927	13,005	26,263	49,217	26.4	53.4
1928	12,356	23,914	48,122	25.7	49.7
1929	18,606	26,519	58,866	31.6	45.0
1930	18,708	24,445	56,560	33.1	43.2
1931	14,507	21,296	51,234	28.3	41.6

In this market, the United Kingdom has not only regained the ground lost in 1926, but, in common with all countries other than Germany, she increased her trade in 1929 and 1930. While Germany derived much advantage from the temporary cessation of

¹ The figures are calculated from the import statistics of the countries concerned. The figures for Germany include reparation deliveries.

British supplies in 1926, she has shared less fully in the recent expansion in the total imports of the western market. In 1931, the imports of foreign coal into the countries considered fell off, owing partly to diminishing industrial activity, and partly to governmental measures designed to restrict imports. This fall affected the United Kingdom much more than her competitors.

As has been mentioned above, the three importing countries concerned, France, Belgium and the Netherlands, also export coal. There is, in fact, a not inconsiderable international trade in coal and coke among them. The direction of the exports is mainly from north to south.

The Netherlands, which is a free market, sends coal and coke both to Belgium and France. Their total exports increased in 1930 as well as in 1931; exports to France increased by about 22 per cent in 1930, and those to Belgium rose by some 20 per cent in 1931.

Belgium exports more than a fifth of her production, chiefly to France. In 1930 and 1931, Belgium was able to maintain its previous level of coal output and further to increase its exports. Consequently, the decrease in Belgium's coal consumption in 1930 and 1931 affected only imports with the result that the share of net imports in the total consumption of the Belgo-Luxemburg Economic Union fell from 28 per cent in 1929 to 16 per cent in 1931.

Thus, not only Germany and the United Kingdom, but also Belgium and the Netherlands have been actively competing in the French market in recent years. Germany's share, as well as that of the United Kingdom, in total imports into France decreased very considerably between 1929 and 1931 to the profit of the other importers. Total coal imports into France did not fall off until the first half of 1931, while French coal exports, of which coal from the Saar territory constitutes a considerable proportion, began to decline in 1930, and in 1931 had fallen off by 29 per cent as compared with 1929.

The United Kingdom and Germany are also the chief competitors in the southern European market, comprising Spain, Portugal, Italy and the British possessions in the Mediterranean Sea.

IMPORTS INTO THE SOUTHERN EUROPEAN MARKET. ¹

Year	Metric tons (ooo's)			Percentage of total imports	
	From the United Kingdom	From Germany	Total imports	United Kingdom	Germany
1924	8,952	4,405	14,285	62.7	30.8
1925	9,842	2,804	14,074	69.9	19.9
1926	5,272	5,432	14,859	35.5	36.6
1927	10,183	5,214	18,516	55.0	28.1
1928	9,830	4,962	17,579	55.9	28.2
1929	10,793	6,751	19,698	54.8	34.3
1930	10,246	4,804	16,951	60.4	28.3
1931	7,221	3,793	14,316	50.4	26.5

German competition in this market has been much more marked in the post-war period than before. While the total imports increased between 1924 and 1929 by about 30 per cent, the supplies of German coal rose by 53 per cent — the major part being deliveries

¹ The figures have been calculated from the import statistics of the countries concerned; reparation deliveries are included.

on reparations account. Imports of British coal in this same period rose by only 20 per cent. In 1930, the United Kingdom, partly in consequence of increased exports to Italy in virtue of the Hague agreements, was able to maintain her export trade on the 1929 level, but in the following year it suffered a heavy set-back.

Poland has also appeared in the western European and Mediterranean markets in recent years, although the quantities exported have as yet been comparatively small. Apart from the Scandinavian countries, Poland's chief market is in Central Europe. Poland shares the Czechoslovak market with Germany, and the Austrian and Hungarian markets mainly with Germany and Czechoslovakia.

IMPORTS INTO THE AUSTRIAN AND HUNGARIAN MARKETS. ¹

Year	Metric tons (ooo's)			Total imports	Percentage of total imports		
	Germany	Czecho-slovakia	Poland		Germany	Czecho-slovakia	Poland
1924	271	2,322	3,705	6,691	4.5	34.7	55.4
1925	701	1,875	3,568	6,410	10.9	29.3	55.7
1926	805	2,076	3,337	6,345	12.7	32.7	52.6
1927	801	2,488	3,802	7,214	11.1	34.5	52.7
1928	701	2,508	4,042	7,517	9.3	33.4	53.8
1929	1,174	2,822	4,306	8,663	13.6	32.6	49.7
1930	967	2,333	2,715	6,143	15.7	38.0	44.2
1931	890	1,989	2,425	5,496	16.2	36.2	44.1

Polish coal exports to Austria and Hungary were larger than those of Germany and Czechoslovakia combined until 1929; but they expanded less rapidly until 1929 and the depression has affected Poland's exports to this market much more seriously than those of her two principal competitors.

Germany exports more coal to Czechoslovakia than to Austria and Hungary taken together.

3. CONSUMPTION.

Normally, actual production of coal seldom exceeds consumption by any considerable amount. During a period of depression, however, coal-mines may be kept in operation for some time on an extensive scale even when orders are lacking. There has undoubtedly been such a time-lag in adjustment during 1930 and 1931. As a result, a disequilibrium has appeared, not only between productive capacity and demand, but also between actual production and demand.

Comprehensive statistics of actual consumption of coal are not available. The existing figures relating to the consumption in fact disregard the accumulation of stocks.

Rough estimates of coal consumption in the different countries, which do not allow for stocks, may be made by considering the production of coal in conjunction with the balance of coal trade of each country. Detailed figures are given in the Annex (Table V). The following table summarises the figures for the four European countries which are on balance exporters, on the one hand, and for the four groups of countries with an import surplus, as defined in the preceding section, on the other hand.

¹ The figures have been calculated from the import statistics of Austria and Hungary.

CONSUMPTION OF COAL IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES. ¹

Countries	Metric tons (000,000's)			
	1924	1929	1930	1931
<i>Exporting countries :</i>				
United Kingdom	186	179	172	161
Germany	135	169	147	123
Poland	21	33	25	24
Czechoslovakia	24	28	24	23
<i>Importing countries :</i>				
Northern Europe	14	18	16	15 ²
Western Europe	125	146	144	132
Southern Europe	21	28	25	22
Central Europe :				
Austria and Hungary	11	14	11	10

It would seem that the consumption of coal in the four exporting countries has fallen in the aggregate since 1929 in the same proportion — by a little less than one-fifth — as production. The drop in the importing countries has apparently been much smaller. It has amounted to about one-tenth in western, southern and central Europe, and was negligible in the northern countries.

As already mentioned, the above figures do not allow for stocks, and, in view of the recent increase in coal stocks, the figures for 1930 and 1931 overstate actual consumption.

It has been mentioned above that the coal output in Europe decreased from 1929 to 1931 by about 16 per cent. That the demand for coal has fallen off more may be concluded from the fact that general industrial activity in the European countries decreased by roughly 20 to 25 per cent during the same period. As a result, considerable stocks of coal have accumulated, as will be seen from the following figures :

COAL STOCKS IN BELGIUM, GERMANY, SAAR AND POLISH UPPER SILESIA. ³

	Metric tons
June 30th, 1929	2,958,000
December 31st, 1929	4,997,000
June 30th, 1930	13,988,000
December 31st, 1930	17,419,000
June 30th, 1931	19,663,000
December 31st, 1931	20,714,000

Large stocks have likewise accumulated in France and the United Kingdom. In the former country, the stocks were estimated at 770,000 tons at the end of 1929, at 2,860,000 tons at the end of 1930, and at some 4,700,000 tons at the end of 1931.

The total stocks of coal and coke in Europe have been estimated at some 25 to 30 million tons and in the world as a whole at approximately 70 million tons at the end of 1931.

¹ The figures include, in addition to coal, also lignite, coke and briquettes in terms of coal, but disregard stocks.

² Provisional figure.

³ Institut für Konjunkturforschung, Berlin.

4. PRICES.

As the demand for coal in general is highly inelastic, even a small increase in supply in relation to demand is likely to affect prices.

As was shown in the report on the "Problem of the Coal Industry", both export and import prices fell rapidly between 1924 and 1928. By 1928, therefore, coal prices were already at a very low level.

The development of the coal prices during the period under review (1924 to 1931) will be illustrated by the following tables. Data are given both in respect of the average selling value of coal at the-pit, and the average export and import values of coal. The former figures serve to check the valuation of coal in international trade which is vitiated by the fact that export and import prices include a smaller or larger proportion of transport and other charges and thus of elements over which the coal-mining industry has little or no control, and relate to a relatively minor proportion of the entire coal trade.

AVERAGE SELLING VALUE OF COAL AT THE PIT.

Year and Month	United Kingdom per long ton		Germany	Poland
	s. d.	s. d.	RM.	Swiss francs
December 1924	19 0	(17 10½)	15.00	23.07
December 1925	15 11¾		14.92	20.37
December 1926		14.87	14.16
December 1927	13 9¾		14.87	14.16
December 1928	13 5¾		16.87	16.69
December 1929	14 3		16.87	16.69
March 1930	14 5½		16.87	16.69
June 1930	13 10¾		16.89	16.69
September 1930	13 9¼		16.89	16.69
December 1930	14 1¾		15.40	16.69
March 1931	14 3¼		15.40	17.13
June 1931	13 9¾		15.40	17.56
September 1931	13 10		15.40	17.56
December 1931	14 1	(10 7¼)	15.40	17.56
January 1932	—		14.21	17.56

NOTE. — When the national currency has diverged from the gold parity, the equivalent gold values are given in brackets.

United Kingdom : Average proceeds per long ton of coal disposable commercially. Quarter ending end of month indicated.

Germany : Fettförderkohle, Rheinisch-Westfälische Kohlensyndikat, ab Zeche;

Poland : Gross selling price of coal, district of Upper Silesia, quality corresponding to German "Förderkohle". Prices furnished in Swiss francs by the Department of Mines, Ministry of Industry and Trade.

The following export and import prices have been calculated by dividing the total value by the total quantity of coal exported or imported.

AVERAGE EXPORT AND IMPORT PRICES OF COAL.

Year and month	In dollars per metric ton					
	Export Prices United Kingdom	Germany ¹	Poland	France ²	Italy ¹	Switzerland
1924 average . . .	5.09	4.86	4.43	5.81	8.85	10.23
1925 average . . .	4.71	4.81	3.46	5.53	7.93	9.05
1926 average	5.11	3.46	5.27	8.39	8.36
1927 average . . .	4.27	5.72	3.50	5.91	9.01	8.51
1928 average . . .	3.73	4.39	3.14	5.02	6.66	8.36
1929 average . . .	3.87	4.40	3.09	5.33	6.83	8.40
March 1929 . . .	3.85	4.61	3.37	5.11	6.98	8.44
June 1929 . . .	3.81	4.06	2.96	5.44	6.81	8.19
September 1929.	3.87	4.35	3.01	5.40	6.93	8.43
December 1929.	3.97	4.54	3.05	5.60	6.99	8.93
1930 average . . .	3.99	4.73	3.00	5.51	6.47	8.43
March 1930 . . .	3.99	4.73	3.08	5.66	6.50	8.28
June 1930 . . .	3.93	4.87	2.95	5.59	6.34	8.20
September 1930.	3.97	4.71	2.94	5.37	6.39	8.80
December 1930.	3.91	4.68	2.96	5.19	6.40	8.58
1931 average . . .	3.63	4.09	2.75	4.98	5.73	8.08
March 1931 . . .	3.83	4.55	2.92	5.04	5.92	8.09
June 1931 . . .	3.91	4.53	2.72	5.16	6.20	7.96
September 1931.	3.67	3.62	2.75	4.95	6.09	8.02
December 1931.	2.68	3.35	2.49	4.56	4.30	7.93

NOTE. — When the national currency has diverged from the gold parity, the equivalent gold values are given in brackets.

Compared with the drastic fall in the prices of most other basic commodities since 1929, coal prices have, until recently, shown on the whole a striking resistance.

This may be partly explained by the fact that the demand for coal has been better maintained than that for industrial raw materials as a whole, in view of the fact that coal is not only an industrial raw material but also largely an article of domestic consumption. Moreover, the price of coal has been influenced by the following factors: The coal industry in most countries is highly organised; important coal markets are not free; the prices were already low before the general depression started; and most coal-exporters have adopted a policy of active price control. The organisation of the coal industry has been most elaborate in Germany, and prices have for several years past been determined by the National Coal Federation in consultation with the Central Coal Syndicate which acts under Government supervision. On the other hand, the British coal-owners have in recent years followed the policy of selling a smaller volume of coal at "reasonable prices" rather than marketing the largest possible amount at low prices. This policy was made practicable in the first instance by voluntary schemes, and eventually the Coal Mines Act, 1930, provided for the compulsory fixing of minimum prices below which coal, or any particular class of coal, may not be sold.

As the depression deepened, however, the efficacy of the restrictive schemes adopted in many countries diminished. In the face of the continued sharp contraction in demand, this resulted in an increasingly severe competition between the chief exporters, and consequently a tendency towards a fall in prices.

¹ Excluding reparation deliveries.

² Including reparation deliveries.

The German export prices are remarkable both for their relative stability practically since the year 1925 and in particular since the beginning of 1929, and for the sudden and heavy fall (over 25 per cent) dating from August 1931. The recent fall in prices is the result of the rapid aggravation of the general economic and financial situation during 1931.

On the other hand, the depreciation of sterling since September 1931 has brought about a fall in the gold price of British coal and is therefore likely to stimulate British exports. Owing to the existence of long-term contracts, made before the suspension of the gold standard, this factor did not make itself fully felt before the end of 1931.

5. ORGANISATION

Great Britain. — Since the last meeting of the experts in September 1929, the outstanding development in the coal industry has been the British Coal Mines Act of 1930. This Act, the purpose of which was, *inter alia*, "to regulate and facilitate the production, supply and sale of coal by coal-owners" was passed on August 1st, 1930. A brief account of its history and scope is peculiarly relevant to the present enquiry.

The Labour Government, in deciding to reduce the maximum number of hours from 8 to 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ per day — the reduction is effective from December 1st, 1930, to July 8th, 1932 — realised that this reduction would involve an increase in the cost of production and that means would have to be found either to lower the cost of production or to increase the receipts from the sale of coal, or both.

Recognising that the root cause of the depression in the coal industry was the excess of productive capacity over demand, the Government undertook the general reorganisation of the coal industry. There was set up under the Act a *Reorganisation Commission* to assist and, if necessary, promote the preparation of schemes of amalgamation of colliery undertakings, where such amalgamations appeared to be in the national interest.

It was clear, however, that such a reorganisation would take some years and a more rapid method of improving the position of the industry in the meantime was essential, especially as the surplus capacity of the industry was causing such excessive competition as to result in the sale of much of the coal raised at unremunerative prices.

Voluntary schemes for the regulation of output and prices had been in operation in certain districts since 1928, but in the absence of any compulsory powers it was difficult to hold this loosely-knit organisation together. The existence of a minority of coal-owners who declined to co-operate prevented the full benefits from being achieved, and created considerable difficulty in operating the schemes at all.

Provision is made in the 1930 Act, therefore, for the compulsory regulation by the coal-owners of the output of coal in each district on a co-ordinated plan with sufficient elasticity to meet a sudden expansion of demand. This does not mean that output is to be restricted to a level below that which would be necessary to meet all reasonable demands; but it does mean the end of the haphazard arrangements previously operating under which each colliery strove to sell its maximum output, even at a loss — thus depreciating prices.

The Act also provides for the compulsory fixation by the coal-owners of minimum prices below which coal may not be sold.

The regulation of output has operated only since January 1st, 1931, but the arrangements for the co-ordination of minimum prices between district and district are not yet completed. It is therefore too early to bring the results into perspective, but the fact that the general level of coal-prices has been maintained during a period when the level of wholesale prices of other commodities showed a decline is no doubt to be attributed in some measure to the operation of the 1930 Act.

This Act, therefore, has enabled the British coal industry to make a determined effort to cope with the problem of its own surplus capacity. Moreover, by setting up a *Central Council of Coal-Owners*, which decides the permissible output in each district and co-ordinates the minimum prices, it has made possible negotiations for an international agreement with the coal-owners in other countries. There is a provision under the 1930 Act for the extension of the powers of the Central Council to enable it, without the requirement of a further Act of Parliament, to deal with such regulation of output or sale of coal as might be involved by an international agreement.

It is clear, however, that the regulation of output and the fixation of minimum prices in this country leaves the problem of the coal export trade unsolved. Exports during the first half of 1931 were 8.3 million tons lower than during the first half of 1930, and the quantity of coal available for consumption at home was 6.7 million tons lower. At the same time over 200,000 miners were wholly unemployed.

Germany. — The extension of the Rhenish-Westphalian Coal Syndicate until 1942 is an important measure of organisation taken by the German coal industry. This extension ensures for a long time to come the uniform regulation of sales in the most important German coal district.

Belgium. — In Belgium the tendency of coal-mining companies to amalgamate has continued. A recent merger took place between two collieries whose combined annual output exceeds 1,200,000 tons. This tendency is equally marked in regard to the organisation of sales, as shown by the setting up of the *Comptoir Belge de Charbons Industriels* and the establishment of joint commercial services for several collieries which are connected financially. Thus, the sales of a group of collieries whose combined output amounts to over 2,300,000 tons are controlled by a single head.

Netherlands. — Netherlands producers have come to certain arrangements with each other and with the selling organisations of neighbouring countries in regard to prices in the Netherlands market.

Czechoslovakia. — The organisation of sales has been supplemented by an agreement between the lignite producers' cartels in Northern Bohemia in regard to the mutual protection of their clientèle and participation in production.

6. COMMERCIAL POLICY.

As a result of the crisis a number of restrictive measures have been adopted with regard to Customs and commercial policy. The international trade in coal has been hampered still further by the introduction of import prohibitions, quotas, Customs duties or, during the last few months in particular, restrictions in the foreign exchange market ; we shall not, however, deal specially with this latter aspect of the question.

A. RATIONING OF IMPORTS.

Germany. — Germany has protected her coal industry for many years. No change has been made in the principles governing her coal policy with regard to importing countries. Imports of Polish coal have been prohibited since June 1925.

France. — Several countries have decided to restrict coal imports so as to safeguard their home industry. In July 1931, France imposed restrictions on foreign coal imports.

By a Decree of July 10th, imports into France of coal, coke and briquettes are subject, as an "exceptional and temporary measure", to previous authorisation by means of licences ; the importation of furnace coke and coal-dust for coke-works is not restricted.

France has pointed out that two-thirds of the sudden and considerable increase in French coal consumption in 1929 was covered by imports and one-third by fresh coal from the French and Saar mines and coal out of the latter's stocks — in inverse ratio to the proportion between French output and French consumption. During the year 1930, foreign imports as a whole were maintained at the same level as the previous year — a level justified by the exceptional requirements which had then to be met — and scarcely declined at all, although the capacity of absorption of the French home market had considerably decreased.

After taking less than a third share in the rapid increase in home consumption during its prosperous phase, the French coal industry had to bear the brunt of the internal crisis of under-consumption, which grew worse from month to month. It was obliged to sell at a loss and restrict output, while its stocks accumulated and unemployment increased. The economic and social equilibrium of the home coal industry, which places 95 per cent of its output within the country, was seriously threatened by the persistent excess of imports and the disturbed state of the market.

The French Government, which was concerned about the effects of unemployment on the position of miners, whose daily wage had been reduced by 5 per cent in March-April 1931, took action with a view to regulating by administrative measures the quantity of coal allowed to be imported to cover the country's reduced requirements.

Imports of any origin were uniformly restricted to 80 per cent of the 1928-29-30 average. The quantity authorised was thus about 24,000,000 tons — a figure comparable to the actual imports for 1928 on a consumption basis also reduced to the 1928 level or lower. As from December 1st, 1931, rationing was reduced to 72 per cent of the average imports of 1928-29-30.

Greater elasticity is given to the system by the permission to replace import licences for coal entering France by certificates of origin issued by the organisations representing foreign producers, within the limits of the authorised monthly quota. German, Belgian and Polish producers make use of these certificates of origin and distribute among themselves the total quota allotted to their countries.

The French Government has stated its intention of replacing as soon as possible the administrative regulations adopted as an emergency measure and tending to encourage the conclusion of private agreements between producers by permanent measures consistent with the general policy of understandings between producers, advocated by that Government before the League.

Belgium. — The measures adopted by France intensified the difficulties of the Belgian coal-mining industry. On October 10th, 1931, Belgium imposed similar restrictions on her coal imports. The importation of coal and briquettes is now subject to a permit granted by the Ministry of Industry. The quota fixed is 76 per cent of the 1930 figure, which has thus been reduced by 24 per cent.

By an agreement concluded between Germany and Belgium which remains in force until December 31st, 1931, Germany signified her willingness to reduce her coal exports to Belgium to 76 per cent of the monthly average for 1930, while Belgium undertook to reduce her output of coal by 2,500,000 tons as compared with 1930.

Hungary. — The import licence system was introduced in Hungary at the end of September 1931. Henceforward coal, lignite, briquettes and coke may only be imported by permission of the Minister of Commerce, who has appointed a Commissioner to control supplies of coal. This restriction of foreign coal imports is due to the position of the foreign exchange market in Hungary.

Czechoslovakia. — Czechoslovakia has fixed export and import quotas by agreement with neighbouring countries — i.e., Germany, Poland and Hungary.

Her old contract with Germany, which was in force until April 1st, 1931, was based on the following principle : Czechoslovakia could export to Germany each month 160,000 tons of lignite and 9,000 tons of coal, while Germany could export each month to Czechoslovakia 65,000 tons of coal and 18,000 tons of coke. As from April 1st, 1931, this agreement has been amended and monthly deliveries of coal by Germany to Czechoslovakia and *vice versa* may not exceed 115,000 tons in terms of coal.

The agreement regarding the import quota of Polish coal into Czechoslovakia has remained unchanged since April 23rd, 1925 ; the quantity allowed is 60,000 tons per month.

Hungary was allowed to export to Czechoslovakia 80,000 tons of lignite in 1927-28, 100,000 tons in 1928-29 and 120,000 tons in 1929-30. In connection with the negotiations relating to the new commercial treaty, Hungary is demanding an increase in this quota.

B. IMPORT DUTIES.

Quotas are not the only means of restricting coal imports. In many countries, Customs duties are levied on foreign coal and various charges are added to the import duties proper, making them very much higher.

Italy. — In Italy, by Decree-Law of September 24th, 1931, a special *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent was imposed on coal (including anthracite), coke and briquettes, apart from fuel for State railways and mercantile marine, which is admitted duty free. Up to that time, coal had been exempt from Customs duties ; coke, on the other hand, was already subject to a duty of 3 gold lire per ton, to which the *ad valorem* duty mentioned above has now been added.

By Decree-Law of May 4th 1931, coke intended for the manufacture of special steel and fine steel has been exempted from payment of import duties.

Roumania. — In Roumania, coal pays an import duty of 500 lei per ton, minimum rate. This minimum duty represents about 110 per cent of the selling price of Polish coal at the pit-head.

Yugoslavia. — In Yugoslavia, coal imported by land is subject to the following charges :

	Gold dinars
Customs duty (minimum) per ton	3
Customs charge for handling	3
State octroi duty	1

Coal imported by land pays in all 7 gold dinars, whereas sea-borne coal is only subject to a charge for handling of 0.5 gold dinar per ton.

Hungary. — In Hungary, foreign coal, which may be imported free of Customs duties, is subject to a number of charges :

Customs charge for handling, 4 per cent *ad valorem* of the goods imported ;
Turnover tax, 4 per cent *ad valorem* levied at the station of destination.

Fuel of Hungarian origin is only subject to a turnover tax amounting to 2 per cent. The town of Budapest also levies a charge of 1.08 pengö per ton.

The Hungarian Government has fixed the average value of the coal on which these charges are based at 40 pengő per ton at Budapest, which is the principal market for Polish coal.

In Hungary, 1 ton of Polish coal is thus subject to the following charges :

	Pengő
Customs charge for handling	1.60
Turnover tax	1.60
Octroi duty	1.08
Total	4.28

representing 17 per cent of the selling price of coal in Hungary.

Table VIII gives Customs import duties on coal, coke and briquettes.

C. OTHER MEASURES OF PROTECTION.

(a) In addition to adopting Customs measures, a large number of countries encourage the use of home-produced fuel, particularly by the public services, railways and steamship companies.

(b) With a product as heavy as coal, any increase in the exploitation of coalfields depends on the cost of transport.

Tariff facilities enable means of transport to be adapted to the economic needs of the national coal-mines. Home-produced coal is protected and equal competition with coal enjoying greater advantages is restored by means of special tariffs. The crisis has only served to increase, particularly during the last few months, the operation of these tariffs.

7. EFFORTS TO BRING ABOUT INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION.

1. The sale of coal at a loss in export markets has led to a movement in certain producing countries in favour of international co-operation. In September 1929, the Central Collieries Commercial Association, one of the voluntary organisations in existence before the passage of the Coal Mines Act, instituted negotiations on the subject with the Scandinavian Coal Importers' Federation, then with the Polish coal-owners and finally with the Rhenish-Westphalian Syndicate. Further conversations took place in January 1930 between this Association and the Polish owners, but as the Association was acting without either the approval of the Mining Association or the support of the other coal-exporting districts in the United Kingdom, the conversations only served the purpose of an interchange of views. The general consensus of opinion, however, was that international co-operation was desirable, but that it was impossible until the British coal-owners as a whole supported the movement and had some representative body to speak on their behalf. This mouthpiece was provided by the 1930 Act in the shape of the Central Council of British Coal-Owners.

In 1930, a delegation headed by Mr. Shinwell, the Labour Minister for Mines, was sent to the Scandinavian countries ; this delegation recommended in its report that the question of adjusting markets on a basis acceptable to the British coal trade should be further explored.

Finally, the Central Council of British Coal-Owners invited the coal-owners of Germany, Belgium, France, Poland, the Netherlands and Czechoslovakia to discuss in London on

September 30th, 1931, the possibility of concluding arrangements for regulating the sale and conditions of supply of coal so as to secure a more stable and more economic basis of operation for the coal-mining industry in the various countries.

2. The efforts towards international co-operation seem to have been made more difficult by England's abandonment of the gold standard and by the protective and competitive measures recently adopted by other countries.

3. Among the international agreements concluded in regard to coal, mention should be made of the Agreement signed on November 1st, 1930, between the Polish Coal Convention and the Gleiwitz Coal Syndicate of Upper Silesia. Its object is to regulate and allocate coal exports to Austrian and Hungarian markets. Under this Agreement, the participation of the Polish coal-mining industry in the total exports to these markets is fixed at 86.52 per cent and that of German Upper Silesia at 13.48 per cent (it has been stipulated that these figures will be modified after the entry into force of a commercial agreement between Germany and Poland).

TABLES ANNEXES

Tableau I. HOUILLE. — Table I. COAL.

Production en milliers de tonnes métriques. — Production in metric tons (000's omitted).

PAIS	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	* 1931	COUNTRY
AFRIQUE	11,994	12,645	13,264	14,168	13,874	14,064	14,421	13,532	11,800	AFRICA.
Algerie	4	9	10	14	21	17	16	17	26	Algeria.
Nigeria	178	224	243	330	364	365	350	353	...	Nigeria.
Rhodésie du Sud	560	592	689	874	909	1,095	1,037	939	587	Southern Rhodesia.
Union Sud-Afric.	11,252	11,820	12,322	12,950	12,580	12,607	13,018	12,233	10,881	Union of S. Africa.
AMÉRIQUE DU NORD . .	609,011	597,708	536,497	608,443	554,715	535,063	564,553	492,096	405,434	NORTH AMERICA.
Canada	12,164	9,139	8,628	11,687	12,341	12,439	12,273	10,367	8,463	Canada.
Etats-Unis ¹ . . .	596,847	518,564	527,869	596,756	542,374	522,623	552,310	481,729	397,021	United States ¹ .
AMÉRIQUE CENTRALE (Mexique)	1,262	1,227	1,444	1,309	1,081	1,022	1,060	1,072	...	CARIBBEAN. (Mexico).
AMÉRIQUE DU SUD* .	1,840	2,070	2,060	2,185	2,003	1,928	2,024	1,950	1,600	SOUTH AMERICA.*
Brésil	324	268	392	* 400	235	250	170	Brazil.
Chili	1,164	1,539	1,453	1,491	1,482	1,378	1,508	1,442	1,107	Chile.
Colombie*	100	100	100	100	100	...	Colombia.*
Pérou	253	155	102	170	162	178	221	Peru.
Venezuela	26	25	25	*24	*24	*24	*25	*20	...	Venezuela.
ASIE (s. l'U.R.S.S.)	78,666	83,441	83,981	83,310	88,250	90,618	* 91,400	* 87,000	77,000	ASIA (excl. U.S.S.R.).
Borneo brit.	102	129	101	93	80	80	73	61	...	British Borneo.
Chine (s. l. Mandchourie du Sud)	18,578	19,023	17,478	15,660	15,203	16,405	* 15,000	* 14,000	...	China (excl. South Manchuria).
Mandch. du Sud ²	5,903	6,689	6,943	7,505	9,218	8,836	9,268	South Manchuria. ²
Corée	380	399	622	683	710	816	938	834	...	Korea.
Etats malais féd.	323	379	415	472	470	568	672	575	...	Fed. Malay States.
Formose	1,445	1,506	1,705	1,795	1,800	1,544	1,530	Formosa.
Inde: Prov. brit.	19,116	20,596	20,309	20,435	21,478	21,907	22,721	23,128	20,750	India: Brit. prov.
Etats ind.	854	916	930	900	957	997	1,073	1,057	...	Indian States.
Indes néerland. ³	1,157	1,447	1,401	1,466	1,620	1,704	1,834	1,870	...	Dutch East Indies. ³
Indochine franç.	1,052	1,230	1,357	1,284	1,479	1,952	1,942	1,938	1,800	Fr. Indo-China.
Japon	28,949	30,111	31,459	31,427	33,531	33,860	34,258	31,376	25,705	Japan.
Philippines	43	48	49	29	23	28	Philippines.
Sakhaline (Jap.)	167	199	251	245	357	539	636	615	...	Sakhalin (Japan).
Turquie	597	769	953	1,216	1,324	1,251	1,421	1,505	1,570	Turkey.
U.R.S.S.	12,240	15,882	17,705	26,486	32,203	34,626	40,349	46,990	56,000	U.S.S.R.
Europe (sans l'U.R.S.S.)	* 475,100	* 533,985	* 520,310	481,934	* 572,770	* 559,520	604,266	* 559,180	505,200	EUROPE (excl. U.S.S.R.).
Allemagne	62,316	118,789	132,822	145,298	153,599	150,861	163,441	142,699	118,624	Germany.
Autriche	158	172	145	157	176	202	208	210	228	Austria.
Belgique	22,923	23,362	23,097	25,230	27,551	27,578	26,940	27,415	27,035	Belgium.
Bulgarie	63	70	57	64	69	70	79	71	66	Bulgaria.
Espagne	5,929	6,127	6,117	6,536	6,563	6,371	7,108	7,120	7,186	Spain.
France	37,679	44,019	47,097	51,392	51,792	51,365	53,780	53,884	50,023	France.
Hongrie	793	744	805	828	786	783	826	812	770	Hungary.
Irlande, Et. libre	80	87	Irish Free State.
Italie	174	127	189	209	169	128	223	231	236	Italy.
Pays-Bas	5,595	6,180	7,117	8,843	9,488	10,920	11,581	12,211	12,901	Netherlands.
Pologne	36,098	32,280	29,081	35,747	38,084	40,618	46,236	37,506	33,268	Poland.
Portugal	138	125	108	202	179	201	107	212	...	Portugal.
Roumanie	292	297	314	322	373	398	371	299	310	Romania.
Royaume-Uni	280,430	271,405	247,078	128,305	255,264	241,283	262,045	247,795	223,689	United Kingdom.
Sarre	9,192	14,032	12,990	13,681	13,596	13,107	13,579	13,236	11,307	Saar.
Spitzberg (E.) . .	341	450	413	290	296	279	240	100	...	Spitzbergen. (E.)
Suède	420	438	264	384	398	359	395	398	...	Sweden.
Tchécoslovaquie	12,347	15,179	12,559	14,177	14,016	14,560	16,521	14,435	13,243	Czechoslovakia.
Yougoslavie	135	132	178	191	289	354	409	366	428	Yugoslavia.
Océanie	13,669	15,080	14,907	14,718	15,061	13,417	11,042	* 11,080	...	OCEANIA.
Australie	12,718	13,978	13,845	13,488	13,740	12,030	10,532	* 9,650	...	Australia.
Nouv.-Calédonie	—	—	1	15	9	17	21	New Caledonia.
Nouvelle-Zélande	951	1,102	1,061	1,215	1,312	1,370	1,389	1,405	...	New Zealand.
MONDE ENTIER* . .	1,203,800	1,192,000	1,190,200	1,182,400	1,279,900	1,250,800	1,330,000	1,212,900	1,068,000	World.*

Sources: Statistiques nationales officielles. — National official statistics. Imperial Institute: *Statistical Summary*.

Note. — Ce tableau comprend l'anthracite, mais, sauf avis contraire, pas le lignite.

* Estimation ou chiffres provisoires.

(E.) Exportation.

¹ Etats-Unis, Indes néerlandaises: y compris une faible partie de lignite.

² Mandchourie du Sud: production des mines de la zone japonaise.

Note. — This table covers anthracite and bituminous coal but excludes lignite and brown coal, except when otherwise stated.

* Estimate or provisional figures.

(E.) Exports.

¹ United States, Dutch East Indies: including a small quantity of lignite.

² South Manchuria: output of mines in the Japanese zone.

Tableau II. LIGNITE.
Table II. LIGNITE.

Production en milliers de tonnes métriques. — Production in metric tons (000's omitted).

PAYS	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	*1931	COUPRES
AFRIQUE (Congo belge) . . .	61	81	66	80	86	97	116	*134	...	AFRICA. (Belgian Congo).
AMÉRIQUE DU NORD (Canada)	3,250	3,233	3,288	3,262	3,469	3,495	3,600	3,133	2,633	NORTH AMERICA. (Canada).
ASIE	322	361	200	371	468	453	ASIA.
Chine	166	180	124	205	282	316	China.
Indochine française	5	4	6	5	7	15	30	28	...	Fr. Indo-China.
Japon	151	177	160	161	179	122	139	129	...	Japan.
EUROPE	154,421	164,624	177,571	177,383	190,780	207,113	219,913	185,411	170,080	EUROPE.
Allemagne	118,785	124,637	139,725	139,151	150,504	165,588	174,456	146,010	133,222	Germany.
Autriche	2,685	2,786	3,033	2,958	3,064	3,263	3,525	3,063	2,982	Austria.
Bulgarie	1,013	1,155	1,166	1,142	1,168	1,361	1,573	1,522	1,437	Bulgaria.
Espagne	394	412	403	400	430	423	439	388	353	Spain.
France	877	963	993	1,061	1,083	1,075	1,197	1,143	1,040	France.
Grèce	119	131	142	153	143	121	156	130	...	Greece.
Hongrie	6,805	6,342	5,519	5,822	6,244	6,510	7,044	6,176	6,111	Hungary.
Italie	953	917	1,105	1,181	912	697	782	577	449	Italy.
Pays-Bas	54	191	208	211	201	197	157	144	163	Netherlands.
Pologne	171	89	60	76	78	74	74	55	39	Poland.
Portugal	16	8	17	31	26	26	29	34	...	Portugal.
Roumanie	2,220	2,479	2,615	2,731	2,850	2,630	2,675	2,071	1,647	Roumania.
Tchécoslovaquie . .	16,266	20,400	18,605	18,516	19,621	20,451	22,561	19,194	17,961	Czechoslovakia.
Yougoslavie	3,004	4,054	3,974	3,950	4,456	4,697	5,245	4,904	4,535	Yugoslavia.
Océanie	1,170	1,144	1,078	2,033	2,572	2,723	2,956	* 3,028	...	OCEANIA.
Australie	119	130	891	973	1,479	1,618	1,769	* 1,850	...	Australia.
Nouvelle-Zélande . .	1,051	1,014	1,087	1,060	1,093	1,105	1,187	1,178	...	New Zealand.
MONDE ENTIER . . .	150,320	160,440	183,300	183,140	197,380	213,880	* 227,040	* 192,150	176,000	WORLD.

Sources: Statistiques nationales officielles. — National official statistics. Imperial Institute: *Statistical Summary*.

Note. — Ce tableau se réfère au lignite et au « charbon brun ».

Note. — This table covers lignite and brown coal.

* Estimation ou chiffres provisoires.

* Estimate or provisional figures.

Tableau III. HOUILLE ET LIGNITE (équivalent en houille¹).
Table III. COAL AND LIGNITE (in terms of coal¹).

Production en milliers de tonnes métriques. Production in metric tons (000's omitted).

PAYS	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	* 1931	COUSTES
AFRIQUE	12,014	13,675	13,286	14,198	13,903	14,116	14,460	* 13,377	11,830	AFRICA.
Algérie	4	9	10	14	21	17	16	17	28	Algeria.
Congo belge	20	27	22	30	29	32	39	* 43	...	Belgian Congo.
Nigeria	178	224	243	330	364	365	350	353	...	Nigeria.
Rhodésie du Sud	560	592	689	874	909	1,095	1,037	930	587	South Rhodesia.
Union Sud Africaine	11,252	11,320	12,322	12,950	12,580	12,607	13,018	12,223	10,881	Union of South Africa.
AMÉRIQUE DU NORD	610,094	628,781	637,593	609,530	655,871	636,327	668,783	498,140	408,363	NORTH AMERICA.
Canada	13,247	10,217	9,724	12,774	13,497	13,604	13,473	11,411	9,341	Canada.
Etats-Unis	596,847	518,564	527,869	596,756	542,374	522,623	552,310	481,729	397,021	United States.
AMÉRIQUE CENTRALE (Mexique)	1,262	1,227	1,444	1,309	1,031	1,022	1,040	1,072	...	CARIBBEAN (Mexico).
AMÉRIQUE DU SUD*	1,840	2,070	2,060	2,185	2,003	1,928	2,024	1,930	1,600	SOUTH AMERICA*.
Brésil	324	268	392	* 400	235	250	170	Brazil.
Chili	1,164	1,539	1,453	1,491	1,482	1,376	1,508	1,442	1,107	Chile.
Colombie*	100	100	100	100	100	...	Colombia*.
Pérou	253	155	102	170	162	178	221	Peru.
Venezuela	26	25	25	* 24	* 24	* 24	* 25	* 20	...	Venezuela.
ASIE (sans l'U.R.S.S.)	78,774	83,561	84,081	83,334	88,406	90,766	* 91,450	* 97,000	77,000	ASIA. (excl. U.S.S.R.).
Borneo brit.	102	129	101	93	80	80	73	61	...	British Borneo.
Chine (sans la Mandch. Sud)	18,634	19,083	17,518	15,728	15,297	16,600	* 15,000	* 14,000	...	China (excl. S. Manchuria).
Mandch. du Sud ²	5,903	6,689	6,948	7,505	9,218	8,836	9,208	S. Manchuria ³ .
Corée	380	399	622	683	710	816	938	884	...	Korea.
Etats malais fédérés	323	379	415	472	470	566	672	575	...	Fed. Malay States.
Formose	1,445	1,506	1,705	1,795	1,800	1,584	1,530	Formosa.
Inde: Prov. brit.	19,116	20,596	20,309	20,435	21,478	21,907	22,721	23,128	20,750	India, Brit. prov.
Etats ind.	854	916	930	900	957	907	1,073	1,057	...	Ind. States.
Indes néerl.	1,157	1,447	1,401	1,466	1,620	1,704	1,834	1,870	...	Dutch East Ind.
Indochine fr.	1,054	1,231	1,359	1,286	1,481	1,957	1,952	1,947	1,800	Fr. Indo-China.
Japon	28,999	30,170	31,515	31,481	33,591	33,901	34,304	31,410	23,835	Japan.
Philippines	43	48	49	29	23	28	Philippines.
Sakhaline (Jap.)	167	199	251	245	357	539	636	645	...	Sakhalin (Jap.).
Turquie	597	769	958	1,216	1,324	1,251	1,421	1,595	1,570	Turkey.
U. R. S. S.	12,240	15,892	17,705	26,436	32,202	34,626	40,340	46,000	56,000	U. S. S. R.
EUROPE (sans l'U.R.S.S.)	* 518,240	* 580,985	* 569,525	481,104	* 625,480	* 616,375	664,912	* 610,500	552,500	EUROPE. (excl. U.S.S.R.).
Allemagne	88,713	146,466	163,672	176,218	187,044	187,658	202,209	175,145	148,228	Germany.
Autriche	1,769	1,844	1,965	1,932	2,014	2,160	2,323	2,054	2,017	Austria.
Belgique	22,923	23,362	23,097	25,230	27,551	27,578	26,940	27,415	27,035	Belgium.
Bulgarie	400	455	446	445	459	523	603	578	600	Bulgaria.
Espagne	6,126	6,333	6,318	6,736	6,778	6,582	7,328	7,914	7,363	Spain.
France	37,971	44,340	47,428	51,746	52,153	51,723	54,179	54,265	50,360	France.
Grèce	59	66	71	77	72	60	78	85	...	Greece.
Hongrie	3,091	2,858	2,645	2,769	2,867	2,953	3,174	2,870	2,813	Hungary.
Irlande, Et. libre	89	87	Irish Free State.
Italie	412	357	465	505	397	302	410	375	318	Italy.
Pays-Bas	5,613	6,244	7,186	8,913	9,555	10,986	11,633	12,250	12,955	Netherlands.
Pologne	36,155	32,310	29,103	35,772	38,110	40,641	46,261	37,518	38,277	Poland.
Portugal	143	128	114	212	188	210	207	224	...	Portugal.
Roumanie	1,035	1,123	1,186	1,232	1,323	1,275	1,263	989	859	Roumania.
Royaume-Uni	280,430	271,405	247,078	128,305	255,264	241,283	262,045	247,705	223,689	Unit. Kingdom.
Sarre	9,192	14,032	12,990	13,681	13,596	13,107	13,579	13,236	11,367	Saar.
Spitzberg (E.)	341	450	413	290	296	279	240	196	...	Spitzbergen (E.).
Suède	420	438	264	384	398	359	395	398	...	Sweden.
Tchécoslovaquie	21,915	27,214	23,503	25,069	25,558	26,590	29,792	25,725	23,808	Czechoslovakia.
Yougoslavie	1,456	1,483	1,503	1,508	1,774	1,920	2,157	2,001	1,940	Yugoslavia.
Océanie	14,059	16,461	18,566	18,395	18,918	14,324	12,928	* 12,000	...	OCEANIA.
Australie	12,758	14,021	14,142	13,812	14,233	12,569	11,122	* 10,267	...	Australia.
Nouv.-Calédonie	1	15	9	17	21	New Caledonia.
Nouv.-Zélande	1,301	1,440	1,423	1,568	1,676	1,738	1,785	1,708	...	New Zealand.
MONDE ENTIER*	1,248,500	1,240,800	1,241,300	1,233,500	1,334,800	1,309,300	1,393,000	1,260,300	1,117,500	WORLD.*

SOURCES: Voir tableau 56. — See table 56.

* Estimation ou chiffre provisoire.

(E.) Exports.

¹ Lignite calculé en équivalent de houille selon le taux de 2 : 9 pour l'Allemagne et la Pologne, 3 : 5 pour l'Autriche, 1 : 2 pour l'Espagne et la Grèce, 1 : 4 pour l'Italie, 10 : 17 pour la Tchécoslovaquie et 1 : 3 pour les autres pays.

² Mandchourie du Sud : la production des mines de la zone japonaise.

* Estimate or provisional figure.

(E.) Exports.

¹ Lignite converted into terms of coal at the rate of 3 : 5 for Austria, 10 : 17 for Czechoslovakia, 2 : 9 for Germany and Poland, 1 : 4 for Italy, 1 : 2 for Spain and Greece, and 1 : 3 for the other countries.

² South Manchuria : output of mines in the Japanese zone.

Tableau IV. COKE. — Table IV. COKE.

Production en milliers de tonnes métriques. — Production in metric tons (000's omitted).

PAYS	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	* 1931	COUNTRY
AFRIQUE.										
Algérie ¹ (G.)	52	50	48	55	61	...	Algeria ¹ (G.).
Rhodésie du Sud	123	137	138	153	147	140	100	77	...	Southern Rhodesia.
Union Sud-Africaine.										Union of S. Africa.
Cokeries	54	68	68	80	98	94	99	89	...	Coke ovens.
Usines à gaz a)	53	68	68	70	71	84	89	86	...	Gasworks a).
AMÉRIQUE DU NORD.										
Canada ² .										Canada ² .
Cokeries	1,061	894	979	1,412	1,436	1,797	2,152	1,871	1,370	Coke ovens.
Usines à gaz	452	410	424	427	403	303	277	293	295	Gasworks.
Etats-Unis ³ .										United States ³ .
Cokeries	51,689	40,161	46,509	51,588	46,350	47,905	54,326	43,519	30,598	Coke ovens.
Usines à gaz	2,522	.	2,637	.	2,581	Gasworks.
AMÉRIQUE DU SUD.										
Chili (G.)	56	56	75	.	53	50	51	49	...	Chile (G.).
Pérou (C.)	46	20	.	24	14	20	Peru (C.).
ASIE.										
Chine (sans la Mandchourie du Sud) (E.).	30	28	19	15	13	14	13	11	8	China (excl. S. Manchuria) (E.).
Mandchourie du Sud ⁴ .	148	232	194	283	318	344	338	South Manchuria ⁴ .
Corée	101	106	108	119	130	Korea.
Etats malais fédérés	—	—	—	—	—	14	16	14	...	Fed. Malay States.
Inde britannique ⁵ .										India ⁵ .
Coke dur	84	62	56	30	43	57	74	66	...	Hard coke.
Coke mou.	224	310	423	524	618	700	770	762	...	Soft coke.
Japon.										Japan.
Cokeries	658	832	849	1,035	1,086	1,238	Coke ovens.
Usines à gaz b)	477	445	510	594	706	807	Gasworks b).
U. R. S. S.	c) 360	c) 724	c) 1,350	c) 2,701	c) 3,416	4,184	4,077	6,158	6,800	U. S. S. R.
EUROPE.										
Allemagne.										Germany.
Cokeries	14,071	24,885	28,397	27,207	33,243	34,775	39,421	32,700	22,700	Coke ovens.
Usines à gaz	4,419	4,300	4,505	4,498	b) 4,632	b) 4,603	b) 4,888	b) 4,726	...	Gasworks.
Autriche (G.)	451	477	476	530	576	629	569	...	Austria (G.).
Belgique (C.)	4,180	4,217	4,112	4,017	5,097	6,112	5,952	5,286	4,931	Belgium (C.).
Espagne.										Spain.
Cokeries	744	848	878	832	714	681	768	676	572	Coke ovens.
Usines à gaz ⁶	161	204	216	233	...	Gasworks ⁶ .
Danemark (G.)	256	Denmark (G.).
Finlande (G.)	24	26	29	32	39	45	Finland (G.).
France.										France.
Cokeries	4,237	5,415	6,016	6,908	7,118	7,957	9,080	8,271	7,940	Coke ovens.
Usines à gaz ⁷	2,472	2,451	2,471	2,456	2,945	2,279	2,364	2,265	2,140	Gasworks ⁷ .
Hongrie (G.)	135	141	167	160	...	Hungary (G.).
Irlande, Etat libre (G.)	32	.	.	103	Irish Free State (G.).
Italie (C.)	275	310	512	592	578	636	792	813	...	Italy (C.).
Norvège (G.)	73	72	68	Norway (G.).
Pays-Bas.										Netherlands.
Cokeries	672	976	1,144	1,199	1,479	1,573	2,403	2,599	1,962	Coke ovens.
Usines à gaz ⁸	700	750	800	800	850	850	800	700	...	Gasworks ⁸ .

Tableau IV. Coke (suite). — Table IV. Coke (continued).

Production en milliers de tonnes métriques. — Production in metric tons (000's omitted).

PAYS	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	* 1931	COUNTRY
EUROPE (suite).										
Pologne (C.)	1,376	950	964	1,113	1,402	1,668	1,858	1,584	1,355	EUROPE (continued).
Royaume-Uni ^a .										Poland (C.).
Cokeries	13,634	12,958	11,185	4,790	12,027	12,035	13,637	11,690	...	United Kingdom ^a .
Usines à gaz	11,693	12,280	12,023	11,784	12,562	12,412	12,610	12,514	...	Coke ovens.
Sarre (C.)	1,268	1,763	1,948	2,106	2,217	2,373	2,423	2,560	1,941	Gasworks.
Suède.										Saar (C.).
Cokeries	114	79	77	113	116	105	104	888	...	Sweden.
Usines à gaz	177	186	188	209	224	253	284	Coke ovens.
Suisse ^b (G.)	262	273	296	310	333	347	382	365	...	Gasworks.
Tchécoslovaquie ¹⁰ (C.) .	1,810	2,218	2,009	1,957	2,423	2,816	3,163	2,712	2,044	Switzerland ^b (G.).
										Czechoslovakia ¹⁰ (C.).
Océanie.										
Australie a).										OCEANIA.
Cokeries	377	544	677	583	691	596	579	* 408	...	Australia a).
Usines à gaz	746	779	808	831	846	871	864	834	...	Coke ovens.
Nouv.-Zélande ¹¹ b) (G.) .	81	82	81	80	73	79	73	Gasworks.
										New Zealand ¹¹ b) (G.).

SOURCES : Statistiques nationales officielles — National (official) statistics. Imperial Institute. *Statistical Summary*. Reichskohlenrat : *Statistische Übersicht*.

Note. — Autant que possible, il est établi, dans le tableau, une distinction entre le coke provenant des fours à coke (à ruche ou avec récupération de sous-produits) et le coke provenant des cornues comme sous-produits de l'industrie du gaz. Le premier est employé principalement dans la métallurgie, mais peut être aussi préparé pour l'usage domestique ; le second, dont la qualité ne permet pas l'emploi dans les fonderies ou hauts fourneaux, est surtout employé comme combustible domestique. Cependant, les fours avec récupération de sous-produits ont été adaptés, notamment aux Etats-Unis, aux besoins de l'industrie du gaz, et le coke produit par des fours de cette espèce installés dans les usines à gaz est de même nature que le coke des fours à coke ou coke métallurgique. — Le coke de pétrole, dernier résidu du raffinage, dans certaines conditions, du pétrole brut, n'est pas compris dans le tableau.

* Estimation ou chiffre provisoire. (E.) Exportations. (C.) Cokeries. (G.) Usines à gaz.

a) Année finissant le 30.VI. b) Douze mois finissant le 31.III de l'année suivante. c) Année finissant le 30.IX.

¹ Algérie : la quantité de coke disponible pour la vente a été pour les années 1923 à 1926 respectivement de 39, 39, 35, 35 millions de tonnes.

² Canada : la production de coke de pétrole est s'élevée en 1929 à 76.302 tonnes métriques.

³ Etats-Unis : le coke provenant des fours avec récupération de sous-produits installés dans les usines à gaz est compris sous la rubrique : « cokeries », et déduit des chiffres des recensements bisannuels relatifs à la production du coke par les usines à gaz. La production de coke de pétrole en 1928 a été de 1.294.000 tonnes métriques.

⁴ Mandchourie du Sud : production des installations japonaises.

⁵ Inde : coke mou, ne pouvant pas servir pour la métallurgie.

⁶ Espagne : usines à gaz : chiffres incomplets.

⁷ France : usines à gaz : coke disponible pour la vente.

⁸ Royaume-Uni : fours à coke : les chiffres antérieurs à 1929 peuvent inclure de petites quantités de braise de coke. — Usines à gaz : coke et braise de coke.

⁹ Suisse : coke et grésillon.

¹⁰ Tchécoslovaquie : non compris le coke tiré du lignite, dont la production s'est élevée à 7,435 tonnes en 1929 et 2,338 tonnes en 1930.

¹¹ Nouvelle-Zélande : coke vendu.

Note. — The table distinguishes, as far as possible, between coke made in coke ovens (beehive or by-product) and coke made in retorts as a by-product of the manufactured gas industry. The former is used mainly for metallurgical purposes, but may also be prepared for domestic uses, while the latter, being unsuitable, on account of its quality, for foundry or furnace use, is largely employed as a domestic fuel. However, by-product ovens have been adapted, especially in the United States, to the needs of the manufactured gas industry, and the coke produced by such ovens installed in gas plants is of the same nature as coke oven or metallurgical coke. — Petroleum coke, the ultimate residue left when crude oil is refined under certain conditions, is excluded from the table.

* Estimate or provisional figure. (E.) Exports. (C.) Coke ovens. (G.) Gasworks.

a) Year ending 30. VI. b) Twelve months ending 30. III. of following year. c) Year ending 30. IX.

¹ Algeria : the amount of coke available for sale in the years 1923 to 1926 was (metric tons, 000's) 39, 39, 35, 35, respectively.

² Canada : the production of petroleum coke amounted in 1929 to 76,302 metric tons.

³ United States : the output from by-product coke ovens installed in manufactured gas plants is grouped under coke ovens and deducted from the biennial census figures for the output of coke by the manufactured gas industry. The output of petroleum coke in 1928 was 1,294,000 metric tons.

⁴ South Manchuria : output of Japanese plants.

⁵ India : soft coke, unsuitable for metallurgical purposes.

⁶ Spain : gasworks : incomplete figures.

⁷ France : gasworks : coke available for sale.

⁸ United Kingdom : coke ovens ; prior to 1929 it is possible that small quantities of coke breeze were included. — Gasworks : coke and breeze.

⁹ Switzerland : coke and breeze.

¹⁰ Czechoslovakia : excluding coke made from lignite, which amounted to 7,435 metric tons in 1929 and 2,338 metric tons in 1930.

¹¹ New Zealand : coke sold.

Tableau V. — CONSOMMATION DE CHARBON (HOUILLE ET L'ÉQUIVALENT EN HOUILLE DU LIGNITE, DU COKE ET DES AGGLOMÉRÉS).

Table V. — CONSUMPTION OF COAL (INCLUDING COKE, LIGNITE AND BRIQUETTES IN TERMS OF COAL).

Pays	Consommation en millions de tonnes métriques Consumption in metric tons (000,000's omitted)							a) Importations nettes en % de la consommation Net imports as % of consumption							Country
								b) Exportations nettes en % de la production, indiquées par + + Net exports as % of production, shown as + +							
	1926	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	*1931	1926	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	*1931	
AFRIQUE :															
Union Sud-Africaine	11	11	11	11	11	11	10	+ 12.9	+ 16.6	+ 13.0	+ 11.9	+ 12.6	+ 10.7	+ 9.1	AFRICA : Union of South Africa.
AMÉRIQUE DU NORD :															
Canada	25	28	30	29	30	29	21	60.8	54.4	54.7	53.2	55.4	60.4	56.3	NORTH AMERICA : Canada.
Etats-Unis	505	554	519	501	530	462	382	+ 4.4	+ 7.1	+ 4.4	+ 4.1	+ 4.1	+ 4.1	+ 3.7	United States.
AMÉRIQUE DU SUD :															
Argentine	8.2	2.9	3.5	3.2	3.2	3.1	...	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	...	SOUTH AMERICA : Argentine.
Brsil	2.8	2.3	2.5	2.4	2.5	*2.2	...	83.2	82.9	90.4	89.8	93.2	*90.3	...	Brazil.
Chili	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.4	...	16.9	7.9	3.3	5.4	3.9	+ 1.9	...	Chile.
ASIE :															
Chine (sans la Mandchourie du Sud) . .	17	16	14	15	*13	*13	...	+ 1.2	+ 0.7	+ 11.0	+ 9.0	+ *12.6	+ *7.6	...	ASIA : China (excl. S. Manchuria).
Inde (brit.)	21	21	22	22	23	24	21	1.1	+ 2.2	+ 1.7	+ 2.0	+ 2.3	+ 1.2	+ 1.7	Brit. India.
Japon	31	31	34	35	36	32	27	+ 3.0	+ 1.8	1.5	1.7	3.4	1.8	4.3	Japan.
U. R. S. S. a)	10	26	32	34	39	45	...	+ 1.0	1.2	1.5	+ 1.3	+ 2.7	+ 3.7	...	U. S. S. R. a)
EUROPE :															
Allemagne	138	125	153	159	169	147	123	+ 16.0	+ 23.3	+ 17.4	+ 14.6	+ 16.8	+ 16.6	+ 16.9	EUROPE : Germany.
Autriche	7	7	7	8	9	7	6	72.3	71.4	72.8	72.3	73.9	69.7	69.0	Austria.
Belgique et Luxembourg . .	31	31	30	35	38	36	32	25.2	18.3	23.6	20.2	28.3	23.3	15.9	Belgium and Luxembourg.
Danemark	4.2	4.1	5.2	4.8	5.8	5.2	...	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	...	Denmark.
Espagne	8	8	9	8	9	9	9	20.3	11.4	25.5	22.3	22.3	19.2	14.5	Spain.
Finlande	0.6	0.6	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	Finland.
France et Sarre . .	81	84	87	85	94	95	87	25.7	22.3	24.4	23.7	27.9	28.9	28.7	France and Saar.
Hongrie	3.5	3.6	4.8	4.6	5.0	4.0	3.5	24.0	23.2	33.3	35.7	36.4	28.6	19.5	Hungary.
Italie	11	13	14	13	15	13	12	95.7	96.0	97.2	97.7	97.3	97.2	97.0	Italy.
Lettonie	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.7	...	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100	...	Latvia.
Norvège	2.4	2.0	2.7	2.6	3.0	2.7	2.4	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	Norway.
Pays-Bas	11	11	12	13	14	13	13	35.1	20.1	22.5	14.6	15.8	8.8	0.9	Netherlands.
Pologne	21	21	27	28	33	25	24	+ 23.1	+ 40.1	+ 23.8	+ 30.7	+ 29.7	+ 33.4	+ 36.6	Poland.
Royaume-Uni	175	120	185	189	179	172	161	+ 22.3	+ 6.8	+ 27.6	+ 30.0	+ 31.7	+ 30.7	+ 27.8	United Kingdom.
Suède	5	5	7	6	7	7	...	94.4	91.9	93.9	93.9	94.4	94.1	...	Sweden.
Suisse	2.7	2.6	2.9	3.0	3.4	3.1	3.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	Switzerland.
Tchécoslovaquie . .	22	22	23	25	28	24	23	+ 7.8	+ 13.9	+ 10.4	+ 6.5	+ 6.8	+ 6.7	+ 5.1	Czechoslovakia.
Océanie :															
Australie ¹	13	13	13	12	11	*11	...	+ 7.0	+ 5.4	+ 6.8	+ 4.3	+ 2.2	*5.1	...	OCEANIA : Australia. ¹
Nouvelle-Zélande . .	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.8	...	23.7	16.3	7.6	6.7	0.7	2.4	...	New Zealand.

NOTE. — La consommation a été calculée d'après la production de charbon et de lignite et le commerce extérieur du charbon, du coke, des briquettes et du lignite. Comme, dans plusieurs pays, les stocks ont été réduits durant le conflit charbonnier anglais de 1926 et reconstitués dans l'année suivante, les chiffres du tableau relatifs à la consommation en 1926 sont probablement au-dessous de la consommation véritable et en 1927 probablement au-dessus. De même, des stocks importants ayant été accumulés en 1930 et 1931, les chiffres données pour ces années dépassent la consommation réelle.

Pour les coefficients utilisés en vue de la conversion du lignite en termes de charbon, voir tableau 53. Le coke a été converti au taux de 133 $\frac{1}{4}$: 100.

a) Année finissant le 30.IX.

¹ Australie : les pourcentages sont approximatifs, vu que les statistiques du commerce se réfèrent aux années fiscales.

NOTE. — The consumption has been calculated from the production of coal and lignite and the foreign trade in coal, coke, briquettes and lignite. As in a number of countries stocks were reduced during the British coal stoppage in 1926 and replenished in the following year, the consumption figures for 1926 are in some cases believed to understate, and the corresponding 1927 figures to overstate, actual consumption. Similarly, as large stocks have been accumulated in 1930 and 1931, the figures for these years overstate actual consumption.

For coefficients used in converting lignite into terms of coal, see table 53. Coke has been converted into terms of coal at the rate of 133 $\frac{1}{4}$: 100.

a) Year ending 30.IX.

¹ Australia : the percentages are approximate because of the trade statistics which refer to fiscal years.

Tableau VI. — COMMERCE INTERNATIONAL DU CHARBON
(houille et l'équivalent en houille du lignite, du coke et des agglomérés).

Table VI. — INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN COAL
(including lignite, coke and briquettes, in terms of coal).

Milliers de tonnes métriques. — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	Année Year	Importations Imports	Exportations Exports	Balances + or —	Country		
AFRIQUE :							
Union Sud-Africaine ¹ . . .	1924	2	1,743	— 1,741	AFRICA : Union of South Africa ¹ .		
	1925	7	1,595	— 1,588			
	1926	3	2,136	— 2,133			
	1927	—	1,637	— 1,637			
	1928	—	1,495	— 1,495			
	1929	—	1,676	— 1,676			
	1930	—	1,304	— 1,304			
	1931	—	970	— 970			
AMÉRIQUE DU NORD :							
Canada	1924	15,753	750	+ 15,003	NORTH AMERICA : Canada.		
	1925	15,852	767	+ 15,085			
	1926	16,229	993	+ 15,236			
	1927	17,434	1,095	+ 16,339			
	1928	16,263	807	+ 15,456			
	1929	17,570	809	+ 16,761			
	1930	17,983	614	+ 17,369			
	1931	12,423	357	+ 12,066			
Etats-Unis	1924	586	24,001	— 23,415	United States.		
	1925	1,137	24,292	— 23,155			
	1926	1,565	43,863	— 42,298			
	1927	811	24,473	— 23,662			
	1928	1,023	22,334	— 21,311			
	1929	1,036	23,793	— 22,757			
	1930	991	20,714	— 19,723			
	1931	713	15,241	— 14,528			
AMÉRIQUE DU SUD :							
Argentine	1924	3,331	—	+ 3,331	SOUTH AMERICA : Argentine.		
	1925	3,189	—	+ 3,189			
	1926	2,853	—	+ 2,853			
	1927	3,538	—	+ 3,538			
	1928	3,176	—	+ 3,176			
	1929	3,190	—	+ 3,190			
Brésil	1924	3,103	—	+ 3,103	Brazil.		
	1925	1,761	—	+ 1,761			
	1926	1,935	—	+ 1,935			
	1927	1,946	—	+ 1,946			
	1928	2,222	—	+ 2,222			
	1929	2,192	—	+ 2,192			
Chili	1924	2,335	—	+ 2,335	Chile.		
	1925	1,942	—	+ 1,942			
	1926	314	5	+ 309			
	1927	300	5	+ 295			
	1928	70	19	+ 51			
	1929	93	14	+ 79			
ASIE :	1929	80	18	+ 62	ASIA :		
	1930	24	52	— 28			
	Chine	1924	1,744	3,290		— 1,546	China.
		1925	2,865	3,078		— 211	
		1926	3,048	3,153		— 105	
		1927	2,420	4,096		— 1,676	
1928		2,474	3,968	— 1,492			
1929		2,324	4,207	— 1,883			
1930		2,516	3,575	— 1,059			
1931		1,894	3,551	— 1,657			
Inde	1924	483	210	+ 273	India.		
	1925	502	220	+ 282			
	1926	203	628	— 425			
	1927	250	586	— 336			
	1928	221	638	— 417			
	1929	227	739	— 512			
	1930	227	469	— 242			
	1931	93	449	— 356			
Japon	1924	2,038	1,739	+ 299	Japan.		
	1925	1,778	2,738	— 960			
	1926	2,053	2,632	— 579			
	1927	2,709	2,208	+ 501			
	1928	2,786	2,185	+ 601			
	1929	3,262	2,044	+ 1,218			
	1930	2,695	2,131	+ 564			
	1931	2,697	1,540	+ 1,157			

Tableau VI. — COMMERCE INTERNATIONAL DU CHARBON
(houille et l'équivalent en houille du lignite, du coke et des agglomérés) (suite).

Table VI. — INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN COAL
(including lignite, coke and briquettes, in terms of coal) (continued).

Milliers de tonnes métriques. — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	Année Year	Importations Imports	Exportations Exports	Balance + ou —	Country
EUROPE :					
Allemagne ¹	1924	15,070	26,799	— 11,729	Germany ¹ .
	1925	9,178	33,687	— 24,509	
	1926	4,194	54,098	— 49,904	
	1927	7,127	39,724	— 32,597	
	1928	9,489	36,801	— 27,312	
	1929	10,235	42,195	— 31,960	
	1930	8,890	36,292	— 27,402	
	1931	7,817	32,918	— 25,101	
	Autriche	1924	5,515	42	
1925		5,206	68	+ 5,138	
1926		5,060	227	+ 4,833	
1927		5,586	205	+ 5,381	
1928		5,718	92	+ 5,626	
1929		6,632	49	+ 6,583	
1930		4,792	70	+ 4,722	
1931		4,554	73	+ 4,481	
Belgique ²		1924	12,622	3,812	+ 8,810
	1925	12,039	4,277	+ 7,762	
	1926	11,235	5,589	+ 5,646	
	1927	13,290	4,774	+ 8,516	
	1928	12,760	5,790	+ 6,970	
	1929	16,150	5,512	+ 10,638	
	1930	14,460	5,732	+ 8,728	
	1931	12,684	7,558	+ 5,126	
	Espagne	1924	1,567	34	+ 1,533
1925		1,619	9	+ 1,610	
1926		1,028	162	+ 866	
1927		2,385	13	+ 2,372	
1928		1,946	56	+ 1,890	
1929		2,167	67	+ 2,100	
1930		1,757	18	+ 1,739	
1931		1,249	—	+ 1,249	
France ³		1924	28,185	2,752	+ 25,433
	1925	26,229	5,242	+ 20,987	
	1926	23,936	4,921	+ 19,015	
	1927	26,328	5,002	+ 21,326	
	1928	25,829	5,661	+ 20,168	
	1929	32,235	6,053	+ 26,182	
	1930	32,234	4,775	+ 27,459	
	1931	20,187	4,299	+ 15,888	
	Hongrie	1924	1,112	234	+ 878
1925		1,204	370	+ 834	
1926		1,285	450	+ 835	
1927		1,628	197	+ 1,431	
1928		1,799	160	+ 1,639	
1929		2,031	214	+ 1,817	
1930		1,351	200	+ 1,151	
1931		942	261	+ 681	
Italie		1924	11,170	191	+ 10,979
	1925	10,517	182	+ 10,335	
	1926	12,258	212	+ 12,046	
	1927	14,059	200	+ 13,859	
	1928	12,916	33	+ 12,883	
	1929	14,962	48	+ 14,914	
	1930	13,145	46	+ 13,099	
	1931	11,335	52	+ 11,283	
	Norvège ⁴	1925	2,375	—	+ 2,375
1926		1,971	—	+ 1,971	
1927		2,678	—	+ 2,678	
1928		2,607	—	+ 2,607	
1929		2,975	—	+ 2,975	
1930		2,736	—	+ 2,736	
Pays-Bas	1924	7,772	3,522	+ 4,250	Netherlands.
	1925	9,026	5,145	+ 3,881	
	1926	10,869	8,624	+ 2,245	
	1927	9,599	6,818	+ 2,781	
	1928	9,533	7,660	+ 1,873	
	1929	10,481	8,293	+ 2,188	
	1930	9,866	8,688	+ 1,178	
	1931	9,363	9,250	+ 113	

Tableau VI. — COMMERCE INTERNATIONAL DU CHARBON
(houille et l'équivalent en houille du lignite, du coke et des agglomérés) (fin).

Table VI. — INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN COAL
(including lignite, coke and briquettes, in terms of coal) (concluded).

Milliers de tonnes métriques. — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	Année Year	Importations Imports	Exportations Exports	Balances + or -	Country		
EUROPE (suite) :					EUROPE (continued) :		
Pologne ¹	1924	386	11,417	- 11,031	Poland ¹ .		
	1925	243	8,422	- 8,179			
	1926	143	14,478	- 14,335			
	1927	293	11,266	- 10,973			
	1928	308	12,775	- 12,467			
	1929	393	14,121	- 13,728			
	1930	203	12,729	- 12,526			
	1931	153	14,151	- 13,998			
	Royaume-Uni	1924	9	85,508		- 85,499	United Kingdom.
		1925	15	72,374		- 72,359	
1926		21,812	30,301	- 8,689			
1927		2,551	72,890	- 70,339			
1928		33	72,411	- 72,378			
1929		23	83,068	- 83,045			
1930		19	75,977	- 75,958			
1931		23	62,299	- 62,276			
Suède	1924	4,967	-	+ 4,967	Sweden.		
	1925	4,448	-	+ 4,448			
	1926	4,347	4	+ 4,343			
	1927	6,180	-	+ 6,180			
	1928	5,568	1	+ 5,567			
	1929	6,698	3	+ 6,695			
	1930	6,367	2	+ 6,365			
	1931	6,463	-	+ 6,463			
Suisse	1924	2,711	1	+ 2,710	Switzerland.		
	1925	2,672	1	+ 2,671			
	1926	2,827	1	+ 2,826			
	1927	2,943	1	+ 2,942			
	1928	2,992	3	+ 2,989			
	1929	3,422	-	+ 3,422			
	1930	3,125	1	+ 3,124			
	1931	3,277	2	+ 3,275			
Tchécoslovaquie	1924	1,105	4,098	- 2,993	Czechoslovakia.		
	1925	1,805	3,635	- 1,830			
	1926	1,763	5,242	- 3,479			
	1927	2,060	4,707	- 2,647			
	1928	2,846	4,562	- 1,716			
	1929	2,889	4,929	- 2,040			
	1930	2,217	3,935	- 1,718			
	1931	2,190	3,393	- 1,203			
	U. R. S. S. ⁴	1925	63	324		- 261	U.S.S.R. ⁴ .
		1925/26	306	-		-	
1926/27		472	-	-			
1927/28		61	503	- 442			
1928/29		53	1,150	- 1,097			
1929/30		69	1,799	- 1,730			
Océanie :					OCEANIA :		
Australie	1924/25	45	1,041	- 996	Australia.		
	1925/26	103	853	- 750			
	1926/27	49	877	- 828			
	1927/28	73	610	- 537			
	1928/29	131	376	- 245			
	1929/30	851	302	+ 549			
	1930/31	56	385	- 339			

¹ Union Sud-Africaine, Pologne : non compris charbon de soufre.

² Allemagne, Belgique, France : y compris livraisons des réparations.

³ Union économique belgo-luxembourgeoise.

⁴ France : la Sarre est comprise dans le territoire douanier français.

⁵ Norvège : houille, coke et cinders.

⁶ U.R.S.S. : Frontières d'Europe seulement.

¹ Union of S. Africa, Poland : excluding bunker coal.

² Germany, Belgium, France : including reparations deliveries.

³ Belgo-Luxemburg Economic Union.

⁴ France : The Saar is included in the French Customs territory.

⁵ Norway : coal, coke and cinders.

⁶ U.S.S.R. : European frontiers only.

Tableau VII. — COMMERCE INTERNATIONAL DE HOUILLE, COKE, AGGLOMÉRÉS ET LIGNITE, 1925-1930.

Table VII. — INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN COAL, COKE, BRIQUETTES AND LIGNITE, 1925-1930.

Milliers de tonnes métriques. — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	Countries
AFRIQUE						AFRICA
Union Sud-Africaine						Union of South Africa
HOUILLE						COAL
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	—	—	—	—	—	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations à :</i>						<i>Exports to :</i>
Aden	187	145	171	58	...	Aden.
Ceylan	258	247	259	171	...	Ceylon.
Etablissements du Détroit	219	284	218	155	...	Straits Settlements.
Egypte	6	—	—	—	...	Egypte.
Inde	209	175	209	175	...	India.
Poss. portugaises en Afrique	55	58	91	92	...	Portuguese Africa.
Autres pays	703	586	714	724	...	Other countries.
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	1,637	1,495	1,662	1,275	952	<i>Total Exports.</i>
<i> Coke</i>			10	22	14	<i> Coke.</i>
AMÉRIQUE DU NORD						NORTH AMERICA
Etats-Unis d'Amérique						United States of America
HOUILLE ET ANTHRACITE						COAL AND ANTHRACITE
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>
Royaume-Uni	127	369	340	418	...	United Kingdom.
Canada	455	424	417	221	...	Canada.
Australie	4	2	5	—	...	Australia.
Japon	17	23	7	—	...	Japan.
Autres pays	4	27	122	192	...	Other countries.
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	607	845	891	831	596	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations à :</i>						<i>Exports to :</i>
Canada	16,177	15,653	16,348	14,637	12,340	Canada.
Mexique	125	84	77	59	15	Mexico.
Cuba	628	554	559	492	322	Cuba.
Franco	109	21	19	50	34	France.
Italie	326	208	494	376	185	Italy.
Royaume-Uni	215	5	1	—	...	United Kingdom.
Autres pays d'Europe	69	—	1	—	...	Other countries in Europe.
Afrique	80	49	77	89	...	Africa.
Asie	37	12	14	18	...	Asia.
Amérique du Nord	93	94	190	82	...	North America.
Amérique du Sud	655	222	204	315	...	South America.
Amérique Centrale	847	788	827	598	...	Caribbean.
Océanie	—	—	—	2	...	Oceania.
<i>Total</i>	10,356	17,690	18,901	16,718	12,614	<i>Total.</i>
<i>Charbon de soufre¹</i>	3,475	3,316	3,395	2,782	1,715	<i>Bunker coal.¹</i>
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	22,831	21,006	22,296	19,500	14,329	<i>Total Exports.</i>
COKE						COKE
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	153	134	109	120	88	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations à :</i>						<i>Exports to :</i>
Franco	4	2	14	1	...	France.
Canada	693	948	1,061	871	...	Canada.
Mexique	3	2	2	2	...	Mexico.
Chili	7	4	5	1	...	Chile.
Autres pays d'Europe	7	17	10	9	...	Other countries in Europe.
Amérique du Sud	3	3	1	1	...	South America.
Amérique Centrale	15	20	30	26	...	Caribbean.
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	732	996	1,123	911	684	<i>Total Exports.</i>

¹ A partir de 1927, pour navires étrangers seulement.

¹ Since 1927, for foreign ships only.

Tableau VII. — Commerce international (suite). Table VII. — International Trade (continued).
Milliers de tonnes métriques. — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	Countries
Canada						
HOUILLE						
<i>Importations de :</i>						
Etats-Unis d'Amérique . . .	15,654	14,352	15,210	15,380	10,691	United States.
Royaume-Uni	823	620	721	1,039	896	United Kingdom.
Autres pays	9	8	151	275	59	Other countries.
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	16,486	14,978	16,082	16,694	11,646	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations à :</i>						
Royaume-Uni	56	25	24	17	...	United Kingdom.
Terre-Neuve	256	223	244	260	...	Newfoundland.
France	3	2	5	3	...	France.
Pays-Bas	5	7	5	2	...	Netherlands.
Etats-Unis d'Amérique . . .	408	382	381	164	148	United States.
Autres pays	257	114	77	93	170	Other countries.
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	985	753	736	539	327	<i>Total Exports.</i>
COKE						
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	701	962	1,113	963	581	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	83	41	48	49	34	<i>Total Exports.</i>
AMÉRIQUE DU SUD						
SOUTH AMERICA						
Argentine¹						
HOUILLE						
<i>Importations de :</i>						
Allemagne	—	256	168	159	...	Germany.
Royaume-Uni	2,849	2,795	2,922	2,815	...	United Kingdom.
Etats-Unis d'Amérique . . .	349	49	30	76	...	United States.
Autres pays	291	22	16	12	...	Other countries.
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	3,489	3,122	3,136	3,062	...	<i>Total Imports.</i>
COKE						
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	37		41	32	...	<i>Total Imports.</i>
Brazil¹						
HOUILLE						
<i>Importations de :</i>						
Royaume-Uni	United Kingdom.
Etats-Unis d'Amérique	United States.
Autres pays	Other countries.
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	2,008	1,950	2,067		...	<i>Total Imports.</i>
COKE						
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	21	31	31	1,042	...	<i>Total Imports.</i>
AGGLOMÉRÉS						
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	186	201	226		...	<i>Total Imports.</i>
Chili						
Chile						
HOUILLE						
<i>Importations de :</i>						
Royaume-Uni	20	.	38	United Kingdom.
Etats-Unis d'Amérique . . .	4	United States.
Australie	3	Australia.
Autres pays	1	.	1	Other countries.
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	28	65	39	52	...	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	19	14	18	52	...	<i>Total Exports.</i>
COKE						
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	24	16	22	<i>Total Imports.</i>
AGGLOMÉRÉS						
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	10	7	11	<i>Total Imports.</i>

¹ Exportations : néant.

¹ Exports nil.

Tableau VII. — Commerce international (suite). Table VII. — International Trade (continued).
Milliers de tonnes métriques. — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	Countries
ASIE						
ASIA						
Chine						
China						
HOUILLE						
COAL						
<i>Importations de :</i>						
<i>Imports from :</i>						
Hong-Kong	186	259	190	169	...	Hong-Kong.
Indochine française	412	460	608	591	...	French Indo-China.
Japon et Formose	1,628	1,518	1,341	1,340	...	Japan and Formosa.
Autres pays	187	288	227	407	...	Other countries.
Importations totales	2,413	2,525	2,366	2,507	1,894	Total Imports.
<i>Exportations à :</i>						
<i>Exports to :</i>						
Hong-Kong	299	212	122	151	...	Hong-Kong.
Corée	615	557	551	529	...	Korea.
Japon et Formose	2,853	2,334	2,625	2,146	...	Japan and Formosa.
Philippines	197	172	212	191	...	Philippines.
Indes néerlandaises	4	1	—	—	...	Dutch East Indies.
Autres pays	213	—	—	—	...	Other countries.
Exportations totales	4,078	3,947	4,189	3,561	3,540	Total Exports.
Indo						
India						
HOUILLE						
COAL						
<i>Importations de :</i>						
<i>Imports from :</i>						
Royaume-Uni	51	35	31	16	28	United Kingdom.
Afrique or. portugaise	30	32	—	—	—	Portuguese East Africa.
Union Sud-Africaine	184	115	169	172	40	Union of South Africa.
Australie et Nouv.-Zélande	11	5	1	1	2	Australia and New Zealand.
Autres pays	14	4	7	12	57	Other countries.
Importations totales	240	191	208	201	77	Total Imports.
<i>Exportations à :</i>						
<i>Exports to :</i>						
Ceylon	346	357	372	287	286	Ceylon.
Etablissements du Détroit	148	72	75	26	30	Straits Settlements.
Autres pays	89	204	289	154	130	Other countries.
Exportations totales	583	633	736	467	446	Total Exports.
COKE						
COKE						
<i>Importations</i>						
<i>Imports</i>						
<i>Exportations</i>						
<i>Exports</i>						
Japon						
Japan						
HOUILLE						
COAL						
<i>Importations de :</i>						
<i>Imports from :</i>						
Chine	560	537	628	456	357	China.
Kouan-Toung	1,743	1,759	2,016	1,696	1,766	Kwantung.
Indochine française	345	377	488	422	447	French Indo-China.
Autres pays	55	106	123	119	123	Other countries.
Importations totales	2,703	2,779	3,255	2,693	2,693	Total Imports.
<i>Exportations à :</i>						
<i>Exports to :</i>						
Chine	1,383	1,462	1,203	1,324	834	China.
Hong-Kong	380	313	346	368	313	Hong-Kong.
Etablissements du Détroit	205	147	243	203	159	Straits Settlements.
Philippines	150	172	190	145	145	Philippines.
Etats-Unis d'Amérique	—	—	2	5	—	United States.
Indes néerlandaises	26	23	11	13	12	Dutch East Indies.
Kouan-Toung	—	—	—	—	—	Kwantung.
Inde britannique	2	—	—	5	—	British India.
Autres pays	62	68	49	68	77	Other countries.
Exportations totales	2,208	2,185	2,044	2,131	1,540	Total Exports.

¹ Y compris houille pour les navires.

¹ Including coal for ship's use.

Tableau VII. — Commerce international (suite). Table VII. — International Trade (continued).
Milliers de tonnes métriques. — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	Countries
EUROPE						
Allemagne				Germany		
HOUILLE				COAL		
<i>Importations de :</i>				<i>Imports from :</i>		
France.	140	287	293	289	277	France.
Royaume-Uni	3,268	4,660	5,386	4,786	3,733	United Kingdom.
Pays-Bas.	298	717	591	569	612	Netherlands.
Sarre	1,168	1,313	1,190	994	934	Saar.
Tchécoslovaquie	334	238	225	166	129	Czechoslovakia.
Haute-Silésie polonaise	108	156	135	118	67	Polish Upper Silesia.
Autres pays d'Europe	1	—	2	2	21	Other countries in Europe.
Non spécifiés.	17	37	81	29	—	Unspecified.
<i>Importations totales</i>	5,334	7,408	7,903	6,933	5,773	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations à :</i>				<i>Exports to :</i>		
Espagne	81	44	30	53	66	Spain.
Danemark	114	41	168	185	143	Denmark.
Italie	4,162	4,568	4,827	3,314	2,737	Italy.
Norvège	55	13	32	32	28	Norway.
Finlande	47	7	16	20	40	Finland.
Belgique	5,423	4,112	4,939	4,851	4,845	Belgium.
France.	5,646	4,597	5,260	5,359	5,141	France.
Pays-Bas.	6,591	6,690	7,179	6,300	5,088	Netherlands.
Autriche	359	185	561	445	409	Austria.
Hongrie	3	—	55	150	36	Hungary.
Dantzig	19	26	22	16	12	Danzig.
Suisse	480	446	470	522	446	Switzerland.
Tchécoslovaquie	1,171	1,451	1,428	1,088	1,078	Czechoslovakia.
Pologne	—	16	24	20	13	Poland.
Suède	915	262	263	316	395	Sweden.
Sarre	179	160	260	182	115	Saar.
Autres pays d'Europe	454	456	230	305	375	Other countries in Europe.
Afrique	612	501	467	445	424	Africa.
Amérique du Nord	9	6	10	39	120	North America.
Amérique du Sud	183	278	154	360	377	South America.
Asie	116	104	71	82	30	Asia.
Non spécifiés.	259	132	305	319	215	Unspecified.
<i>Exportations totales</i>	26,878¹	23,895¹	26,769¹	24,383¹	23,123¹	<i>Total Exports.</i>
COKE				COKE		
<i>Importations de :</i>				<i>Imports from :</i>		
Pays-Bas.	64	108	175	212	343	Netherlands.
Royaume-Uni	40	146	231	158	266	United Kingdom.
Autres pays d'Europe	42	7	32	27	49	Other countries in Europe.
Non spécifiés.	—	1	—	—	1	Unspecified.
<i>Importations totales</i>	146	262	438	425	659	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations à :</i>				<i>Exports to :</i>		
Danemark	202	159	293	246	313	Denmark.
Espagne	49	176	99	58	41	Spain.
Finlande	58	36	135	64	84	Finland.
Italie	269	233	598	323	253	Italy.
Norvège	103	46	55	52	27	Norway.
Suède	846	591	746	539	702	Sweden.
Pologne	28	36	89	55	30	Poland.
Belgique-Luxembourg	2,447	2,457	2,932	2,362	1,505	Belgium-Luxembourg.
France.	3,323	3,728	3,418	2,793	1,929	France.
Pays-Bas.	234	290	397	267	273	Netherlands.
Autriche	274	330	394	223	171	Austria.
Hongrie	37	44	89	14	17	Hungary.
Suisse	349	406	598	507	516	Switzerland.
Tchécoslovaquie	253	149	384	215	249	Czechoslovakia.
Sarre	58	40	112	36	12	Saar.
Autres pays d'Europe	76	73	216	163	153	Other countries in Europe.
Afrique	22	15	31	20	20	Africa.
Asie	4	—	10	8	12	Asia.
Amérique du Nord	39	34	18	3	20	North America.
Amérique du Sud	21	19	24	17	14	South America.
Océanie	8	—	10	2	—	Oceania.
Non spécifiés	95	23	5	4	—	Unspecified.
<i>Exportations totales</i>	8,794²	8,885²	10,653²	7,971²	6,341²	<i>Total Exports.</i>
¹ Y compris réparations :			¹ Including reparations :			
Dont : vers Belgique.	799	974	114	—	—	to Belgium.
» France et Algérie.	5,305	4,986	4,393	1,381	2,037	» France and Algeria.
» Italie	3,051	4,324	4,786	2,700	1,614	» Italy.
	9,155	10,284	9,293	4,081	3,691	
² Dont réparations :			² Of which reparations constitute :			
Belgique	29	24	4	—	—	Belgium.
France et Algérie	2,829	3,733	2,558	599	566	France and Algeria.
Italie	7	170	524	140	40	Italy.
	2,865	3,927	3,089	739	606	

Tableau VII. — Commerce international (suite). Table VII. — International Trade (continued).
Milliers de tonnes métriques. — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	Countries
Allemagne (suite)						
AGGLOMÉRÉS DE HOUILLE						
<i>Imports from:</i>						
Pays-Bas	2	12	22	32	58	Netherlands.
Pologne	—	—	—	—	—	Poland.
Autres pays	2	—	—	—	2	Other countries.
Imports totales	4	12	22	32	60	Total Imports.
<i>Exports to:</i>						
Belgique-Luxembourg	117	97	121	139	116	Belgium-Luxembourg.
France	56	35	78	93	113	France.
Italie	22	20	37	26	33	Italy.
Pays-Bas	307	296	254	274	302	Netherlands.
Suisse	61	78	64	64	102	Switzerland.
Autriche	—	—	6	3	8	Austria.
Algérie	44	23	34	97	23	Algeria.
Autres pays d'Europe	54	24	31	44	17	Other countries in Europe.
Asie	2	—	2	2	5	Asia.
Afrique	21	27	32	73	51	Africa.
Amérique du Nord	41	44	69	48	61	North America.
Amérique Centrale	—	5	11	—	—	Caribbean.
Amérique du Sud	19	11	33	33	67	South America.
Non spécifiés	5	17	13	1	1	Unspecified.
Exports totales	751¹	677¹	785¹	897¹	899¹	Total Exports.
LIGNITE						
<i>Imports from:</i>						
Tchécoslovaquie	2,558	2,767	2,788	2,216	1,796	Czechoslovakia.
Autres pays	2	1	—	1	—	Other countries.
Imports totales	2,650	2,768	2,788	2,217	1,796	Total Imports.
<i>Exports to:</i>						
Autriche	18	10	23	17	22	Austria.
Autres pays d'Europe	4	—	5	1	5	Other countries in Europe.
Non spécifiés	5	14	1	2	2	Unspecified.
Exports totales	27	33	29	20	29	Total Exports.
AGGLOMÉRÉS DE LIGNITE						
<i>Imports from:</i>						
Imports totales						
<i>Exports to:</i>						
Exports totales						
BRIQUETTES OF LIGNITE						
<i>Imports from:</i>						
Imports totales						
<i>Exports to:</i>						
Exports totales						
Autriche						
HUILLE						
<i>Imports from:</i>						
Tchécoslovaquie	1,314	1,216	1,351	1,284	1,259	Czechoslovakia.
Allemagne	338	172	577	448	504	Germany.
Sarre	36	147	68	26	20	Saar.
Pologne	2,860	3,048	3,295	2,155	1,970	Poland.
Autres pays	4	10	11	12	77	Other countries.
Imports totales	4,561	4,593	5,302	3,925	3,830	Total Imports.
<i>Exports to:</i>						
Exports totales						
Austria						
COAL						
<i>Imports from:</i>						
Imports totales						
<i>Exports to:</i>						
Exports totales						

¹ Dont réparations :

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
Belgique	12	10	1	—	—
France	92	42	40	94	63
Total	104	72	105	94	72

¹ Of which reparations constitute :

Belgium.	
France.	

² Dont réparations :

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
Belgique	—	—	—	—	—
France	495	341	437	523	98
Total	341	437	523	116	98

² Of which reparations constitute :

Belgium.	
France.	

Tableau VII. — Commerce international (suite). Table VII. — International Trade (continued).
Milliers de tonnes métriques — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	Countries					
Autriche (suite)						Austria (continued)					
COKE						COKE					
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>					
Allemagne	283	324	394	226	164	Germany.					
Chécoslovaquie	243	253	283	201	145	Czechoslovakia.					
Pologne	47	59	68	61	69	Poland.					
Autres pays	1	11	3	2	1	Other countries.					
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	<u>574</u>	<u>647</u>	<u>748</u>	<u>490</u>	<u>379</u>	<i>Total Imports.</i>					
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	143	61	27	44	52	<i>Total Exports.</i>					
AGGLOMÉRÉS						BRIQUETTES					
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	54	60	79	52	62	<i>Total Imports.</i>					
LIGNITE						LIGNITE					
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>					
Allemagne	21	20	24	17	22	Germany.					
Yougoslavie	32	32	34	35	20	Yugoslavia.					
Chécoslovaquie	279	268	316	177	163	Czechoslovakia.					
Autres pays	81	92	155	127	140	Other countries.					
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	<u>413</u>	<u>412</u>	<u>529</u>	<u>356</u>	<u>354</u>	<i>Total Imports.</i>					
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	17	10	8	5	3	<i>Total Exports.</i>					
Belgique et Luxembourg						Belgium and Luxemburg					
HOUILLE						COAL					
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>					
Allemagne	4,675	3,234	4,233	4,361	4,106	Germany.					
France	1,001	1,292	1,753	1,146	889	France.					
Royaume-Uni	1,773	1,903	3,004	2,776	1,859	United Kingdom.					
Pays-Bas	1,752	2,149	2,113	1,831	1,090	Netherlands.					
Autres pays	85	346	272	200	384	Other countries.					
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	<u>9,286</u>	<u>8,924</u>	<u>11,375</u>	<u>10,314</u>	<u>9,528</u>	<i>Total Imports.</i>					
<i>Exportations à :</i>						<i>Exports to :</i>					
Italie	7	8	—	—	—	Italy.					
Royaume-Uni	8	12	—	—	—	United Kingdom.					
France	2,300	3,354	2,997	3,120	3,959	France.					
Pays-Bas	291	341	271	280	451	Netherlands.					
Suisse	124	126	138	96	109	Switzerland.					
Allemagne	15	9	—	—	—	Germany.					
Luxembourg	—	—	—	—	—	Luxemburg.					
Autres pays	87	151	384	457	910	Other countries.					
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	<u>2,832</u>	<u>4,001</u>	<u>3,790</u>	<u>3,962</u>	<u>5,468</u>	<i>Total Exports.</i>					
COKE						COKE					
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>					
Allemagne	2,375	2,423	2,795	2,303	1,476	Germany.					
France	31	21	—	—	—	France.					
Pays-Bas	518	334	590	612	632	Netherlands.					
Autres pays	—	—	20	32	46	Other countries.					
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	<u>2,924</u>	<u>2,778</u>	<u>3,405</u>	<u>2,947</u>	<u>2,154</u>	<i>Total Imports.</i>					
<i>Exportations à :</i>						<i>Exports to :</i>					
Pays-Bas	7	17	—	—	—	Netherlands.					
France	828	766	673	670	475	France.					
Suisse	3	2	—	—	—	Switzerland.					
Allemagne	11	7	—	—	—	Germany.					
Autres pays d'Europe	29	15	—	—	—	Other countries in Europe.					
Autres pays	2	2	65	123	388	Other countries.					
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	<u>878</u>	<u>809</u>	<u>738</u>	<u>793</u>	<u>863</u>	<i>Total Exports.</i>					

Tableau VII. — Commerce international (suite). Table VII. — International Trade (continued).
Milliers de tonnes métriques — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	Countries
Belgique et Luxembourg (suite)						
AGGLOMÉRÉS						
<i>Imports from:</i>						
Allemagne	60	93	146	156	184	Germany.
Pays-Bas	7	3	10	19	57	Netherlands.
Autres pays	4	2	28	5	3	Other countries.
Imports totales	71	98	184	180	244	Total Imports.
<i>Exports to:</i>						
Suisse	16	18	—	—	—	Switzerland.
Pays-Bas	31	13	—	—	—	Netherlands.
Congo belge	109	122	159	64	39	Belgian Congo.
France	330	521	440	475	626	France.
Autres pays d'Europe	7	—	—	—	—	Other countries in Europe.
Etats-Unis d'Amérique	—	2	—	—	—	United States.
Amérique du Sud	9	23	—	—	—	South America.
Autres pays	18	11	144	173	275	Other countries.
Exports totales	520	710	743	712	940	Total Exports.
Belgium and Luxembourg (continued)						
BRIQUETTES						
<i>Imports from:</i>						
Germany.						
Netherlands.						
Other countries.						
Total Imports.						
<i>Exports to:</i>						
Switzerland.						
Netherlands.						
Belgian Congo.						
France.						
Other countries in Europe.						
United States.						
South America.						
Other countries.						
Total Exports.						
Espagne						
HOUILLE						
<i>Imports from:</i>						
Royaume-Uni	1,966	1,607	1,722	1,379	962	United Kingdom.
Allemagne	27	15	7	10	45	Germany.
Autres pays	5	1	24	15	25	Other countries.
Imports totales	1,998	1,623	1,753	1,404	1,032	Total Imports.
Exports totales	13	50	67	18	—	Total Exports.
Spain						
COAL						
<i>Imports from:</i>						
United Kingdom.						
Germany.						
Other countries.						
Total Imports.						
Total Exports.						
COKE						
Imports totales	208	207	292	247	150	Total Imports.
Exports totales	—	—	—	—	—	Total Exports.
AGGLOMÉRÉS						
Imports totales	60	48	25	23	17	Total Imports.
AUTRES CHARBONS						
Imports totales	6	10	14	7	—	Total imports:
France¹						
HOUILLE						
<i>Imports from:</i>						
Belgique-Luxembourg	2,347	3,223	3,566	3,548	4,421	Belgium-Luxembourg.
Allemagne	6,105	4,511	5,148	5,096	4,616	Germany.
Royaume-Uni	9,060	8,506	13,216	13,581	10,767	United Kingdom.
Etats-Unis d'Amérique	488	13	14	27	48	United States.
Non spécifiés	803	1,258	1,726	2,515	3,234	Unspecified.
Imports totales	18,083	17,511	23,670	24,767	23,086	Total Imports.
<i>Exports to:</i>						
Allemagne	1,209	1,406	1,330	1,332	1,194	Germany.
Belgique-Luxembourg	1,335	1,562	2,113	1,302	1,035	Belgium-Luxembourg.
Suisse	1,140	1,291	1,215	911	869	Switzerland.
Autres pays et non spécifiés	483	507	402	522	429	Other countr. & unspecified.
Total²	4,203	4,856	5,060	4,067	3,527	Total².
Charbon de soute:						
Navires étrangers	62	41	23	27	22	Foreign ships.
France¹						
COAL						
<i>Imports from:</i>						
Belgium-Luxembourg.						
Germany.						
United Kingdom.						
United States.						
Unspecified.						
Total Imports.						
<i>Exports to:</i>						
Germany.						
Belgium-Luxembourg.						
Switzerland.						
Other countr. & unspecified.						
Total².						
Bunker coal:						
Foreign ships.						

¹ Chiffres provisoires.
² La Sarre est comprise dans le territoire douanier français depuis le 10 janvier 1925.
³ Y compris charbon de soute.

* Provisional figures.
¹ Saar is included in French Customs territory from January 10th, 1925.
² Including bunker coal.

Tableau VII. — Commerce international (suite). Table VII. — International Trade (continued).
Milliers de tonnes métriques. — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	Countries
France (suite)						France (continued)
COKE						COKE
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>
Allemagne	3,417	3,925	3,648	2,868	1,918	Germany.
Pays-Bas	470	538	1,074	1,003	911	Netherlands.
Belgique	831	849	697	640	557	Belgium.
Royaume-Uni	2	6	23	49	12	United Kingdom.
Autres pays et non spécifiés	—	—	9	6	—	Other countr. & unspecified.
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	4,720	5,368	5,451	4,566	3,398	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations à :</i>						<i>Exports to :</i>
Belgique — Luxembourg . .	34	28	27	30	30	Belgium — Luxembourg.
Italie	201	224	273	192	245	Italy.
Suisse	120	118	132	111	139	Switzerland.
Autres pays et non spécifiés	46	48	37	10	11	Other countr. & unspecified.
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	401	418	469	352	425	<i>Total Exports.</i>
AGGLOMÉRÉS						BRIQUETTES
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>
Allemagne	411	472	655	650	699	Germany.
Belgique — Luxembourg . .	350	508	453	403	609	Belgium — Luxembourg.
Royaume-Uni	259	129	130	166	112	United Kingdom.
Autres pays et non spécifiés	31	54	60	92	151	Other countr. & unspecified.
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	1,051	1,161	1,298	1,880	1,571	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations totales¹ . . .</i>	204	247	368	240	206	<i>Total Exports¹.</i>
Hongrie						Hungary
HOUILLE, LIGNITE, BRIQUETTES						COAL, LIGNITE, BRIQUETTES
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>
Tchécoslovaquie	269	338	310	269	210	Czechoslovakia.
Yougoslavie	20	18	18	12	11	Yugoslavia.
Pologne	815	835	912	441	316	Poland.
Autres pays	23	18	60	141	82	Other countries.
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	1,127	1,209	1,300	864	619	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	306	287	407	382	377	<i>Total Exports.</i>
COKE						COKE
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	391	454	561	373	249	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	2	1	2	1	2	<i>Total Exports.</i>
Italie						Italy
HOUILLE ET COKE						COAL AND COKE
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>
Royaume-Uni	6,421	6,439	7,111	7,072	5,834	United Kingdom.
Allemagne ²	4,598	4,439	5,534	4,008	3,220	Germany ² .
Etats-Unis d'Amérique . . .	450	134	343	370	103	United States.
France	360	431	420	235	292	France.
Autres pays	2,230	1,254	1,195	1,217	—	Other countries.
<i>Importations totales³ . . .</i>	14,059	12,697	14,603	12,902	11,094	<i>Total Imports³.</i>
<i>Exportations</i>	47	54	56		54	<i>Exports.</i>
Charbon de soufre	200 ⁴	164 ⁴	167 ⁴			Bunker coal.
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	—	—	—	—	—	<i>Total Exports.</i>

* Chiffres provisoires.

¹ Y compris agglomérés de soufre.

² Quantités suivantes comprises en compte réparations :
1925 : 1,728 ; 1926 : 2,891 ; 1927 : 3,089 ;

³ Le charbon de soufre comprend la houille de cargaison.

* Provisional figures.

¹ Including bunker briquettes.

² Following amounts on reparations account included :
1928 : 3,545 ; 1929 : 3,122 ; 1930 : 2,371.

³ Bunker coal includes coal as cargo.

Tableau VII. — Commerce international (suite). Table VII. — International Trade (continued).
Milliers de tonnes métriques. — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	Countries
Pays-Bas						Netherlands
HOUILLE						COAL
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>
Allemagne	6,524	6,465	6,966	6,599	6,123	Germany.
Belgique	325	408	325	338	463	Belgium.
France	12	31	40	7		France.
Royaume-Uni	1,899	1,790	2,181	2,105	1,736	United Kingdom.
Autres pays	62	66	106	64	179	Other countries.
Importations totales	8,822	8,760	9,618	9,113	8,501	Total Imports.
<i>Exportations à :</i>						<i>Exports to :</i>
Allemagne	322	702	605	613	622	Germany.
Belgique	1,777	2,147	2,077	1,810	2,005	Belgium.
France	634	834	785	1,282	1,341	France.
Italie	25	10		6		Italy.
Autres pays	200	231	154	189		Other countries.
Total	2,958	3,924	3,621	3,900	4,093	Total.
Charbon de route	2,246	2,144	1,973	1,819	1,734	Bunker coal.
Exportations totales	5,204	6,068	5,594	5,719	5,827	Total Exports.
COKE						COKE
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>
Allemagne	259	268	346	272	273	Germany.
Belgique	11	20	13	6	30	Belgium.
Royaume-Uni	8	13	11	11	13	United Kingdom.
Autres pays	—	—	1			Other countries.
Importations totales	278	301	371	289	316	Total Imports.
<i>Exportations à :</i>						<i>Exports to :</i>
Allemagne	80	131	189	252	355	Germany.
Belgique	362	226	359	288	334	Belgium.
France	528	612	1,147	1,120	859	France.
Luxembourg	112	85	148	212		Luxembourg.
Suisse	57	57	89	57	78	Switzerland.
Autres pays	16	22	28	151		Other countries.
Exportations totales	1,145	1,188	1,940	2,080	2,217	Total Exports.
AGGLOMÉRÉS						BRIQUETTES
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>
Allemagne	329	318	318	317	379	Germany.
Belgique	40	16	9	13	20	Belgium.
Autres pays	1	—	—	1		Other countries.
Importations totales	370	334	327	331	399	Total Imports.
<i>Exportations à :</i>						<i>Exports to :</i>
Allemagne	3	16	24	38	64	Germany.
Belgique	13	9	18	43	226	Belgium.
France	41	33	49	97	144	France.
Suisse	10	10	13	14	23	Switzerland.
Autres pays	17	9	1	2	7	Other countries.
Exportations totales	84	77	105	194	464	Total Exports.
Pologne						Poland
HOUILLE						COAL
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>
Allemagne	23	24	35	27	21	Germany.
Royaume-Uni	11	17	12	4		United Kingdom.
Tchécoslovaquie	2	2	13	1	6	Czechoslovakia.
Autres pays	14	6	1	—	16	Other countries.
Importations totales	50	49	61	32	43	Total Imports.
<i>Exportations à :</i>						<i>Exports to :</i>
Allemagne	58	133			124	Germany.
Autriche	2,819	2,997	3,247	2,080	1,947	Austria.
Danemark	1,175	1,526	1,871	1,750	1,925	Denmark.
Finlande	207	444	437	504	592	Finland.
France	180	366	682	893	1,142	France.
Hongrie	656	717	929	482	297	Hungary.
Italie	1,163	444			811	Italy.
Norvège		589	605	728	968	Norway.
Royaume-Uni	74	12				United Kingdom.
Suède	2,704	2,800	2,673	2,014	3,089	Sweden.
Suisse	185				115	Switzerland.
Tchécoslovaquie	546	1,068	924	743	733	Czechoslovakia.
U. R. S. S.	49					U.S.S.R.
Autres pays	1,210	1,453	2,544	2,371	2,075	Other countries.
Exportations totales	11,095	12,549	13,912	12,465	13,818	Total Exports.

Tableau VII. — Commerce international (suite). Table VII. — International Trade (continued).
Milliers de tonnes métriques. — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	Countries
Pologne (suite)						Poland (continued)
COKE						COKE
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>
Allemagne	24	42	98	58	22	Germany.
Tchécoslovaquie	145	136	128	55	44	Czechoslovakia.
Autres pays	—	3	7	4	1	Other countries.
<i>Importations totales</i>	<i>169</i>	<i>181</i>	<i>233</i>	<i>117</i>	<i>70</i>	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations à :</i>						<i>Exports to :</i>
Allemagne	—	—	—	—	—	Germany.
Autriche	47	58	67	60	69	Austria.
Autres pays	74	105	83	137	177	Other countries.
<i>Exportations totales</i>	<i>121</i>	<i>163</i>	<i>150</i>	<i>197</i>	<i>246</i>	<i>Total Exports.</i>
AGGLOMÉRÉS						BRIQUETTES
<i>Importations totales</i>	<i>18</i>	<i>18</i>	<i>21</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>18</i>	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations totales</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>Total Exports.</i>
Royaume-Uni						United Kingdom
HOUILLE						COAL
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>
Allemagne	185	Germany.
Pays-Bas	77	11	Netherlands.
Belgique	9	Belgium.
France	3	France.
Etat libre d'Irlande	14	Irish Free State.
Etats-Unis d'Amérique	1,854	United States.
Canada	181	Canada.
Non spécifiés	135	17	Unspecified.
<i>Importations totales</i>	<i>2,458</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>21</i>	<i>17</i>	<i>22</i>	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations à :</i>						<i>Exports to :</i>
U.R.S.S.	20	25	34	40	27	U.S.S.R.
Suède	2,217	1,564	2,373	1,795	1,002	Sweden.
Allemagne	4,309	5,454	5,609	5,005	3,830	Germany.
France	9,410	9,210	13,254	13,177	10,723	France.
Italie	6,991	6,728	7,208	7,282	6,002	Italy.
Danemark	2,185	1,759	2,230	1,952	1,616	Denmark.
Pays-Bas	2,352	2,470	3,173	2,908	2,311	Netherlands.
Belgique	2,269	2,296	4,206	3,500	2,011	Belgium.
Norvège	1,599	1,135	1,467	1,222	657	Norway.
Finlande	552	376	469	408	260	Finland.
Espagne	2,399	1,897	1,812	1,739	1,331	Spain.
Argentine	2,997	2,702	2,844	2,731	2,125	Argentina.
Autres pays d'Europe	5,838	5,728	5,940	5,601	4,707	Other countries in Europe.
Afrique	4,601	4,996	5,226	4,072	3,101	Africa.
Amérique du Nord	1,015	1,065	1,120	1,439	1,227	North America.
Amérique du Sud	2,130	2,411	2,549	1,673	948	South America.
Autres pays	1,174	1,036	1,717	1,210	1,466	Other countries.
<i>Total</i>	<i>51,968</i>	<i>50,852</i>	<i>61,231</i>	<i>55,752</i>	<i>43,434</i>	<i>Total.</i>
<i>Charbon de soufre</i>	<i>17,110</i>	<i>16,997</i>	<i>16,653</i>	<i>15,867</i>	<i>14,843</i>	<i>Bunker coal.</i>
<i>Exportations totales</i>	<i>69,078</i>	<i>67,849</i>	<i>77,884</i>	<i>71,619</i>	<i>58,277</i>	<i>Total Exports.</i>
COKE						COKE
<i>Importations totales</i>	<i>64</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>—</i>	<i>—</i>	<i>—</i>	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations à :</i>						<i>Exports to :</i>
U.R.S.S.	—	—	—	—	...	U.S.S.R.
Suède	229	474	531	446	...	Sweden.
Norvège	291	355	387	331	...	Norway.
Danemark	681	834	917	755	...	Denmark.
Allemagne	44	160	211	165	...	Germany.
Espagne	159	149	203	176	...	Spain.
Italie	107	133	198	127	...	Italy.
France	2	5	19	42	...	France.
Pays-Bas	7	16	13	12	...	Netherlands.
Belgique	—	1	—	—	...	Belgium.
Finlande	29	102	56	—	...	Finland.
Autres pays d'Europe	31	63	83	182	...	Other countries in Europe.
Afrique	4	3	—	—	...	Africa.
Asie	26	27	28	34	...	Asia.
Amérique du Nord	34	72	52	48	...	North America.
Amérique du Sud	46	53	69	23	...	South America.
Océanie	50	20	30	22	...	Oceania.
Non spécifiés	91	168	153	139	...	Unspecified.
<i>Exportations totales</i>	<i>1,831</i>	<i>2,635</i>	<i>2,950</i>	<i>2,502</i>	<i>2,438</i>	<i>Total Exports.</i>

Tableau VII. — Commerce international (suite). Table VII. — International Trade (continued).
Milliers de tonnes métriques. — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	Countries
Royaume-Uni (suite)						United Kingdom (continued)
AGGLOMÉRÉS						BRIQUETTES
Importations totales . . .	9	4	—	—	—	Total Imports.
Exportations à :						Exports to :
France	269	103	151	176	...	France.
Algérie	182	154	174	141	...	Algeria.
Espagne	56	42	23	20	...	Spain.
Italie	153	147	158	146	...	Italy.
Autres pays d'Europe . . .	168	34	41	42	...	Other countries in Europe.
Brazil	229	190	224	148	...	Brazil.
Chili	37	35	12	2	...	Chile.
Afrique	125	95	187	130	...	Africa.
Asie	38	31	44	39	...	Asia.
Amérique du Nord	1	—	—	—	...	North America.
Amérique du Sud	181	134	200	121	...	South America.
Amérique Centrale	7	4	6	6	...	Caribbean.
Non spécifiés	75	80	80	52	...	Unspecified.
Total	1,371	1,049	1,250	1,023	772	Total.
Agglomérés de soufre . . .	4	—	—	—	—	Manufactured Fuel (bunkers)
Exportations totales . . .	1,375	1,049	1,250	1,023	772	Total Exports.
Suède						Sweden
HOUILLE						COAL
Importations de :						Imports from :
Pologne et Dantzig	1,268	1,438	1,664	2,079	...	Poland and Danzig.
Allemagne	1,830	1,075	942	853	...	Germany.
Royaume-Uni	2,242	1,547	2,367	1,822	...	United Kingdom.
Spitzberg	—	—	—	—	...	Spitzbergen.
Autres pays	18	18	25	24	...	Other countries.
Total des importations . . .	4,807	4,068	4,994	4,778	4,523	Total Imports.
Total des exportations . . .	—	—	—	—	—	Total Exports.
COKE						COKE
Importations de :						Imports from :
Allemagne	985	557	660	559	...	Germany.
Pays-Bas	12	5	13	34	...	Netherlands.
Royaume-Uni	246	518	569	488	...	United Kingdom.
Autres pays	27	27	23	106	...	Other countries.
Importations totales	970	1,107	1,265	1,187	1,446	Total Imports.
Exportations totales	—	1	3	2	2	Total Exports.
Suisse¹						Switzerland¹
HOUILLE						COAL
Importations de :						Imports from :
Allemagne	478	440	517	549	503	Germany.
Belgique	144	150	159	110	115	Belgium.
France	875	871	936	880	870	France.
Pays-Bas	128	149	143	140	148	Netherlands.
Pologne	178	117	127	122	115	Poland.
Royaume-Uni	170	172	184	175	202	United Kingdom.
Autres pays	—	—	—	1	3	Other countries.
Importations totales	1,982	1,908	2,066	1,986	1,956	Total Imports.
COKE						COKE
Importations de :						Imports from :
Allemagne	347	413	503	480	532	Germany.
Belgique	7	6	4	3	9	Belgium.
France	103	116	130	103	134	France.
Pays-Bas	54	51	64	65	89	Netherlands.
Autres pays	9	15	9	3	5	Other countries.
Importations totales	525	601	800	663	769	Total Imports.

¹ Pas d'exportation, sauf quelques milliers de tonnes de coke.

¹ No exports except a few thousand tons of coke.

Tableau VII.— Commerce international (suite). Table VII.— International Trade (continued).
Milliers de tonnes métriques. — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	Countries
Suisse (suite)			Switzerland (continued)			
AGGLOMÉRÉS DE HOUILLE			BRIQUETTES OF COAL			
<i>Importations de :</i>			<i>Imports from :</i>			
Allemagne	68	90	75	74	106	Germany.
Belgique	21	22	18	15	19	Belgium.
France	98	92	97	82	73	France.
Autres pays	9	11	13	16	21	Other countries.
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	196	215	203	187	218	<i>Total Imports.</i>
LIGNITE			LIGNITE			
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	294	305	394	312	346	<i>Total Imports.</i>
Tchécoslovaquie			Czechoslovakia			
HOUILLE			COAL			
<i>Importations de :</i>			<i>Imports from :</i>			
Allemagne	1,188	1,405	1,387	1,129	1,075	Germany.
Pologne	538	1,053	941	753	754	Poland.
Autres pays	—	4	3	1	2	Other countries.
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	1,726	2,462	2,331	1,883	1,831	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations à :</i>			<i>Exports to :</i>			
Allemagne	305	240	223	163	128	Germany.
Autriche	1,300	1,214	1,337	1,276	1,256	Austria.
Hongrie	172	204	223	227	212	Hungary.
Pologne	4	4	17	3	3	Poland.
Autres pays	104	8	54	37	54	Other countries.
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	1,885	1,670	1,854	1,708	1,653	<i>Total Exports.</i>
COKE			COKE			
<i>Importations de :</i>			<i>Imports from :</i>			
Allemagne	238	262	360	214	233	Germany.
Autres pays	2	4	26	1	1	Other countries.
<i>Importations totales :</i>	240	266	386	215	234	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations à :</i>			<i>Exports to :</i>			
Autriche	241	259	281	202	144	Austria.
Hongrie	300	326	437	289	174	Hungary.
Pologne	145	145	127	57	44	Poland.
Roumanie	16	18	16	15	13	Roumania.
Yougoslavie	28	29	19	15	20	Yugoslavia.
Autres pays	28	7	4	6	7	Other countries.
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	758	784	884	584	402	<i>Total Exports.</i>
LIGNITE			LIGNITE			
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	24	64	107	123	119	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations à :</i>			<i>Exports to :</i>			
Allemagne	2,643	2,731	2,750	2,203	1,798	Germany.
Autriche	266	264	309	174	161	Austria.
Hongrie	8	2	1	—	—	Hungary.
Autres pays	3	2	2	1	1	Other countries.
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	2,920	2,999	3,062	2,378	1,960	<i>Total Exports.</i>
AGGLOMÉRÉS			BRIQUETTES			
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	25	34	38	26	34	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations à :</i>			<i>Exports to :</i>			
Allemagne	155	136	156	85	82	Germany.
Autriche	2	3	3	2	—	Austria.
Autres pays	2	2	2	1	3	Other countries.
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	159	140	163	89	85	<i>Total Exports.</i>

Tableau VII. — Commerce international (*fin*). Table VII. — International Trade (*concluded*).
Milliers de tonnes métriques. — Metric tons (000's omitted).

Pays	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	Countries
U. R. S. S.						U.S.S.R.
HOUILLE						COAL
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>
Allemagne	21	6	3	...	Germany.
Royaume-Uni.	28	23	32	...	United Kingdom.
Autres pays	14	24	34	...	Other countries.
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	<i>472¹</i>	<i>61¹</i>	<i>53¹</i>	<i>69¹</i>	<i>...</i>	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	<i>.</i>	<i>503</i>	<i>1,150</i>	<i>1,799</i>	<i>...</i>	<i>Total Exports.</i>
OCÉANIE						OCEANIA
Australie						Australia
HOUILLE						COAL
<i>Importations totales.</i>						<i>Total Imports.</i>
	10	18	95	798	...	
<i>Exportations à :</i>						<i>Exports to :</i>
Nouvelle-Zélande	420	318	167	184	...	New Zealand.
Etablissements des Détroits.	27	23	11	7	...	Straits Settlements.
Chili.	12	—	—	—	...	Chile.
Indes néerlandaises	74	46	8	5	...	Netherlands East Indies.
Philippines	81	63	32	—	...	Philippine Islands.
Etats-Unis d'Amérique	—	—	2	—	...	United States.
Inde.	—	13	2	11	...	India.
Océanie	79	81	118	40	...	Oceania.
Autres pays	127	21	12	52	...	Other countries.
<i>Exportations totales :</i>	<i>820</i>	<i>565</i>	<i>352</i>	<i>299</i>	<i>...</i>	<i>Total Exports :</i>
COKE						COKE
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>						<i>Total Imports.</i>
	80	42	27	40	...	
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>						<i>Total Exports.</i>
	43	34	18	2	...	
Nouvelle-Zélande						New Zealand
HOUILLE						COAL
<i>Importations de :</i>						<i>Imports from :</i>
Australie.	383	252	218	154	...	Australia.
Autres pays	1	.	1	7	...	Other countries.
<i>Importations totales . . .</i>	<i>384</i>	<i>252</i>	<i>219</i>	<i>161</i>	<i>...</i>	<i>Total Imports.</i>
<i>Exportations :</i>						<i>Exports :</i>
Charbon de soufre ²	146	128	Bunker coal ² .
<i>Exportations totales . . .</i>	<i>146</i>	<i>128</i>	<i>209</i>	<i>128</i>	<i>...</i>	<i>Total Exports.</i>

¹ Frontières d'Europe seulement.
² Charbon de soufre comprend la houille de cargaison.

¹ European frontiers only.
² Bunker coal includes coal as cargo.

Tableau VIII. — DROITS DE DOUANE A L'IMPORTATION SUR LA HOUILLE, LE COKE ET LES BRIQUETTES.

Table VIII. — CUSTOMS IMPORT DUTIES ON COAL, COKE AND BRIQUETTES

NOTES. — Sauf indication contraire, les droits sont applicables aux importations en provenance de tous les pays ; lorsque deux tarifs sont mentionnés, le plus bas (c'est-à-dire le tarif minimum ou le tarif conventionnel) est actuellement applicable aux importations en provenance du Royaume-Uni.
Il n'est pas fait mention de charges telles que l'impôt sur le chiffre d'affaires, les taxes consulaires, etc.

NOTES. — Unless otherwise indicated, the duty applies to imports from all countries, where two rates are quoted, the lower (i.e. "Minimum" Tariff, "Conventional" Tariff) at present applies to imports from the United Kingdom.

No reference is made to such charges as "turnover tax", Consular charges, etc.

Pays et classification douanière — Country and Tariff Classification.		Droits de douane — Tariff Rate of Duty
EGYPTE EGYPT	Houille (y compris l'antracite) — Coal (including anthracite)	50 mm. { par } 1,000 kg.
	Coke — Coke	70 " " " "
	Briquettes — Briquettes	80 " " " "
FRANCE (a)	Houille et coke (y compris les briquettes) — Coal and coke (including briquettes)	20 cts. { par } 100 kg.
SUISSE SWITZERLAND	Houille, coke, briquettes — Coal, coke, briquettes	10 cts. { par } 100 kg. (b).
	Anthracite, houille et coke — Anthracite, coal and coke	1.10 { escudos-or par tonne métr. } gold Esc. per metric ton.
PORTUGAL (c)	Briquettes pesant plus de 1 kg. chacune. — Briquettes weighing over 1 kg. each	Tarif général 0.35 General Tariff Tarif minimum 1.20 Minimum Tariff 0.40
	Autres briquettes. — Other Briquettes	4.50 1.40
	Anthracite et autres charbons — Anthracite and other coal	Tarif général 22% { pesos-or } General Tariff Tarif conventionnel 7% Conventional Tariff
ESPAGNE (d) SPAIN (d)	<i>Note.</i> — Le traité de commerce anglo-espagnol prévoit l'admission de 750.000 tonnes de houille du Royaume-Uni à 60% du tarif normal applicable lors de l'importation. <i>Note.</i> — The Anglo-Spanish Commercial Treaty provides for the admission of 750,000 tons of United Kingdom pitcoal at 60% of the normal rate (i.e. at the moment).	
	Coke et briquettes — Coke and Briquettes	Tarif général 27 General Tariff Tarif conventionnel 9 Conventional Tariff
ITALIE ITALY	Anthracite, coke et briquettes — Anthracite, coal and briquettes	10% ad valorem (e). Plus 1 lire par tonne métrique, pour la houille. — Plus 1 lira per metric ton for coal.
	Coke — Coke	11 liras par tonne métrique (f). 11 lira per metric ton (f) plus 10% ad valorem.
GRÈCE GREECE	Houille (y compris l'antracite) et briquettes de houille ; coke. — Coal (including anthracite), and briquettes thereof ; coke	Tarif général 3 { dr. (or) par tonne métr. (g) } General Tariff Tarif conventionnel Conventional Tariff 2 { dr. (gold) per metric ton (g) }
	<i>Note.</i> — Il est perçu diverses surtaxes qui atteignent, au total, 75% des droits de douane indiqués ci-dessus. <i>Note.</i> — There are various surtaxes leviable equal in all to 75% of the Customs duty shown above.	
TURQUIE TURKEY	Houille et briquettes. — Pitcoal and briquettes	2T2 { par tonne métrique. } per metric ton.
	Coke — Coke	2T3 " " " "
	Anthracite en morceaux (y compris les mélanges) — Anthracite, in lumps (including mixtures)	2T8% " " " "
	Poussier d'antracite (au-dessus de 10 mm., est classé comme morceaux) — Anthracite dust (if over 10 mm. classed as lumps)	2T4% " " " "

a) Importation assujettie à une licence (sauf pour certaines catégories de coke), en vertu du décret du 10 juillet 1931.
b) Le droit est fixé par le traité avec la Belgique.
c) Un décret de 1927 prescrit l'emploi de certaines proportions de houille nationale dans l'industrie et dans les chemins de fer.
d) Il existe des restrictions obligeant l'industrie, les chemins de fer, etc., à employer certaines proportions de houille nationale.
e) C'est-à-dire la surtaxe temporaire récemment instituée. Le combustible destiné aux chemins de fer de l'Etat et à la marine marchande n'est pas sujet à la taxe et est admis en franchise de droits.
f) Le coke servant à fabriquer des aciers spéciaux ou de qualité supérieure, avec du minerai de fer, peut être admis en franchise de droits.
g) Toutefois, 40 à 50% des importations de houille sont admis en franchise de droits.
h) Le droit conventionnel sur la houille et les briquettes est consolidé par le traité gréco-yougoslave.

a) Import subject to licence (except for certain kinds of coke) by Decrees of July 10th, 1931.
b) The duty is fixed by the Treaty with Belgium.
c) A 1927 Decree provides for the use of specified percentages of native coal in industries and railways.
d) There are restrictions requiring industries, railways, etc., to use specified percentages of native coal.
e) i.e., the recently imposed temporary surtax. Fuel for State railways and the mercantile marine is not subject to the tax, and is admitted duty free.
f) Coke for use in making special or high grade steel, from iron ore, may be admitted duty free.
g) From 40 to 50% of the imports of coal are, however, admitted duty free.
h) The Conventional duty on coal and briquettes is consolidated by the Greek Treaty with Yugoslavia.

Geneva, May 4th, 1932.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

ECONOMIC COMMITTEE

HOPS

**REPORT OF THE DELEGATION OF THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE
ON THE MEETING OF EXPERTS ON HOPS¹.**

(FEBRUARY 22nd to 24th 1932.)

The delegation appointed by the Economic Committee to take the opinion of experts on hops has the honour to report on the results of the meeting held for the purpose at Geneva on February 22nd, 23rd and 24th.

1. At the request of M. Peroutka (Czechoslovakia) the Economic Committee decided at its session in January 1932 to take the opinion of certain experts with special knowledge of the subject of hops. Experts from Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Poland and Yugoslavia² met at Geneva on February 22nd, 23rd and 24th with a view to considering: (1) *the world situation in regard to hop growing and the trade in hops*; (2) *the possibility of international action with a view to improving this situation.*

2. Documentary material was at the disposal of the experts in the shape of a note (document E.753) prepared by M. Hanosek (Czechoslovakia), member of the League Subcommittee of Agricultural Experts, completed and brought up-to-date by the International Institute of Agriculture (document E.753a). Other notes were submitted during the meeting by the Belgium expert (document E./Houblon/2 and 3), by the Polish expert (document E./Houblon/4) and by the Czechoslovak expert (document E.753b). These notes, which embody proposals of interest, are submitted to the Economic Committee together with the present report.

On the basis of this material, the experts proceeded to make a careful study of the current situation in the producing countries. A variety of information was exchanged and figures were compared and verified.

3. It is obvious that the hop problem is only a small factor in the general economic crisis: but it is a factor of considerable importance in the national economy of a certain number — not a very large number — of countries. The general phenomenon of agricultural over-production is apparent in a particularly acute form in the case of hops, the disproportion between *production* and consumption increasing with every year.

When the war ended, the area under hops had been appreciably reduced. In Europe (without the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics) the total area under hops had fallen from 71,000 hectares in 1909 to 1913 to 33,000 hectares in 1919³.

¹ The publication of this report has been authorised by the Bureau of the Economic Committee.

² List of Experts.

Belgium : M. SIMOENS, Government agricultural expert.

Czechoslovakia : M. VRBENSKY, Assistant Professor at the Prague Agricultural College.

France : M. Jean-Jacques URBAN, President of the Syndicate of Alsatian Hop-planters.

M. René Henry WEILL, President of the Syndical Chamber of the French Hop Trade.

Germany : Dr. Georg DÜRING, of the Ministry of Food.

Poland : M. KLENIEWSKI, President of the Syndicate of Polish Hop-growers.

Yugoslavia : M. MAYER, agricultural engineer, Secretary of the Syndicate of Petrovac Hop-growers.

Also attended :

Dr. O. HARTIG, President of the Central European Hops Bureau.

Herr von KOCH, President of the Syndicate of German Hop Growers.

An English expert was invited to attend, but the parties concerned in Great Britain took the view that, as British hops play no considerable part in the international trade, there was no need for the presence of a British expert at the meeting.

³ The following figures are taken for the most part from publications of the International Institute of Agriculture. Some of them have been supplied by the experts.

The highly remunerative prices which prevailed from this time onwards as a result of this marked reduction in the area under hops induced a spirit of optimism on the part of the producers which led them to extend eagerly the cultivation of hops. But to put land under hops calls for considerable capital investment. The preparation of the soil, the plantation, hoppers, upkeep and tying of the stalks — *i.e.*, the introduction of hop-growing as a commercial concern, necessitates sums which amount, in Germany for example, to 5,000 marks per hectare. There is no harvest in the first year of planting; and no satisfactory returns until after the third year.

Prices, however, were so high that the growers did not shrink from the large expenditure involved. It seemed that hop-growing was bound in future to enrich anyone who took to it even though a newcomer. The high level of prices led to over-production; and it must be admitted that the present crisis is due in part to this abnormal period of prosperity. The area under hops in Europe was 49,000 hectares in 1926, 55,000 hectares in 1927 and 60,000 hectares in 1928.

In Czechoslovakia, the area under hops doubled between the years 1919 and 1928. In Yugoslavia, there was a prodigious increase from 1,000 hectares directly after the war (3,000 hectares before the war) to over 10,000 hectares.

The extension of the area under hops upset the market and left the producers face to face with the inevitable results of these abrupt excesses.

The precipitous fall of prices led to a marked reduction in the area under hops in Europe — from 55,000 hectares in 1929 to 46,000 in 1930 and 39,000 in 1931.

The disillusionment which followed the brief period of prosperity led to the pulling up of a large proportion of the hop gardens. In some countries, this spontaneous reduction of the cultivation of hops was on such a scale as to threaten, if continued over a period of years, to lead to the total disappearance of the cultivation of the hop in those countries.

In Germany, Poland and Czechoslovakia, the reduction was about one-third, and in Belgium two-thirds of the area under cultivation. In France, the reduction was from 7,000 hectares in 1913 to less than 3,000. In Yugoslavia, the figure fell in a few years from over 10,000 to less than 2,000 hectares.

The production of hops was at its maximum in 1929 (585,000 quintals for Europe without the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics — which exceeded the pre-war figure of 508,000 quintals for the years 1909 to 1913). It fell to 466,000 quintals in 1930 and 315,000 quintals in 1931.

4. But consumption has declined even more rapidly.

The use of hops is diminished by modern processes of brewing; and at the same time the consumption of beer shows a marked decline, particularly in the principal consuming countries. The most marked decline is in the United States of America, as a result of the prohibition legislation. In England, between 1913 and 1929 consumption fell by 42 per cent, in Germany by 14 per cent, in Belgium by 8 per cent and in Czechoslovakia by 5 per cent. France alone consumed more than in 1913. It is estimated that the world's consumption of beer in the years 1926 to 1929 was less than two-thirds of its pre-war consumption.

With the development of the economic crisis since 1929, the reduction of purchasing power and the burden of taxation on beer have greatly intensified the decline in consumption. In Germany, for example, the manufacture of beer was 10 per cent less in 1930 than in 1929 and 23 per cent less in the first three quarters of 1931 than in the same period in 1930.

So long as the economic crisis lasts, the continuance of this under-consumption must clearly be anticipated.

5. As a consequence of this general phenomenon following on over-production accumulating from year to year, large stocks depress the world market. It is estimated that at the beginning of the coming season the brewers of the world could, if necessary, do without any purchases of fresh hops for about nine months, or even longer if the consumption of beer is further restricted.

The burden of these stocks has hit hard a crop to which the peasant populations of certain countries have devoted themselves for centuries past.

6. The anxiety of the growers in view of the possibility of not being able to market their products has led them to market their crops at any price. The collapse of prices has been almost unprecedented. The average 1931 prices were two-thirds lower than the average 1913 prices and less than one-tenth of the 1926 prices. A series of crops sold at these reduced rates has not only failed to remunerate the arduous labour expended on them, but has also involved the growers in heavy losses. For some years past, sale prices have been much below the costs of production. The evidence of the experts agrees in showing that the costs of cultivation and drying are far from being covered by the prices in the market. The market prices, according to the experts, often represent only one-quarter or one-half, and only occasionally as much as two-thirds, of the costs of production.

The growers are at pains to reduce the costs of production — *e.g.*, by the curtailment or abandonment of antiparasitic treatment. They have recourse to protective measures of every kind — Customs duties, quotas for imported hops, quotas for the use of foreign hops in the manufacture of beer, facilities for national hop-growing, credits in every form, remission of taxation, purchase of the produce by valorisation syndicates, export premiums, etc. All these efforts help to reduce losses: but market prices remain notwithstanding insufficient to yield a profit on the cultivation of the hop. Even where an exceptional climate and very low wages for labour assist cultivation, these exceptional advantages are not enough to compensate the producer for the accumulated losses on his production.

It is nevertheless desirable, in the interest of the consumers themselves and in order to prevent the disappearance of a crop which is indispensable for the brewing industry, that the producers should receive reasonable prices, particularly, as the quantities of hops included in beer — the average in continental Europe is 230 grammes of hops per hectolitre — do not count for much in making up the cost of production of beer in comparison with the cost of other raw materials used and other costs of production (wages, taxes, etc.), which in the case of brewing are very high.

7. A large part of the hops have not even been picked owing to the low prices being inadequate to cover the actual cost of picking. The abandoned hop fields bear witness to the prosperity which is no more. In England, thousands of bales have been put on board ships, only to be thrown into the sea along the coasts; and equally large amounts have been rendered unfit for consumption by the addition of chemicals.

The situation is becoming impossible for hop-growers in all countries; for all the producing countries without exception are affected, and the conditions in which the crisis is developing compel the conclusion that no improvement is likely except at the cost of long and severe suffering.

Accordingly the experts, including those from countries protected by Customs barriers, are of opinion that it is in the interest of the producers in all countries to make a combined effort to arrest the crisis and to take the necessary steps with a view to recovery. The meeting of the experts has provided an occasion for a valuable exchange of views. It has elicited certain recommendations which can be made to all the producing States with a view to preventing in their common interest the intensification of a crisis which is becoming every day more disquieting and more dangerous.

8. The experts were mainly concerned with proposals to improve the position by technical action for the co-ordination of supply and demand. They recognised that, in the common interest, it is for the producers to establish a proper proportion between the world's potentialities of consumption and the production. The quantities of hops available should not be out of proportion to the probable demand. It should therefore be at any time possible to ascertain exactly what are the amounts available on the one hand and the probable requirements on the other. This cannot be ascertained under present circumstances where each party acts on his own initiative without international co-operation. But international co-operation should not be impracticable in view of the limited number of producing countries concerned.

All the experts agree in emphasising the fact that the present anarchy of production must be brought to a close if the crisis is to be remedied. The several countries must not be left to arrange their own production without reference to the general conditions of the European market.

Indiscriminate production should be replaced by conscious and organised production taking the general situation into account.

By whatever means they may consider suitable — legislation, professional organisation or the voluntary initiative of the growers — *the producing countries should place themselves in a position to follow exactly and, if necessary, to regulate the development of hop-growing.* This is an essential pre-requisite to future agreements and remedies for the chaos of prices.

The experts further pointed out that steps have already been taken on these lines in the majority of producing countries. It can only be hoped that these efforts will be continued, particularly in connection with the two factors concerned, in any future reduction of supply — *viz.*, (a) coming harvests and (b) the stocks.

9. Reference has been made to the large stocks which have accumulated since recent harvests — in particular, the 1930 harvest. Some of the experts take the view that the balance between supply and demand cannot be re-established or prices brought back to a tolerable level for the producers without a census of the existing reserves and the disposal of the accumulated stocks.

In Czechoslovakia and Germany, the danger of this accumulation of reserves is realised so acutely that steps have been taken with the aid of the public purse to collect and withdraw from the market a part of the stocks in question.

The hop market, which has always been nervous and capricious, cannot again become healthy until the reserves are reduced to normal proportions. Reserves are in any case necessary in the case of a crop, the harvests of which, in spite of all technical improvements, vary enormously from one country to another, both in respect of quantity and quality, as a result of seasonal influences and the variety of diseases to which they are exposed.

10. One means of mitigating the crisis which should be considered, is the reduction of the area under cultivation in countries where such reduction is found to be still inadequate in relation to what has been effected in other producing countries.

As stated, the area under cultivation has already been reduced by the efforts of the cultivators themselves under the influence of prices and market conditions. The experts recommend, especially in countries where production is well ahead of consumption that the necessary restrictions in this sense should be enforced with the producers by well-informed and persuasive propaganda by professional agents. Such action would necessarily be adapted to the particular situations in particular countries.

11. The attention of the experts was also drawn to certain steps which they believed might facilitate the co-operation of the producing countries. The suggestions indicated at the recent meeting all point to the urgent necessity for such co-operation.

Agricultural phenomena are essentially variable, and the hop market can only be improved by gradual action based on the progressive results achieved, without attempting any immediate tackling of the problem as a whole. The requisite contact between the producers in the countries concerned must be maintained and strengthened. It would be facilitated if an International Hops Bureau were established to maintain close and continuous contact with the International Institute of Agriculture and to study the problems connected with the production of hops and the hop trade.

An already existing organisation, the Central European Hops Bureau, might serve as a basis for the proposed organisation on a genuinely international basis. The President of the Central European Hops Bureau will shortly communicate to the international organisations concerned the statutes of this institution, together with a draft of such alterations as are considered desirable in order to provide for a fairly balanced representation of the producing countries, and to allow of the proposed organisation being impartial and offering complete safeguards of its objectivity.

Such an international bureau would facilitate the application of the principles laid down at the recent meeting. It would co-ordinate statistical material of the different countries as quickly and as accurately as possible. It would check and interpret the various figures. It would supplement the material gathered from the producers by material gathered from the trade, with a view to practical utilisation of both, and would make them immediately available for the interested parties. It would consider the present and future potentialities of consumption.

Again, it would study the measures proposed by certain of the experts with a view to the alleviation of the crisis — *e.g.*, measures to diminish the effect of the accumulated stocks (a large portion of which is held in warehouses of valorisation syndicates) in depressing prices.

A number of proposals which have been put forward by certain of the experts might also be studied by the international bureau proposed — *e.g.*, the proposals for :

The establishment of central organisations in the various countries for the direct purchase of hops from the producers, the national organisations being co-ordinated internationally, especially with a view to the regular determination of the area to be cultivated ;

The consideration in conjunction with the brewing industries of the various countries of means to develop the consumption of beer, at present burdened by excise and other charges ;

Scientific and practical research into the improvement of the conditions of cultivation of the hop — *e.g.*, in connection with the selection of plants, and the exclusion of such as experience has shown to be defective or inadequate, allowance being made for possible future developments in the brewing of beer, the use of suitable manures in proper quantities with a view rather to the production of high quality uniform crops than to quantitative production ;

The unification of national legislation with regard to trade marks and marks of origin of hops, etc.

12. In conclusion, the experts stated that they were prepared to keep the Economic Committee in touch with such progress as international co-operation in connection with hops might make in the future as a result of the understanding reached at the recent meeting.

The meeting, which made the most satisfactory impression on the delegation of the Economic Committee, has shown the agreement on essential points of all the parties concerned. In view of the seriousness of a crisis which does not seem likely to be relieved in the near future, it is desirable that this agreement should not remain without results. Here is one of the main tasks with which existing organisations, and possibly the proposed International Hops Bureau, should concern themselves.

The Economic Committee may think it desirable to propose to the Council to *communicate the present report to the Governments concerned, pointing out to them the special seriousness of the hops crisis, and drawing their attention to the interest under present circumstances of the tendencies which have been apparent at the consultation of the experts, and at the same time inviting them to support the efforts which the hop growers propose to make with a view to national and international organisation.*

[Distributed to the Council
and the Members of the League.]

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Geneva, May 16th, 1932.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

ECONOMIC ORGANISATION

THE

TIMBER PROBLEM

ITS INTERNATIONAL ASPECTS

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1. REPORT OF THE DELEGATION OF THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE ON THE MEETING OF TIMBER EXPERTS (April 25th to 27th, 1932)¹

At the request of several of its members, the Economic Committee decided, at its session in January 1932, to organise a consultation of experts in order to make a survey of the timber situation. Experts from Austria, Canada, Czechoslovakia, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Latvia, Netherlands, Poland, Roumania, Sweden, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom and Yugoslavia², met at Geneva on April 25th, 26th and 27th.

The Delegation of the Economic Committee, instructed to follow the experts' discussions, has the honour to give an account of the results of this meeting, which was held with the active co-operation of the International Institute of Agriculture, represented by several officials belonging to its technical services.

The experts were asked :

- (1) To examine the world situation in relation to timber production and the timber trade ;
- (2) To study the action which might be taken on international lines to improve this situation.

The *documentary material* included Note E.519, prepared by M. Dolézal (Poland), a member of the Economic Committee, and brought up to date by the Secretariat. The International Institute of Agriculture placed a series of important publications³ at the disposal of the experts. A large number of memoranda were also submitted by the experts.

¹ The publication of this report has been authorised by the Bureau of the Economic Committee.

² See list of experts in Annex.

³ *Statistique forestière de 31 pays*, Rome, 1932.

Enquête internationale sur la standardisation de la mesure du bois et sur les différents modes de vente du bois, Rome, 1930.

La politique forestière des Etats à l'égard des forêts privées. (Extrait de la *Revue internationale d'Agriculture*, décembre 1930.)

La crise des produits forestiers : mesures d'ordre politique pour la surmonter. (Extrait de la *Revue internationale d'Agriculture*, février 1932.)

Mesures d'ordre culturel pour surmonter la crise des produits forestiers. (Extrait de la *Revue internationale d'Agriculture*, mars 1932.)

On the basis of these documents the experts made a careful examination of the position in the producing countries. A great deal of information was exchanged and the figures given were compared and explained in detail.

1. There is no need to stress the general importance of the timber question. Not only does timber play a considerable part in the trade of certain countries, but the beneficial action of forests is too well known for any country to be able to neglect this question.

During the last few years, timber production has been passing through a serious depression. The general phenomenon of agricultural *over-production* also affects forestry. The precarious financial situation in which countries found themselves after the war led them to resort to an intensive exploitation of their timber resources. The production of timber was increased unduly, and, in the end, it greatly exceeded the market's power of absorption.

2. With the increase in the population, the demand for timber had steadily grown during the last decades. In most countries, the post-war figures relating to *timber consumption* were higher than the pre-war figures.

The work of restoring the devastated regions led to a larger demand for timber. It was necessary to repair buildings and installations, railways, mines — in fact, everything that had necessarily been neglected during the war. Removals and new standards of comfort led to a greater demand for furniture. The consumption of paper, cellulose and artificial silk rose considerably.

Since 1930, on the other hand, there has been a heavy decline in the consumption of timber, both in importing and in exporting countries.

For instance, imports of sawn timber into England, which has always been the principal import market and the regulator of prices, fell from 9,137,000 cubic metres in 1929 to 8,633,000 cubic metres in 1930, and 7,608,000 cubic metres in 1931.

In Germany, imports of resinous timber dropped from 7,930,000 tons in 1928 to 5,008,000 in 1930, and to 2,845,000 in 1931.

In Italy, imports of sawn, round and squared timber, which amounted to 1,084,000 tons in 1927, shrank to 1,542,000 in 1930 and to 1,141,000 in 1931.

This decline is mainly due to the economic depression, the timber market being closely dependent upon general prosperity. The crisis has reduced activity, not merely in the building industry (partitions, boards, doors and windows, etc.) and in the manufacture of furniture and packing cases, but also in shipbuilding, railway workshops, mines, etc.

Consumption has also been curtailed by the considerable reduction in the size of modern houses and rooms, and by the fact that, for building purposes, such materials as cement, iron and steel, plaster, bricks, etc., have to a large extent taken the place of timber. Timber is being increasingly replaced by iron and reinforced concrete in the construction of buildings, bridges, etc. Metal furniture is also becoming popular. When timber prices were on the upgrade, other materials were readily substituted. In certain cases, current fashions have also led to wood's being replaced by marble, wrought iron, metal, etc.

Savings have been effected in the use of timber in mines; thinner wood is used and certain galleries are lined with concrete.

Veneers and plywood make it possible to utilise wood in a much more compact form. The saving in timber is considerable: from the point of view of strength, a sheet of plywood 3 millimetres thick is equivalent to a plank 12 millimetres thick.

Lastly, the importance of wood as a fuel has been decreasing for a long time past¹.

3. The effects of the economic depression were just beginning to be felt when Russia, which before the war was Europe's principal source of supply, reappeared in the market. Since the war, her exports to Europe had almost ceased, and the stoppage of those exports had stimulated the production of sawn wood in other countries. From 1927 onwards, her exports rapidly increased. The 953,000 standards exported by her in 1931 represented approximately 20 per cent of the world's timber exports.

So long as the demand kept up and Russia was comparatively modestly represented in the international timber market, it was not difficult for other countries to dispose of their surplus output. This gradually became more difficult as consumption declined, while the expansion of Russian exports made competition still keener.

Exports from Finland, which had made rapid progress, fell from a maximum of 1,278,000 standards in 1927 (851,000 in 1913) to 900,000 in 1930, and to 780,000 in 1931. Swedish exports, which attained a maximum of 1,181,000 standards in 1929 (1,096,000 in 1913), shrank to 996,000 in 1930, and 729,000 in 1931. Latvian exports dropped from 200,000 to 130,000 standards. Polish exports fell from 3,960,000 cubic metres in 1927 to 1,992,000 in 1931. Roumanian and Yugoslav exports, which had risen rapidly until 1928, also show a downward tendency. Austria's exports amounted to 708,000 tons in 1931, as compared with 1,195,000 in 1928.

4. The most disquieting feature of the situation, however, is that the rapid reduction in the quantities exported has in no wise prevented a steady decline of prices, due to the fact that the power of consumption has decreased more than the supplies available, and this collapse of prices is accentuated by wild competition.

Immediately after the war, timber commanded a ready sale; sawmills had become more numerous and, above all, their sawing capacity had increased as a result of the modernisation of their equipment.

On the other hand, forestry resources appeared to be diminishing. The result was a keenness of competition in the purchase of standing timber which raised timber prices to a high level — all the easier to maintain, as the economic activity enabled sawmills to dispose of their supplies without difficulty. Up to 1928, conditions in the timber trade were satisfactory. Prices appeared more or less stabilised, and in 1928-29 exceeded the pre-war level by from 50 to 60 per cent.

This state of affairs has now changed completely, and the world timber trade is utterly disorganised. Prices as a whole are only half, or even less than half, as high as they were three or four years ago; in many cases, they are below the cost of the transport, transformation and delivery of the unstripped logs in the forest. The market value of standing timber has thus fallen considerably, and in many countries the forests have ceased to be a profitable source of revenue. The depression, which has been prejudicial to forest property, has reduced the national fortune of nearly all States.

¹ To stimulate the consumption of timber, propaganda is being carried on in favour of its use for technical purposes. Wooden tubes are being recommended with some success for drinking-water pipes, irrigation purposes, the operation of factories which are important water consumers and, above all, for water-power. In certain countries (Poland, in particular), efforts are being made to popularise wooden buildings.

This state of affairs has had serious consequences for the owners of forests. Timber concerns, sawmills and their workers are unemployed.

These difficulties were aggravated by the monetary fluctuations which occurred in 1931. The instability of currencies constitutes a particularly serious disadvantage for an industry which, as a rule, does not make use of the timber until some time after it has been felled.

5. The anxiety of countries whose prosperity largely depends upon their forest resources is comprehensible. This uneasiness has been increased by the restrictive measures suddenly adopted in certain countries for the purpose of preventing excessive imports and protecting home production against the effects of the fall in prices.

Exporting countries complain of the constantly increasing severity of the obstacles placed in the way of the timber trade during the general crisis. In addition to import duties, which have been considerably increased in certain importing countries, these obstacles take such various forms as the quota system, tariff discrimination against countries with which the importing nations have no commercial treaties, formal prohibitions, etc. In some cases, the promulgation of regulations on dealings in foreign exchange has actually prevented the importation of timber. All these restrictive measures have seriously prejudiced the interests of exporting countries.

In order to surmount the barriers of increased Customs duties, exporters have lowered their prices still further. Similarly, within the narrow limits of the quotas imposed by importing countries, exporters offer their goods at very low prices, which enables them to hold their own against the keen competition of other countries. The quantities unsold after the inadequate quotas have been exhausted depress both the market of the exporting country and the markets in which the latter endeavours to dispose of its surplus output.

In short, all producing countries, without exception, are suffering from the effects of the timber crisis, even those which are protected by Customs barriers or the rationing of imports. These remedies are powerless to avert a crisis which is becoming more and more acute.

Timber problems have thus ceased to be purely national economic questions and have become international problems.

6. Similarly, no remedies can be effective henceforward without international co-operation. When all countries, even those which are large importers, have a timber production for which they wish to secure tolerable conditions, we may say that they are all — producing and consuming countries alike — equally interested in international trade being placed on foundations which, as far as possible, will guarantee the stability of general conditions and a remunerative level of timber prices. All countries, whatever their situation, are suffering from the disorganised state of the timber trade.

This international aspect of the problem was stressed at a large number of international conferences dealing with timber, held during recent years — at Bratislava in 1923, at Lyons in 1924, at Rome in 1926, again at Bratislava in 1929, at Paris and Warsaw in 1931, etc.

These various congresses have given more definite shape to the idea of international co-operation, and have prepared the ground for a well-thought-out plan of action calculated to restore, in the interests of world economy, the confidence and stability necessary for international trade.

In the case of timber, the general depression can, to a large extent, be mitigated by the adoption of appropriate national measures, since forest exploitation enjoys

the advantage of an elasticity which agricultural products lack. If there is one branch of production and trade which it appears possible to subject to certain international regulations, that branch is timber.

The reserve stocks can be disposed of by postponing fellings, which will to some extent be made good by the natural growth in the volume of the timber left standing. Until it is cut down, the tree entails no expense for anyone, but continues to grow, thus adding to the wealth of the raw material and the forest.

Moreover, in the timber industry, the capital expenditure is not so considerable as in many other industries, and can remain temporarily locked up, which gives a certain elasticity to that industry.

In view of the impossibility of influencing demand, the immediate measures to be taken should be confined to a voluntary restriction of supply.

Such measures can only be adopted on an international basis, and, for obvious reasons, must entail sacrifices on the part of all concerned.

To achieve this purpose, two means are possible :

(a) Reduction in fellings ;

(b) Reduction in exports, or, more accurately, in the supply for export.

The first measure is equivalent to a reduction of the supply in general, and the second to a reduction of the supply in the international market. Both these measures were carefully examined by the experts.

7. The crisis through which the timber industry is now passing is of a paradoxical nature. On the one hand, general over-production is depressing the market ; on the other hand, it is generally admitted that the normal world consumption of timber, although it has now been reduced as a result of the general economic depression, still exceeds the possibilities of natural growth of the forests which are economically capable of exploitation. Over-exploitation may one day lead to a shortage of timber.

For a long time past, economists have been taking alarm at the shrinkage of forest reserves. The afforested area is constantly diminishing, and the average capacity of production is also declining in those forests which remain. Standard works on forestry state that, of the world consumption of a milliard and a-half cubic metres, only one milliard is obtained from normal fellings ; one-third of the amount consumed — namely, half a milliard — is taken from the forest capital. Even America, despite her immense timber resources, recognises the necessity for rational exploitation in order to prevent their too rapid reduction.

It is safe to say that, under existing conditions, the timber crisis would be overcome if the principles of a rational forest economy were universally adopted, and if the thoughtless exploitation of the " timber capital " could be brought to an end.

If *fellings* were restricted to the normal growth of the forests, the reduction in supply would exercise a decisive influence on the timber market. Equilibrium could more easily be restored if excessive fellings and over-exploitation ceased and normal exploitation was resumed.

A return to the rational exploitation of forests is essential, not only for the distant future, in view of the necessity of preventing deforestation, but also for the immediate future. The international limitation of felling during the present period of reduced consumption would help to preserve the forest capital — which is built up during long decades — from heavy losses. It would reduce the evil which is at the root of all the troubles from which the timber market is suffering — namely, over-production.

That is the opinion of several experts. They express the hope that every country will restrict its fellings to the annual growth of timber capital and will guard against over-production, which ruins the owner of the forest. They consider that the adoption by all producing countries of the principle of restricting the annual fellings to this growth in forests which are commercially accessible and utilisable might help to relieve the crisis. They recommend that the International Institute of Agriculture should make a careful study of this question and should endeavour to centralise all the necessary information in order to consider the possibility of an international convention to ensure compliance with the principles of rational forest exploitation in all European and non-European countries.

However, we have to take into consideration the fact that, as things are at present, a concerted restriction of fellings does not appear to be a practical proposition. It is very difficult to interfere with the forest policy of each country, and States possessing very large timber reserves refuse to take any action in this matter, in view of the development of their national economy and home consumption.

Moreover, there is no international means of control for the limitation of fellings, and, even in the purely national sphere, effective control would present great difficulties.

8. The experts of the exporting countries represented at the meeting all agreed that, failing any restriction in regard to exploitation, the *regulation of exports* might assist the recovery of the market. At the present time, the volume of exports is falling rapidly, and the question arises whether exports should be restricted in a haphazard manner, simply by the preventive action taken by each importing country, or whether restriction by agreement is possible.

Present circumstances appear to indicate the advisability of the conclusion of arrangements between the principal exporting countries in regard to the quantities to be exported. Such measures should be capable of adaptation to future circumstances.

Several experts of importing countries, although in some respects those countries appear to benefit by the present competition, are also in favour of the rationing of imports in the interests both of the stability of prices and of the maintenance of the purchasing power of populations depending on forestry.

While certain experts consider that, in normal times, the principle of free trade alone can secure the prosperous development of the international timber trade, in a period of crisis, on the other hand, unrestricted freedom of timber exports would increase the existing lack of balance, reduce prices, cause a continuous depreciation of the stocks and disorganise timber production and trade.

Strenuous efforts have, it is true, already been made to combat the fall in prices. Recognising the dangers with which the timber market is threatened, certain countries have reduced their production at the source by restricting fellings; others have endeavoured to regulate the supply by means of agreements concluded between exporters. In the national sphere, strong and well-disciplined organisations have been established and have brought about a reduction in the exports of the respective countries.

However, all these efforts suffered from a lack of co-ordination which condemned them to failure. While certain countries reduced or rationed their production, others increased their exports.

In the course of the meeting, the experts of the exporting countries stated that their countries possessed, or could easily establish, central organisations which could be parties on their behalf to an international commercial arrangement, and they reached an agreement upon a number of points :

(a) They are of opinion that the only means of immediate assistance lies in the adaptation of the exports of all exporting countries to the capacity of absorption of the importing countries, in an equitable manner on the basis of a friendly agreement. Such adaptation must take the form of a fixed percentage and must correspond to the real import needs of the consuming countries.

(b) In estimating consumption requirements, it is necessary to take as a basis, not theoretical figures, but the statistics for the last few years; in view of the present situation, it is also essential to deduct a "crisis percentage", to be determined later, from those estimates.

(c) In fixing the percentages to be assigned to the exports of the different countries, the special conditions of producing countries and of the national timber industries must be taken into consideration.

(d) In order to fix the respective quotas and the quantities to be imported into the importing countries, it is necessary that the exporting countries concerned should enter into purely commercial negotiations with each other. The co-operation of the importing countries concerned is required in order to guarantee the success of these negotiations.

The experts of exporting countries in Northern Europe expressed the desire to open commercial negotiations immediately with a view to the settlement of timber questions outstanding between them. In particular, the experts of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics stated that they would recommend the Soviet Union export organisations to take all possible measures in order to conclude commercial agreements with exporting organisations of other countries.

The experts of the Central European countries consider that the ideal arrangement would be a general agreement, for which a good start could be made by means of an agreement between northern States. However, if the obstacles in the way of a general agreement prove insurmountable, the Central European States consider that an agreement between themselves would be advantageous.

In the hope of arriving at a general arrangement, they agreed to organise on June 9th, 1932, at Vienna, a meeting to which all the countries concerned have been invited — whether they were or were not represented at the present consultations of experts.

Preparations for this further meeting will be made by the Austrian delegation, which will also take steps to organise it.

The experts will recommend their respective Governments to appoint duly accredited delegates to that Conference.

They will prepare the necessary statistics and forward them through the Austrian delegation to all the countries concerned and invited.

A small committee has been instructed to prepare the detailed programme of the Conference.

9. Among other matters, the Vienna Conference will have on its agenda a proposal for the establishment of an international timber office. This proposal, the principle of which was put forward at several conferences and congresses, was made by the French experts.

Such an office would facilitate co-operation between producing countries and would help to bring about closer contact between the parties concerned. It might

possibly enable schemes, the utility of which is generally recognised by timber producers, to be carried out. In particular, it would be the duty of the office to study from an international standpoint the various problems arising out of the timber trade, the exploitation of forests, the necessity of maintaining the supply for export on a level with estimated consumption, etc.

Moreover, the office might deal with a number of technical questions of great importance to the timber trade, such as the establishment of uniform regulations in regard to the purchase of timber, the institution of an international court of arbitration to deal with disputes, etc.

The office would work in connection with the International Institute of Agriculture, which, since its foundation, has given its close attention to forestry problems, and particularly to the question of forestry statistics. The Institute, which possesses a Forestry Bureau and a specialised statistical service, would be prepared, in future, to enlarge the scope of its activities in the matter of forestry, and to extend the field of its researches to other questions connected with the timber problem (trade, prices, etc.).

The idea of an international timber office was favourably received by the majority of the experts, although some expressed doubts as to its usefulness. The Soviet Union experts are opposed to it; they consider that the regulation of trade should be carried out on the basis of special commercial agreements between the exporting countries concerned, and that the relations between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and various importing countries should be shaped so as to exclude the possibility of any discrimination against Soviet Union timber. According to the Soviet Union experts, an international timber office would not be in a position to provide any guarantee against such discrimination.

* * *

The experts expressed their satisfaction at the opportunity which had been given them of exchanging their views as to the best means of relieving the present depression. They will inform the Economic Committee of the results of the action undertaken, and trust that it will continue in the future to devote its attention to questions relating to the international timber trade.

The Economic Committee will doubtless follow closely the efforts made in the international sphere with a view to the organisation of the timber trade as the outcome of the present consultation of experts.

It would be desirable for the Economic Committee to propose to the Council that the present report should be communicated to Governments, pointing out to them the value, in view of the present situation, of the opinions expressed at the present meeting.

ANNEX.

LIST OF EXPERTS.

Austria : M. Félix FEEST, Engineer, Director of the Principal Association of Forest and Landowners' Associations.

M. Karl JANICZEK, Engineer, Forestry Director of the Mayr-Melnhof Land Administration.

M. MEYER.

Canada : Mr. Harrison WATSON, Canadian Government Trade Commissioner in the United Kingdom.

Czechoslovakia : Dr. LOKOWICZ, President of the Association of Landowners.

M. Léon KOERNER, Member of the Czechoslovak Central Timber Board.

M. HART, Engineer, Adviser to the Ministry of Agriculture.

Finland : M. Rudolf HOLSTI, Permanent Delegate of Finland accredited to the League of Nations.

M. Antti HACKZELL, Director of the Confederation of Employers Organisations of Finland, former Minister.

Dr. Orni KOSKIKALLIO.

France : M. René BARBIER, President of the Committee of Management of the Timber Group of the General Confederation of French Production.

M. CHAPLAIN, Inspector-General of Woods and Forests, attached to the Cabinet of the Minister of Agriculture.

M. GRANDCLÉMENT, President of the Syndical Chamber of the Timber Trade at Lyons.

M. MAGNEIN, Commissioner for Woods and Forests.

Germany : Dr. H. STROHMEYER, Adviser to the Ministry of Agriculture.

Great-Britain : Mr. H. M. BELL, Delegate of the Timber Trade Federation of the United Kingdom.

Italy : Professor Cav. Ottavio SCRITTORE, of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forests.

Comm. Umberto CANTONI, President of the National Technical Committee of the National Fascist Commercial Confederation.

Latvia : M. André TEIKMANIS, of the Latvian Ministry of Agriculture, Professor at the University of Riga.

Netherlands : M. G. VAN CALCAR, President of the Netherlands Timber Trade Federation.

M. C. KEY, Delegate of the Netherlands Timber Trade Federation.

Poland : Count Krystyn OSTROWSKI DE RAWITA, President of the Supreme Council of Timber Associations in Poland.

M. Witold BABINSKI, Director of the Central Syndicate of Forest-owners in Poland.

M. Witold CZERWINSKI, Director of the Supreme Council of Timber Associations in Poland.

M. BABANSKI, Director of the Chamber of Industry and Commerce at Vilna.

Dr. SILBERSTEIN.

M. ZOLTOWSKI.

Roumania : M. Dionys DE ANHAUCH, Vice-President of the General Union of Industrialists of Roumania, Director-Delegate of the "Bucovina" Forest Company.

M. Petre IOAN, Engineer, Inspector of Forests, Sub-Director General of the Autonomous Administration of Forests of the Roumanian State.

M. STERBA, Head of the Commercial Service of the Autonomous Administration of Forests of the Roumanian State.

Sweden : M. J. L. EKMAN, Director of the Swedish Timber Exporters' Association.

Union of Soviet Socialist Republics : M. Saul BRON, Member of the College of the People's Commissariat for Foreign Trade.

M. Jonás KOTIK, Member of the College of the People's Commissariat for the Timber Industry.

Dr. Gregory EITINGEN, Professor of Forestry at the Agricultural Academy of Moscow.

Yugoslavia : Dr ULMANSKI, Director-General of the Dobrljin-Drvar Timber Works.

M. MAUTNER, Secretary-General of the Union of Timber Industrialists and Merchants of Zagreb.

M. Milan LENARCIĆ, President of the Timber Section of the Union of Industrialists of Ljubliana.

M. Milan MARINOVITCH, Professor at the University of Belgrade.

2. THE SITUATION IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

On the occasion of the consultation held in April 1932, several experts submitted notes describing the position of the timber industry. These notes were drawn up on such lines as to meet the Economic Committee's wishes, and therefore generally consisted of two parts; one part contained a statement of the facts with regard to the timber industry and trade in the different countries; the other part, which was frequently lengthier, discussed the possibilities of international action.

The second part of the experts' notes has not been reproduced here, as the ideas developed therein have been embodied in the report of the delegation of the Economic Committee published above, which is chiefly devoted to international action. On the other hand, it has seemed desirable to extract from the experts' notes certain data which afford an accurate idea of the forestry systems applied in a number of countries.

Mention has also been made of certain books or pamphlets which, according to the experts, present a true picture of the conditions in which the timber industry is being carried on in certain countries. The information contained in these publications serves to supplement and clarify the general information given in the introductory note of the report.

Austria.

The area under timber in Austria is 3,138,161 hectares. Forests cover 37.4 per cent of the total area of the country. The average per 100 inhabitants is 48 hectares. Austria is consequently an exporter of timber.

Of the forests 24.1 per cent are the property of the State, the Federal Provinces, or other public bodies; 75.9 per cent are private property (including churches and religious institutions, 4.2 per cent and local authorities and co-operative societies, 4.4 per cent).

The following figures show the important place held by the timber export trade in Austrian economic life:

Timber and Timber Products.

Year	Imports in metric tons	Exports in metric tons	Exports as percentage of value of total exports	Excess of exports
1927	122,880	2,126,674	12.9	2,003,860
1928	157,760	2,617,590	13.3	2,459,830
1929	199,570	2,239,560	12.7	2,039,990
1930	131,640	1,757,240	11.5	1,625,600
1931	124,650	1,227,410	9.4	1,102,760
Average	147,300	1,993,710	12	1,846,410

Of the total forest area, 83.7 per cent is covered by resinous and 16.3 per cent by deciduous species. Of the resinous species, the most important are pine (about 58 per cent), *pinus sylvestris* (10 per cent), fir (7 per cent) and larch (7 per cent); of the deciduous species, beech (10 per cent) and oak (2 per cent). Thus the output is mainly resinous timber, particularly pine.

At certain intervals (five or ten years), a census is taken of the available supply of various species, the average increase of resinous and deciduous types, and the proportion of building timber and of combustible. The last census, in 1930, showed the following results:

The average annual increase is 3.03 cubic metres per hectare

	Cubic metres
— <i>i.e.</i> , for the total forest area	9,523,000
of this amount, building timber	5,809,000
and combustible	3,714,000

Consumption is about 0.94 cubic metres per head of the population; total consumption is	6,158,000
of this amount, building timber	2,438,000
and combustible	3,720,000
There is thus an annual surplus of timber of about	3,371,000

This surplus is almost entirely of resinous timber.

The natural surplus which might be exported is thus about 3,500,000 cubic metres of resinous timber per year, the minimum figure being about 3,000,000 cubic metres, and the maximum (taking account of old reserves still existing in many forests) 4,000,000 cubic metres.

As regards stocks of raw material (logs) and manufactured products, regular returns have not hitherto been made. The proportion of State and communal forests in the total area is, as has been shown above, 24.1 per cent plus 4.4 per cent — *i.e.*, 28.5 per cent.

The exercise of ownership is subject to certain legal restrictions in all forests. These regulations vary in the different federal provinces. In certain districts the restrictions go so far as to require an authorisation from the forest authorities to be given for any felling beyond the normal needs of the household and estate.

Customs Duties.

Timber for building and joinery	Gold Crowns
(a) Conifers and copper beech :	
1. Logs, squared	2.—
2. Sawn lengthwise, cut, split, dried, but not otherwise worked	4.—
(b) Other deciduous species :	
1. Logs, squared	Free
2. Sawn lengthwise, cut, split, dried, but not otherwise worked	Free

In the treaty with Germany of August 12th, 1930, Austria agreed not to levy export duties on log timber; sawn timber and newsprint are free of export duty.

In Austria there is no organisation for timber export, which is left to free competition. Any organisation of this trade would meet, *inter alia*, with the difficulty that among the 5,800 sawmills in Austria there are a large number of

small undertakings, particularly in the frontier districts of Tyrol, Salzburg and Upper Austria, which export. The grouping of all these undertakings into a single organisation has met with further difficulties from the fact that, besides sawmills exporting direct, there are also a large number of timber merchants distributed throughout Austria who likewise deal in the export trade.

The setting-up of a national organisation for timber export could not be considered, because there are also other timber-exporting countries which have no cartels, and an Austrian cartel therefore would not be able to maintain export prices, since it would immediately encounter the competition of other exporting countries in the markets of third States.

The following table gives information as to the destination of timber exported from Austria :

Destination	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
		Percentage of total exports			
Czechoslovakia	3.8	7.1	15.1	9.1	7.2
France	8.6	7.2	10.3	14.4	17.5
Germany	37.0	42.9	24.2	22.4	13.0
Hungary	8.7	7.7	8.4	6.0	9.0
Italy	30.2	21.6	29.6	37.3	30.1
Switzerland	9.4	11.5	10.7	10.4	14.1
Other countries	2.3	2.0	1.7	0.4	1.3

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"The Forests and Forest Products Industry of Canada" (*The Canadian Industrial Field*, Chapter XI). Prepared by the Forest Service, Department of the Interior.

"Forestry in Canada" (Reprinted from the *Canada Year-Book*, 1930), Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Ottawa, 1930.

"The Lumber Industry, 1928-29" (Census of Industry). Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Ottawa, 1931.

Czechoslovakia.

Czechoslovak Encyclopædia: "Forests", V. Brdlik, Prague, 1929.

Estonia.

M. R. MICKWITZ, *Corresponding Member of the Economic Committee of the League of Nations*.

The total area of the forests in Estonia is 933,880 hectares, of which about 80 per cent belong to the Government. During the year 1930-31, the Government opened up for exploitation 1,832,064 cubic metres of forests, of which 48.2 per cent were exploited by the Government forestry industry, 29.4 per cent were sold to various organisations, either at a fixed price or at specially reduced prices (the

purchasers being for the most part new settlers), 4.3 per cent were distributed free to various Government institutions, and 24.8 per cent were sold by auction. From the point of view of the position of the timber market, it is this latter item that presents the greatest interest. At the auctions which took place in the autumn of 1931, 6,148 hectares of forests were offered for sale, but only 1,184 hectares (19.6 per cent) were sold, the margin over the reserve price of taxation being on an average only 2.8 per cent. The following table shows the position :

Period of sale	Sales effected in hectares	Percentage sold out of total offered for sale	Percentage margin over reserve prices
1927-28	3,524	77.4	61.5
1928-29	2,400	74.7	59.9
1929-30	2,407	83.8	64.4
1930-31	1,411	49.6	7.6
1931-32	1,184	19.6	2.8

In order that the very meagre results of the 1931-32 sale may be better appreciated, it should be added that the reserve price was lower in April 1931 by 23 per cent as compared with the price of the previous year, and yet the margin over that price was only 2.8 per cent, and less than 20 per cent of the quantity offered for sale found buyers.

The data given above may be supplemented by the attached comparative table, which reproduces the prices for 1931 and those for 1913. This table shows that, with one exception, the prices of standing timber of all types were materially lower in 1931 than in 1913. Costs of exploitation, transport and administration being, generally speaking, higher in 1931 than in 1913, the cost of production was greater than in 1913. The market price in 1931 being materially lower than in 1913, the cost of production was higher than the market price in the five cases considered in the table. To make good this difference, the Estonian Government is obliged once more to lower the "price of standing timber" and to do all in its power to reduce all the other expenses which go to make up the cost of production.

**CALCULATION OF THE PRICES OF FORESTRY MATERIALS ON THE BASIS OF THE PRICES
FOR 1931 AND 1913.**

Type and dimensions	Cost of production of forestry material according to actual expenses free at port of export							Market price of materials	Difference between market price and cost of production	
	Price of standing timber according to price fixed on 1. IV. 31	Cost of felling	Transport from forest to a distance of 10 kilometres	Transport by rail	Loading	Administrative expenses and percentage on capital	Cost of production of materials			
	In crowns									
1. Beams of conifer wood of medium diameter one cubic meter . . .	1931 . . .	3.85	0.70	2.80	3.00	0.71	2.21	13.27	10.00	- 3.27
	1913 . . .	5.38	0.65	2.00	2.42	0.58	1.65	12.68	14.78	+ 2.10
	Difference . . .	- 1.53	+ 0.05	+ 0.80	+ 0.58	+ 0.13	+ 0.56	+ 0.59	- 4.78	
2. Pine pit-props IV a. one square metre . . .	1931 . . .	1.26	1.05	1.45	0.89	0.25	0.98	5.88	4.00	- 1.88
	1913 . . .	1.84	0.65	1.28	0.74	0.19	0.71	5.41	5.75	+ 0.34
	Difference . . .	- 0.58	+ 0.45	+ 0.17	+ 0.15	+ 0.06	+ 0.27	+ 0.47	- 1.75	
3. Billets for pulp making IV a. one square metre	1931 . . .	1.54	1.05	1.45	1.09	0.25	1.08	6.46	5.40	- 1.06
	1913 . . .	1.38	0.65	1.28	0.97	0.19	0.67	5.14	6.25	+ 1.11
	Difference . . .	+ 0.16	+ 0.40	+ 0.17	+ 0.12	+ 0.06	+ 0.41	+ 1.32	- 0.85	
4. Birch blocks, one cubic metre	1931 . . .	5.10	1.00	3.00	3.42	0.65	2.63	15.80	14.25	- 1.55
	1913 . . .	5.78	0.70	2.40	2.42	0.59	1.78	13.67	16.10	+ 2.43
	Difference . . .	- 0.68	+ 0.30	+ 0.60	+ 1.00	+ 0.06	+ 0.85	+ 2.13	- 1.85	
5. Aspen blocks, one cubic metre	1931 . . .	3.20	1.00	3.00	2.15	0.65	2.00	12.00	11.00	- 1.00
	1913 . . .	5.78	0.70	2.40	1.58	0.59	1.66	12.71	19.20	+ 6.49
	Difference . . .	- 2.58	+ 0.30	+ 0.60	+ 0.57	+ 0.06	+ 0.34	- 0.71	- 8.20	

Finland.

Finland has a total area of 34.4 million hectares; 25.3 million hectares are wooded, of which 23.1 million hectares, or 67 per cent of the total area, are covered with productive forests.

TIMBER RESOURCES.

The productive forests are distributed as follows:

	Million hectares	Per cent
Private persons	12.61	54.6
State lands	8.16	35.3
Companies	1.91	8.3
Religious communities	0.25	1.1
Communes	0.17	0.7
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	23.10	100

The timber resources were ascertained by the official survey of forests carried out in 1921-1924. In 1927 the consumption was studied in detail by the Institute of Forestry. The timber resources then amounted to 1,371.4 million cubic metres, excluding bark, and the annual growth to 44.4 million cubic metres. The different species are represented as follows:

	Resources	Annual growth
	(In millions of cubic metres)	
Pine	661	19.71
Fir	405	12.26
Birch	271	10.30
Aspen, elm, etc.	34	2.13
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	1,371	44.40

CONSUMPTION.

The consumption was estimated in 1927 at 39.9 million cubic metres, but the amount felled in the same year was 45.6 million cubic metres. The loss in floating on the rivers and the waste in felling were estimated at 5.7 million cubic metres. As the growth was 44.4 million cubic metres, there was thus a deficit of 1.2 million cubic metres in 1927.

The quantities felled and the growth are distributed among the various species as follows :

	Pine	Fir (In millions of cubic metres)	Birch	Others	Total
Consumption	19.9	12.3	3.5	2.2	39.9
Loss in floating and waste in felling	2.9	1.8	0.7	0.3	5.7
Quantity felled	22.8	14.1	6.2	2.5	45.6
Growth	19.7	12.3	10.3	2.1	44.4
Excess or deficit	-3.1	-1.8	+4.1	-0.4	-1.2

The consumption of timber in 1927 was distributed as follows :

	Millions of cubic metres	Percentage
1. Exports of unworked timber	4.3	10.8
2. Industrial consumption :		
(a) Fuel, 1.5 million cubic metres	19.6	49.1
(b) Raw material, 12.1 million cubic metres.)		
3. Trade consumption	1.4	3.5
4. Domestic consumption by the rural population	12.8	32.1
5. Miscellaneous	1.8	4.5
	39.9	100

In recent years, the exports of unworked timber have suffered a constant decline amounting, in 1931, to 1.6 million cubic metres.

In view of the considerable decrease in the operations of the saw-mills, it may be estimated that, although the production of cellulose and wood-pulp has increased, the raw material consumed in the worked timber industry in 1931 amounted to only about 14.0 million cubic metres; at the present time, therefore, there is not a deficit but an excess of raw material amounting to about 5.6 million cubic metres. There is thus no over-production at present. According to the experts, if the Finnish forests were more intensively exploited they could produce at least 60 million cubic metres per year.

FORESTRY LEGISLATION.

The right of private owners to exploit their forests is restricted by the provisions of the law of May 11th, 1928. The forests must not be devastated or subjected to fellings on such a scale as to endanger their natural growth. Young growing timber must not be felled except in accordance with the rules of rational afforestation.

Otherwise, the private owner of the forest has full freedom, under the legislation in force, to exploit his timber resources.

EXPORTS.

Exports of timber and forest products play a predominant part in the foreign trade of Finland. The following table gives details of the quantities and value of the exports of various kinds of these products in 1931 :

Kind	Quantity (In cubic metres)	Value in Finnish marks
Unworked logs :		
Of coniferous trees : billets, wood for paper-making, pittprops, etc.	1,552,858	184,606,247
Of deciduous trees	42,782	15,579,588
Chopped timber : fuel	41,428	2,171,600
Squared timber	71,174	14,226,284
Sawn timber (of all kinds of coniferous trees)	3,476,049	1,207,495,464
Planed timber	167,155	76,308,045
Sawn timber (of deciduous trees)	23,090	12,713,381
	(In kilogrammes)	
Veneer	75,710,768	190,462,798
Reels	4,819,196	41,148,182
Wood pulp	157,394,654	151,113,481
Cellulose, sulphite	478,956,822	693,715,828
Cellulose, sulphate	224,520,709	261,547,335
Cardboard	47,494,681	78,461,639
Paper : all kinds	276,371,396	629,943,865
		3,559,493,737

As the value of the total exports from Finland last year amounted to 4,455 million marks, the exports of timber, wrought and unwrought, and timber products formed 80 per cent of this total. The exports of sawn and planed resinous timber amounted to 3,643,204 cubic metres or 779,710 standards, of a value of 1,283,003,509 Finnish marks and formed 29 per cent of the value of all Finnish exports.

When the exports of sawn and planed timber reached their maximum (1927) — namely, 1,278,000 standards — the value was 2,806,098,978 Finnish marks or 44 per cent of that of all exports. The Finnish saw-mills, which have a capacity of about 1.5 million standards, have voluntarily reduced their production, in order to help to restore the equilibrium between supply and demand and thus to stabilise the timber market.

Finnish exports of sawn and planed timber other than fir and pine are insignificant.

The consumption of sawn and planed timber in the country is from about 130,000 to 150,000 standards per year. Like other branches of industry, the saw-mills are obliged to furnish annual returns on their production for publication.

In 1931, the State saw-mills exported about 42,000 standards of fir and pine and the private undertakings 738,000 standards. There are at present about 200 private undertakings engaged in exportation; 20 of these firms exported more than 10,000 standards each in 1931.

There are no laws regulating the production of the saw-mills or the exportation of timber; each exporter enjoys complete liberty. Since 1924, exports of sawn and wrought timber have not been subject to any export tax or duty.

ORGANISATION OF TIMBER EXPORTS.

The timber exporters have a central organisation, the Association of Finnish Saw-mill Owners, whose members at present represent 75 to 80 per cent of the total exports of sawn pine and fir. This Association looks after the general economic and political interests of the timber industry but does not act as an intermediary

for the sale of its members' goods. Moreover, it is not so organised that it can at once assume international obligations on behalf of the exporters of saw-mill products, such as an obligation to restrict exports. On the basis of individual engagements entered into not only by the members of the Association, but by practically all Finnish timber exporters, the Association has on various occasions assumed certain obligations. For instance, in 1930, it gave an undertaking to the Swedish Timber Export Association to reduce its offer of timber for export in 1931 by 20 per cent.

France.

A. TIMBER PRODUCTION.

I. AFFORESTED AREAS, OWNERSHIP AND EXPLOITATION.

1. Controlled Forests.

	State forests	Communal forests and forests of public institutions	Total
		(In hectares)	
Unproductive areas	148,500	76,500	225,000
Coppice of one variety, thinned or cleared	26,000	272,000	298,000
Coppice-underwood	333,000	1,097,000	1,429,000
Coppice in regrowth	104,000	16,200	120,200
Timber forest	822,500	715,300	1,537,800
Total area	1,434,000	2,177,000	3,611,000

2. Uncontrolled Forests.

	Private forests	Communal forests	Total
		(In hectares)	
Unproductive areas	245,300	31,000	276,300
Coppice of one variety, thinned or cleared	1,911,000	82,000	1,993,000
Coppice-underwood	2,398,000	18,700	2,416,700
Coppice in regrowth	43,500	1,500	45,000
Timber forest	1,876,000	135,000	2,011,000
Total area	6,473,800	268,200	6,742,000

3. Aggregate Totals.

	Controlled forests	Uncontrolled forests	Total
		(In hectares)	
Unproductive areas	225,000	276,300	501,300
Coppice of one variety, thinned or cleared	298,000	1,993,000	2,291,000
Coppice-undergrowth	1,429,000	2,416,700	3,845,700
Coppice in regrowth	120,200	45,000	165,200
Timber forest	1,537,800	2,011,000	3,548,800
Total area	3,610,000	6,742,000	10,352,000

The above table shows that the State itself does not own more than a little over one-tenth of the total area of French forests.

The controlled communal forests and controlled forests belonging to public institutions make up an additional one-fifth of the whole, so that the total area of forests, the exploitation of which is controlled by the State (3,148,071 hectares), represents approximately one-third of the afforested area in France.

The percentage of afforestation in France is 18.7 (as compared with 60 per cent in Finland, 20 per cent in Norway, 54 per cent in Sweden, 23 per cent in Roumania, 25 per cent in Germany and 32 per cent in Yugoslavia).

II. NUMBER AND AREA OF FOREST PROPERTIES.

Private forest property is split up to a very large extent :

Hectares	Owners
Below 10	1,445,730
10 to 50	63,734
50 to 200	15,789
Over 200	3,299

III. EXPLOITATION (see Section I).

IV. SPECIES.

Deciduous species represent three-quarters of the entire area of French forests : coniferous species represent only one-quarter.

Of the deciduous species, much the commonest is the oak, which alone covers one-third of the total area.

Of the coniferous species, the commonest is the Mediterranean pine, which accounts for one-tenth of the total area. The Pignada of the Landes, the largest forest in France, in which this tree is the principal species, is due of course to a great extent to artificial reforestation.

After the Mediterranean pine comes the northern pine, which accounts for one-twentieth of the total area. This tree has also been planted on a large scale in connection with reforested areas (Sologne, etc.).

The spruce, which comes next, is a natural growth. It only accounts for a little over one-thirtieth of the afforested area.

The percentages of distribution of the different forms of timber in the French forests may be summarised as follows :

Forms of exploitation :

	Percentage
Timber forest	34
Coppice-underwood	38.3
Coppice of one variety	22.7
Unproductive areas	5

Species :

	Percentage
Deciduous	63
Coniferous	15
Mixed	17
Clearings	5

The detailed percentages of the above species are as follows :

Deciduous		Percentage	
Common oak	<i>Q. sessiliflora</i>	29	} 72
Pedunculated oak	<i>Q. pedunculata</i>	4	
Evergreen oak	<i>Q. elaz</i>	19	
Beech	<i>Fagus sylvatica</i>	12	
Hornbeam	<i>Carpinus betulus</i>	8	
Miscellaneous			
Resinous			
Epicea	<i>Picea excelsa</i>	3	} 28
Fir	<i>Abies pectinata</i>	7	
Larch	<i>Larix europaea</i>	2	
Northern pine	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	4.5	
Mediterranean pine	<i>Pinus maritima</i>	3	
Aleppo pine	<i>Pinus halepensis</i>	0.5	
Miscellaneous		8	

V. PRODUCTION.

It is difficult to give even approximate figures of the production, in view of the fact that two-thirds of the French forests (to which should be added the hedgerows and poplars) are not subject to control of any kind.

Moreover, there have been considerable changes in the production owing to the total or partial destruction of a portion of the French forests during the war (approximately 350,000 hectares, the utilisable timber production of which will be non-existent for 60 years at least), and as a result of the restoration of Alsace-Lorraine to France (441,570 hectares, the annual production of which is 741,000 cubic metres of utilisable timber and 550,000 cubic metres of firewood).

Subject to these reservations, it may be said that the utilisable timber production of France is in the neighbourhood of 8,000,000 cubic metres, of which 7,000,000 come from the forests and 1,000,000 from the hedgerows — trees planted along roads or canals and poplar plantations.

The output of forests, properly speaking, is made up as follows :

	Utilisable timber	Firewood	Total
		(In cubic metres)	
State forests	1,900,000	1,700,000	3,600,000
Communal forests, etc.	1,900,000	3,900,000	5,800,000
Private forests, etc.	3,200,000	12,800,000	16,000,000
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	7,000,000	18,400,000	25,400,000

B. TIMBER TRADE.

As a result of the world crisis, imports during the last two years have tended to increase beyond the normal limits, owing to the very low prices at which foreign timber could be bought. This situation has compelled France to establish import quotas for the principal forms of timber (logs, sawn logs, pit-prop timber, frame timber and flooring timber) by a Decree of August 27th, 1931, and to increase the Customs rates by a Decree of July 11th, 1931, in the case of the general tariff, and a Decree of March 26th, 1932, in the case of the minimum tariff.

Analysis of the details of the foreign trade figures shows that France exports unworked oak logs and firewood.

France imports coniferous logs, sawn timber of all kinds, sleepers, stave wood and wood for pulping.

Among the latter items it is necessary further to distinguish those which France is compelled to import (sawn resinous timber from northern Europe, which has no counterpart in France, and timber for pulping, of which she produces very little).

Pit-prop timber is imported by France and also exported; but it would be possible to export very much more and import very much less, if the Landes timber recovered its normal market in the English mines.

Germany.

Dr. H. STROHMEYER.

A. OUTPUT.

I. AREA UNDER TIMBER AND CATEGORIES OF OWNERS.

The total forest area in Germany amounted, according to the returns for 1927, to 12,654,176.6 hectares, including felled areas and clearings. This is sub-divided as follows:

	Hectares
(a) Government forests	4,131,425.1
(b) Forests belonging to communes, institutions and co-operative societies	2,470,837.6
(c) Private forests	6,051,913.9
Total	<u>12,654,176.6</u>

The Government forests are distributed over sixteen German States. The Reich owns only about 32,600 hectares. The various German States enjoy complete autonomy in the administration of their State forests.

II. NUMBER AND AREA OF FOREST UNDERTAKINGS.

	Undertakings
Less than 2 hectares	474,188
" " 2 to 100 hectares	348,948
" " 100 to 1,000 hectares	10,491
" " 1,000 to 5,000 hectares	1,926
More than 5,000 hectares	192
Total	<u>835,745</u>

III. METHODS OF EXPLOITATION.

The area under timber is distributed as follows, according to the principal methods of exploitations:

	Hectares
Full-grown trees	11,654,224.3
Underwood	558,699.5
Underwood with trees	441,252.8

IV. SPECIES.

Resinous trees predominate in the German forests: they cover 71 per cent of the timbered area, deciduous trees representing only 29 per cent. Of the conifers, firs predominate in the north and pines in the south.

The following table shows the distribution of resinous woods and deciduous woods among the State, communal and private forests:

	Conifers Hectares	Deciduous trees Hectares
(a) Government forests	3,091,850.0	1,039,575.1
(b) Forests belonging to communes, institutions and co-operative societies.	1,351,729.1	1,119,108.5
(c) Private forests	4,566,582.1	1,485,331.8
Total	9,010,161.2	3,644,015.4

V. OUTPUT OF BUILDING WOOD, ETC.

(Only thick wood is included here: that is to say, wood of a diameter of more than seven centimetres at the thin end.)

The total output of thick wood amounted in 1927 to 42,185,104 steres (building wood and firewood).

This figure comprises:

30,598,457 steres of resinous wood and
11,586,647 steres of deciduous wood.

If we take only building wood, this is distributed as follows as between resinous woods and deciduous woods:

	Deciduous trees Steres	Conifers Steres
(a) Government forests	1,531,978.9	10,102,055.7
(b) Forests belonging to communes, institutions and co-operative societies.	727,157.2	3,624,058.1
(c) Private forests	1,105,661.6	7,845,380.2
Total	3,364,797.7	21,571,494.0

Except in the case of small undertakings, which are obliged to content themselves with intermittent exploitation, the main object sought in the exploitation of public and private forests is continuity. On condition that they exploit the forests carefully, the owners of timber enjoy a large measure of freedom. The legislation of the Reich and the States is designed to prevent timber from being wasted or uneconomically exploited. The statistical returns for the yield of the Government and private forests are compiled at fairly long intervals, the last return being compiled in 1927 and the previous one in 1913. Extensive statistical data are furnished each year for the yield of the Government forests of the principal German States.

B. TRADE.

In spite of her extensive forest area, Germany has for long imported large quantities of timber, these imports attaining their maximum in 1928, since when they have considerably diminished.

As regards the trade in resinous wood for building, which plays the principal part in the international timber trade, the following table shows the development of imports and exports during the last few years :

	Imports	Exports	Excess of imports over exports
	Tons	Tons	Tons
1913	6,608,520	443,828	6,164,703
1927	7,597,729	637,332	6,960,397
1928	7,930,184	533,101	7,397,083
1930	5,007,736	1,142,585	3,865,151
1931	2,845,070	1,010,725	1,834,345

The following figures indicate the amount of pulp-wood contained in the above amounts :

	Imports	Exports
	Tons	Tons
1913 (approximately)	1,285,000	67,000
1927 "	1,911,000	17,000
1928 "	2,259,000	18,000
1930 "	2,110,000	33,000
1931 "	1,459,000	44,000

The above figures cannot serve as a basis for estimating future imports or exports of timber. It would also be incorrect to suppose that the figures for imports furnish an exact indication of Germany's real requirements in timber. In view of the low level of the prices actually obtaining on the European timber market, it is possible that quantities of timber are imported which are in themselves superfluous, and which, exclusively on account of their lower price, keep German timber off the market. A number of facts would seem to indicate that during the next few years Germany may in general be satisfied with her own output of timber, and that her requirements in the matter of imports will be confined to certain special species.

IMPORTS INTO GERMANY (IN TONS).

	From Central European countries			From North European countries			Total		
	1929	1930	1931	1929	1930	1931	1929	1930	1931
1. Billets from conifers	1,090,669	775,584	369,855	438,225	448,084	248,227	1,544,143	1,239,963	627,288
2. Billets from deciduous trees	108,955	68,135	19,948	66,557	36,685	16,529	448,779	410,686	239,420
3. Wood for paper-making	1,154,739	828,832	598,625	1,376,664	1,280,822	859,062	2,533,872	2,110,593	1,459,158
4. Pit-props	207,071	151,894	68,809	75,500	53,432	62,038	285,215	207,259	133,092
5. Sawn wood of conifers	724,813	560,764	196,617	716,510	615,693	311,811	1,645,300	1,362,100	591,037
6. Sawn wood of deciduous trees	71,667	63,102	20,168	6,236	6,273	4,803	131,133	103,616	42,033
7. Railway sleepers	165,560	49,069	7,732	51,617	7,249	12,063	236,351	61,382	21,756
8. Coopers' utensils	13,341	6,662	1,310	11,165	3,000	676	26,772	12,312	3,235

Italy.

M. SCRITTORE and M. CANTONI.

1. PRODUCTION.

The data available with regard to the timbered area, the proportion of the different species, the methods of treatment of timber, the annual growth and the annual felling, and hence consumption, must be regarded as more or less approximate.

The timbered area is estimated at a total of 5,600,000 hectares, made up as follows :

	Percentage
Government property	3
Property of the communes and public institutions	32
Private property	65

The forests may be sub-divided as follows :

	Percentage
Timber forest, approximately	35
Coppice, approximately	55
Coppice-underwood, approximately	10

All these contribute, although to a very different extent, in the production of timber for industrial purposes.

The timber forests consist to the extent of about one-third of conifers, and among the deciduous trees which make up the remainder the chief are the sweet chestnut, the different kinds of oak and the beech.

The total annual production may be estimated at 20,000,000 cubic metres, of which about 2,000,000 are timber for industrial purposes (including wood for paper-making). Deciduous industrial timber represents about two-thirds of this quantity.

This production also includes that derived from the non-wooded areas, which represents about 5,000,000 cubic metres, almost all of which is firewood.

The ownership of the forests is very divided. Woods of several thousand hectares belonging to a single proprietor are not frequent; many of the estates consist of only a few hectares or even of fractions of a hectare.

Woods of minor and small size and some of those of medium size are directly exploited by the owner. The big forests — chief among which are those of the Government and of the communes, to which belong most of the timber forests with the exception of the sweet chestnuts — are on the contrary exploited as a rule by the purchaser of standing timber. The latter exploits the timber on his own account, in order to sell it in a more or less worked state according to the nature of the products, the equipment of the enterprise, the position of the wood, etc. These contractors, who represent the forestry industry, belong to the "production and working of timber" group of the National Federation of the Timber Industry.

2. TRADE.

The total production is approximately sufficient to provide for the needs of consumption as regards firewood and charcoal; it covers only about three-

tenths of the requirements in building timber and particularly resinous timber. Consequently, about four-fifths of the total consumption of resinous timber, including wood-pulp and wood for paper-making, has to be imported. Exports, which are very limited in the case of firewood and industrial timber, are almost non-existent in the case of resinous timber. Italy is consequently a predominantly importing country.

The national body responsible for the supervision of home trade and importation is the National Confederation of Commerce, which has constituted a National Technical Committee on Timber.

The normal importation represents a quarter to one-fifth of the total consumption of wood, including firewood and wood for paper-making. As regards resinous industrial timber, the average imports, in the conditions mentioned above, may be estimated at approximately 3,000,000 cubic metres calculated in the form of rough timber (logs).

The following are the figures for the importation of common timber (logs, squared or sawn), resinous or deciduous, in the last five years, calculated according to the weight of the timber in the condition in which it was imported :

	Tons
1927	1,684,120
1928	1,545,126
1929	1,635,487
1930	1,541,903
1931	1,140,947

These total imports chiefly consist of resinous timber.

In the period under review and in the previous years, imports from Yugoslavia and Austria represented 70 to 80 per cent of the total, followed at a great distance by the United States and Roumania. In 1931, these latter countries were displaced by the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, which improved its position as a supplier of wood to Italy in the first months of the current year.

Italy is largely an importing country, particularly as regards resinous building timber. The surplus of the world output of timber in relation to the reduced consumption has therefore led to a serious fall in prices. This fall, combined with the uncertainty with regard to the quantity and quality of future imports and with regard to selling prices has disturbed and continues to disturb the home production and the timber market.

Latvia.

M. André TEIKMANIS.

According to the last census of agriculture (1929), there were 1,659,223 hectares of woodland in Latvia — i.e., 26.8 per cent of the total area. The forests are owned as follows :

	Hectares	Percentage
State forests	1,386,644	83.6
Private owned	241,949	14.6
Communal	30,630	1.8
Total . . .	1,659,223	100

As compared with the previous census (1923), the forest area has decreased by about 120,000 hectares, owing to the establishment of many new agricultural holdings after the agrarian reforms.

COMPOSITION OF STATE FORESTS.

Conifers	Percentage	
Firs	48.5	} 78.3
Pines	29.8	
Deciduous trees		
Birches	11.9	} 21.7
Aspens	4.9	
Alders	4.4	
Others	0.5	
		100

The composition of private-owned and communal forests is almost the same, although the preponderance of conifers is even more marked.

Forests of full-grown trees are the most usual method of exploitation ; there are only a few coppices and coppice-underwoods.

FORESTRY CONDITIONS.

The area under timber in Latvia is at present 0.87 hectares to each inhabitant (0.96 hectares according to the previous census). This ratio shows that Latvia is particularly suitable to be a timber-exporting country. . Owing to certain geological conditions and qualities of the soil (which is often sandy and unfit for cultivation), there are natural limits in Latvia to the increase of arable land, and those limits have almost been reached since the carrying out of the agrarian reform.

TIMBER PRODUCTION.

	Normal yield (Cubic metres, in round figures)
State forests per annum	3,830,000
Private owned and communal forests per annum.	700,000
Total	4,530,000

which gives 2.7 cubic metres per hectare of forest land.

This represents 65 per cent building timber and 35 per cent firewood.

PROTECTION OF FORESTS.

All forests of over 50 hectares are subject to the law on the protection of forests. They may only be felled in accordance with the established rules of forest management. Other special restrictions apply to defensive forests for the protection of sand-invaded areas and dunes, and to beauty spots ; in these cases, forestry operations are limited or even prohibited.

TIMBER TRADE AND FORESTRY METHODS.

Latvia mainly exports sawn timber, pulp wood for paper-making, pit-props and worked timber (manufactured or semi-manufactured articles such as veneering, slips for matches, papers, etc.).

The value of all the material produced amounted in 1923 to 53.3 million lats¹ (30 per cent of the value of the country's total imports); in 1926, 48.3 million lats (26 per cent); in 1927 83.2 million lats (40 per cent); in 1928, 103.7 million lats (40 per cent); in 1929, 106.8 million lats (39 per cent); and in 1930, 99.3 million lats (41 per cent). The value of forest products and wrought timber exported during the last four years averages about 100 million lats per annum, or 40 per cent of the value of the total exports of the country. These figures show how important the export of timber is for Latvia.

The main countries which import Latvian forest produce are: Great Britain, The Netherlands, France, Belgium, Germany and Denmark.

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Poland.

Count OSTROWSKI.

The forests in Poland cover an area of 8,943,762 hectares or about 23 per cent of the total surface of the country. This works out at about 30 hectares per 100 inhabitants.

The distribution of forests by species presents quite a varied picture. The first place in order of importance is occupied by the pine tree (*pinus silvestris*), which represents 60 per cent of the wooded area. Next come the Norway spruce fir (12 per cent), the common fir (3 per cent) and the oak (5 per cent). The other species represent together 20 per cent of the wooded surface. The latter figure includes a variety of species, some of which are of great importance to the timber trade and industry, such as the alder, the birch, the aspen, etc.

The natural growth is estimated at 21,600,000 cubic metres per annum. This figure expresses the amount of annual interest accruing to the country on its "timber-capital".

¹ One lat = one gold franc.

In the years following upon the war, the production of timber developed along definitely abnormal lines. The reconstitution of the devastated areas very considerably increased the demand for building material. To meet these truly formidable requirements¹, a special law authorised, during a period of transition, extra fellings which were considerably in excess of the growth in the timber capital. Moreover, the reform of the defective agrarian structure (reintegration, parcelling, liquidation of agrarian servitudes) necessitated the transformation of certain timbered areas into agricultural land.

When the reconstruction of the devastated areas was complete and the problem of agrarian reform partially solved, a strict forestry law (June 24th, 1927) reintroduced and gave final sanction to the principles of rational forestry exploitation which had been relaxed during the initial post-war period. In virtue of the fundamental provisions of this law, which is still in force, the annual fellings which it authorises must be strictly in proportion to the growth of the forests and furthermore must conform to the principle of "stabilised exploitation".² The very strict application of these provisions, which is enforced by a complete supervisory organisation (under the Ministry of Agriculture), enables Poland to organise within the framework of the law a regulated and rationed production of the raw material.

The principle of adjusting fellings to the growth of forests lies at the very foundation of the Polish forestry legislation at present in force. Poland has adopted a policy of rational forestry administration which has led to the complete abandonment of the exploitation of "timber-capital".

The annual fellings of timber in Poland are governed by strict rules which enable their extent to be ascertained. It is possible to foresee what amount of the raw material will be on offer at the end of a given space of time. The statistics of sales of rough timber kept up to date by the Government Forestry Administration make it possible to give an approximate estimate of the anticipated industrial production. Another element of information is provided by the monthly statistics of the mechanical sawmills, organised by the Central Statistical Office.

The probable volume of the home consumption of timber may be approximately calculated on the basis of the annual averages, which cover a sufficiently long period to eliminate short-term influences.

The statistics of stocks of raw materials and manufactured products are only in their infancy. The Government Forestry Administration draws up each year, at the end of the financial period (September 30th), a detailed return of the stocks in its possession. Private industrial and commercial firms also take stock at the end of the financial period for accountancy purposes. It would be comparatively easy to compile statistics of the stocks available at the end of the financial period.

Statistics of the movement of stocks in the course of the financial period would seem to be much more difficult to obtain.

* * *

In Poland, the State forests cover an area of 2,835,406 hectares, or 31.7 per cent of the wooded area of the country.

¹ The total number of buildings damaged or destroyed amounted to 1,800,000, of which 500,000 were dwelling-houses.

² In virtue of the principle of "stabilised exploitation", annual fellings must in certain cases be reduced below the level of natural growth to a level guaranteeing the stability of the quantitative and qualitative output of the forests.

The annual production of rough timber placed on the market by the State forests amounts to 50 per cent of the total production of the country; this figure is sufficient to show the influence exercised by these forests in the timber market.

The communal forests are of secondary importance; the total area which they cover (85,061) is less than one per cent of the whole afforested area.

The legal restrictions to the right of ownership exercised over privately owned forests go no further than the legal provisions which have been thought necessary to provide for the rational exploitation of the forests.

As a result of the rapid development achieved in the first decade after the war, the timber industry has come to play a rôle of the very first importance in the Polish economic system, as indicated by the total number of industrial establishments (about 1,700) and the number of workmen employed, amounting to 50,000.¹

The mechanical sawt mills form the principal branch of the timber industry in Poland. Their total number, which has considerably increased in relation to the pre-war period, exceeded 1,600 in 1928. The producing capacity of its industrial establishments has been estimated at about 11,500,000 cubic metres of rough timber. The actual production (expressed in the same manner) amounted in 1928 — a year of prosperity — to 7,350,000 cubic metres, of which 4,550,000 (or 62 per cent) were sold on the home market and 2,800,000 (38 per cent) were exported abroad.

* * *

The exportation of timber, which went through a period of prosperity (1927-28), has in the last few years shown a strong tendency to fall, both as regards the quantity exported and the prices obtained.

The falling off in exports is clearly shown by the following tables :

TABLE I. — EXPORTS OF TIMBER AND TIMBER PRODUCTS (IN ABSOLUTE FIGURES).

Category of goods	1928	1929	1930	1931
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons
Total	4,888,877	3,745,826	2,803,320	1,809,399
1. Rough timber	3,094,235	2,358,088	1,428,164	650,573
2. Semi-worked timber.	1,723,278	1,310,664	1,310,731	1,106,271
3. Timber products . .	71,364	77,074	64,425	52,555

TABLE II. — EXPORTS EXPRESSED IN INDEX NUMBERS (1928 = 100).

Category of goods	1928	1929	1930	1931
Total	100	76.6	57.3	37.0
1. Rough timber	100	76.2	46.2	21.0
2. Semi-worked timber.	100	76.1	76.1	61.2
3. Timber products . .	100	108.0	90.3	73.7

¹ The forestry undertakings employ as many as 200,000 to 250,000 workmen, recruited for the most part among the peasants with small holdings.

This latter table shows that the very steep decline in the total exports of Polish timber is to be attributed in the first place to the falling off in exports of rough timber, which in 1931 declined to one-fifth of the figure shown in 1928.

Exports of semi-worked timber are less seriously affected by the crisis, their quantity falling off in 1931 by 35.8 per cent as compared with the year 1929 (when they reached their culminating point) and by 17 per cent as compared with the following year.

To complete the statistical table, we must mention the radical change which has occurred in the destination of Polish timber exports (Table III).

The situation as shown by the statistical figures is further aggravated by the restrictions on timber imports imposed in certain countries (complete prohibitions, quotas) and by the monetary disturbances which have occurred since 1931.

The rapid fall in Polish timber exports set in at the beginning of autumn 1931 and became accelerated in the following months. The rapid diminution in the quantities exported was accompanied by a continuous fall in prices. In Poland, the fall in the price of sawn timber amounted in 1931 to an average of 27.3 per cent, and in certain cases materially exceeded this figure.

TABLE III. — EXPORTS OF TIMBER AND TIMBER PRODUCTS BY COUNTRIES OF DESTINATION.

	Total	Great Britain	Belgium	Czechoslovakia	France	Netherlands	Germany	Other Countries
1928	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons
I. Rough timber .	3,094,235	67,844	47,371	279,740	19,600	39,980	2,407,074	142,026
II. Semi-worked timber . . .	1,723,278	421,904	81,620	31,828	55,429	126,324	811,564	104,009
III. Timber products	71,364	16,280	5,088	1,118	8	5,429	28,100	15,341
Total . .	4,888,877	506,028	134,079	312,686	75,037	171,733	3,336,738	352,576
1931								
I. Rough timber .	650,573	23,470	9,705	140,227	7,132	3,350	348,886	117,804
II. Semi-worked timber . . .	1,106,271	407,033	82,571	43,151	208,234	136,979	40,498	187,806
III. Timber products	51,556	12,377	4,123	4,290	1,098	5,233	7,168	17,267
Total . .	1,808,400	442,880	96,399	187,668	216,464	145,562	396,552	322,877

Poland has hitherto remained faithful to the principle of the free importation of rough timber. The import duty on semi-worked timber is fixed at the modest rate of 2 zlotys per 100 kilogrammes.

The export duties on rough timber, which have for years past been fixed at a relatively low level (0.40 zlotys per 100 kilogrammes of soft wood and 0.20 zlotys per 100 kilogrammes of hard wood), only exercise a slight influence on the export of these raw materials.

The export duty on alder wood (1.50 zlotys per 100 kilogrammes), which is justified by the special difficulties placed in many countries in the way of exports of plywood (complete prohibition, very high Customs duties), is chiefly designed to protect a raw material the reserves of which are beginning to be exhausted.

Export duties on timber for paper-making and on sawn resinous timber have been introduced recently with a view to controlling the exportation of these articles.

* * *

In order to co-ordinate the individual efforts of timber exporters, to centralise the necessary statistical material and to arrange, if need be, for the export of quantities available for the world market, the timber associations created (on November 1st, 1931) two exporting organisations, one for the control of exports of timber for paper-making, and the other for the control of exports of sawn resinous timber.

In order to provide the exporting organisations with the means of control necessary for achieving the aims they have in view, the Polish Government has granted them the privilege of exemption from export duties on timber for paper-making and sawn resinous timber.

The machinery of the export duties is very simple. In virtue of a special provision laid down in execution of the decree on export duties, the two national organisations and their subordinate regional associations have been authorised to distribute "export certificates", whose holders are exempted from the payment of export duties.

These export duties, which were put into force when the organisations in question were set up, are sufficiently high¹ to close the market, in practice, to exporters not provided with certificates. In these circumstances, the export certificates delivered by the local association for a given quantity of timber confers upon the holder the right to export this quantity. A refusal of the certificate, which may be justified by individual reasons (when the exporter concerned does not comply with the requisite conditions) or by general reasons (exhaustion of the export quota assigned to the country), is equivalent to depriving the applicant of free access to the world market.

This shows the extent of the influence which can be exercised in the sphere of timber exportation by the existing national organisations and the subordinate local associations.

The circles concerned in Poland are at present considering the formation of new organisations to control exports of sawn timber of deciduous trees (hard timber), railway sleepers, etc. In case of immediate necessity, the formation of these exporting organisations would be comparatively easy.

The provisions, aimed at ensuring the control of timber exports, apply with all strictness to the Government Forestry Administration, whose exports are regulated by the machinery of the export duties.

The Polish exporting organisations, being provided with sufficiently effective means of control, are in a position to negotiate on behalf of their members and are able to give the necessary guarantees for the carrying out of any undertakings relating to international co-operation in regard to timber.

¹ The export duty on sawn resinous timber has been fixed at 10 zlotys per 100 kilogrammes, and that on timber for paper-making at 3 zlotys per 100 kilogrammes.

Roumania.

M. P. IOAN.

Statistics show that Roumania possesses 7,134,200 hectares of forest land, or 24.18 per cent of forest land in relation to the total area of the country (29,498,700 hectares). As a matter of fact, the area actually under timber is only 6,448,500 hectares; this reduces the proportion of forest land to 21.13 per cent and the area under timber to 0.36 of a hectare per inhabitant.¹

As a result of the application of the agrarian reform from 1920 to 1930, about 1,000,000 hectares of forest land have been turned over to cultivation. Roumania intends to reforest all the lands which have run to waste and which are estimated at about 5,000,000 hectares.

**CLASSIFICATION OF ROUMANIAN FORESTS ACCORDING TO OWNERS,
MANAGEMENT, VARIETIES AND SPECIES.**

Classification	Timber trees					Coppices (uniform and mixed)				General total	
	Resi- nous	Beech	Oak (deci- duous)	Total	Per- cen- tage	White- wood	Hard wood	Total	Per- cen- tage	Area (in 1000's of hec- tares)	Per- cen- tage
	Surface (in 1000's of hectares)					Surface (in 1000's of hectares)					
State forests	362	625	239	1,226	64	138	540	678	36	1,904	29.5
Forests owned by com- munes, churches, etc. .	663	640	254	1,557	87	38	192	230	13	1,787	27.7
Forests owned by public institutions	49	58	28	135	67	11	47	58	33	103	3.0
Privately-owned forests .	541	643	285	1,469	57	101	904	1,005	43	2,504	39.8
Total	1,615	1,966	806	4,387	68	288	1,773	2,061	72	6,448	100.0

¹ According to the general census of 1930, the population of Roumania was 18,057,074.

NORMAL PRODUCTION OF THE FORESTS.
CLASSIFIED BY SPECIES, VARIETIES AND CATEGORIES OF OWNERS.

Varieties	Total		
	Area (in 000's of hectares)	Mean annual growth	
		cubic meters per hectare	Total (in 000's of cubic meters)
<i>Timber trees:</i>			
Resinous	1,615		5,248
Beech	1,966		5,629
<i>Oak and other deciduous hardwoods</i>	806		2,141
Total	4,387		13,024
<i>Coppices (uniform and mixed):</i>			
Softwoods	288		1,290
Hardwoods	1,773		4,028
Total	2,061		5,318
General Total	6,448	2.86	18,342

ANNUAL PRODUCTION OF THE ROUMANIAN FORESTS (1925-1930).

Class of owner	Building timber			Firewood		Total
	Resinous	Beech	Oak and deciduous hardwoods	Whitewoods	Hardwoods	
	(Quantities in cubic metres)					
State	508,000	1,082,000	348,000	130,000	2,685,000	4,813,000
Communes, churches, etc.	2,300,000	252,000	350,000	135,000	1,750,000	4,787,000
Public institutions	150,000	48,000	40,000	40,000	200,000	478,000
Private owners	2,850,000	475,000	520,000	280,000	6,645,000	10,770,000
Total	5,868,000	1,857,000	1,258,000	585,000	11,280,000	20,848,000
		8,983,000		11,865,000		

All the forest lands of Roumania are governed by the provisions of the Roumanian Forest Code.

The excess exploitation in the post-war period is due to an accidental and temporary cause.

As soon as the conditions which are responsible for this excess no longer exist, the normal production of Roumania will become in three to four years 18,000,000 cubic metres.

CLASSIFICATION OF FOREST PRODUCTION FROM 1926 TO 1930.

Distribution	Building timber			Fire-wood	Various	Total	Percentage
	Resinous	Deci- duous	Total				
(Quantities in millions of cubic metres)							
Average production	6.0	3.0	9.0	12.0	—	21.0	97.6
Imports	—	—	—	—	0.5	0.5	2.4
Total	6.0	3.0	9.0	12.0	0.5	21.5	100
Exports	3.0	0.2	3.2	1.0	—	4.2	19.5
Home consumption and stocks	3.0	2.8	5.8	11.0	0.5	17.3	81.5

Roumania¹ is a timber-exporting country ;58 per cent of its normal production of resinous timber suitable for sawing, and 10 per cent of its production of firewood — *i.e.*, 23 per cent of its total normal production — is sent abroad.

GENERAL SUMMARY OF EXPORTS FROM ROUMANIA, JANUARY TO SEPTEMBER
1929, 1930, 1931.

Timber and Allied Industries.

Years	Quantities		Value	
	Tons	Percentage of total exports	Thousands of lei	Percentage of total exports
1929	1,447,718	32	3,583,635	19
1930	1,183,199	18	2,335,119	11
1931	1,046,104	34	1,788,443	25

Timber exports to the value of 3.5 milliards of lei per annum (the average for 1926–1929) constitute 15 per cent of the total exports of Roumania ; timber therefore occupies the third place after cereals and petroleum (each to the value of 10 milliards).

Nevertheless, the total exports of timber only amount to 20 per cent of the total production ; the remaining 80 per cent is utilised in the country — *i.e.*, one cubic metre per inhabitant.

The production of resinous timber for the year 1931-32 decreased from 6 million cubic metres to 2 millions — *i.e.*, 60 per cent ; exports of other categories of products decreased to at least an equal extent.

¹ Roumania is fifth among European timber-exporting countries.

* * *

The forest laws ensure the continuous exploitation of the forests. Old contracts with various concessionaire companies will shortly expire and can have no effect on normal production, so that Roumania can count on a normal annual production of 18 million cubic metres of timber of all categories.

This figure may be regarded as entirely reliable because, during the last ten years, not only the annual production of timber, but also all other accompanying factors have been invariable. Exports have stood at 2 million cubic metres per annum; home consumption has stood at 18 million cubic metres per annum; the railways have carried 170,000 truck-loads for export, 480,000 truck-loads for home consumption, a total of 650,000 truck-loads.

In 1924, Roumania prepared a statistical survey of all the forests of the country (classified according to owners, species of timber, age, etc.). This survey has been kept constantly up to date.

In 1926, preliminary work was carried out for the application of the "Law for the Establishment of Communal Forests". This has led to an increase in the average figure of population per hectare of forest land.

The statistical data set out in the first part of our statement furnish a sound basis for determining the volume of production in general and of exports in particular.

As regards the exportation of resinous timber, Roumania can rely on 150,000 wagons of sawn logs — *i.e.*, 3,000,000 cubic metres — which is about 50 per cent of the total production of resinous wood and only 16.6 per cent of the total timber production.

Until quite recently, there were no forestry statistics of a commercial nature supplying up-to-date information with regard to timber production and the timber trade. A year and a half ago, a commercial statistical service was established.

An enquiry has shown that throughout the whole of Roumania there are in stock 885,400 cubic metres of resinous saw logs, and 72,200 cubic metres of deciduous timber saw logs, a total of 957,600 cubic metres, as compared with an average exploitation of 2,000,000 cubic metres, of which 1,500,000 cubic metres are resinous.

	Hectares	Percentage
Of the total area of forests, 6,448,000 hectares, the State possesses	1,904,000	30
Forests managed by the State	1,787,000	28
Forests managed by public institutions	193,000	3
Total	3,884,000	61
Privately-owned forests	2,564,000	39

Two-thirds of the forest area of the country are under the direct management of the State.

All the forests of the country are governed by the "forestry regulations" of the law of 1910, amended in 1920 and in 1930, under which the clearing of forest land is totally prohibited.

Under the forestry code, no State or State-managed forests or forests owned by public institutions may be exploited otherwise than on a "continuity" basis; privately-owned forests may be worked in accordance with certain exploitation rules — *i.e.*, timber rotation.

Roumania, as an exporting country, established a "Timber Committee" cartel with Yugoslavia in June 1931, with the principal object of endeavouring to raise prices and classify timber on a rational basis.

This cartel only controlled 40 per cent of the exportable quantity of resinous timber in Roumania and therefore proved ineffective. The exporters of these products are thinking of forming a syndicate, like the firewood exporters in Hungary, who have formed a timber exporters' syndicate. The preliminary negotiations have already been concluded. The State, as the principal owner of forests, will be at the head of all producers and will ensure, by its participation, the proper uniform direction and working of the syndicate.

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Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

M. BRON.

The economic structure of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is based on the principle of the fullest possible exploitation of the natural resources of the country in accordance with the programme embodied in the "five-year plans". The immense forests of the country constitute one of the chief natural resources of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and are absolutely necessary for the realisation of our constructive programme. The outstanding importance which the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics attributes to the right use of the timber resources of the country has induced it to organise a special Commissariat for the timber industry, which supervises timber resources and their utilisation for industrial purposes.

The forests of the Soviet Union cover over 900 million hectares, constituting 21 per cent of all the timber reserves of the world. If we subtract from the world reserves the forests of the tropical zone, which are inaccessible and of no use for industrial purposes, the available timber resources of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics amount to approximately 40 per cent of the world's resources. The forest area constitutes 44 per cent of the Soviet Union territory, which per capita of population gives 3.7 hectares as against the world average of 1.4 hectares. In 1931, the output of timber was 205 million cubic metres — the largest output of any single country. It is necessary, however, to emphasise two facts: (1) against an average output of 7 cubic metres per capita of population in Canada, the output in the Soviet Union is only 1.8 cubic metres; (2) this output constitutes only 40 per cent of the annual natural increase of available timber resources, which we evaluate at 510 million cubic metres. There is no timber country able to show the same or even comparable figures in respect of the annual increase and the average output per capita. Most countries show a complete utilisation of the timber increase, and in some countries utilisation even exceeds the annual timber increase.

The Soviet Union has only begun the real utilisation of its timber resources in the last few years. The economic development of the Union within the limits of the first five-year plan, which we are now engaged in carrying out, and of the second five-year plan, which we are now preparing, requires a speedier development of our available timber resources in order to secure, within the next few years, the complete use of the total annual increase of our timber resources for the purposes of our general economic development.

In 1926-27, the output of industrial timber in the Soviet Union was 27 million cubic metres as against 88 millions in 1929 and 139 millions expected in 1932. During the past five years, therefore, the output of industrial timber increased more than five times. This increased output served primarily to satisfy the economic needs of the rapid industrial development of the country; it was mainly used, not as raw material, but in the form of manufactured articles. In order to be able to keep pace with this development, it was necessary to increase the number of saw-mills from 782 in 1926 to 1,544 in 1931, or an increase more than two and a half times. The output of manufactured timber in 1931 was 23.5 million cubic metres as against 10.8 million cubic metres in 1926. This rapid development, which, moreover, is not yet able to satisfy our needs, finds its expression in the increase of capital investments in this industry. Against a capital investment in industrial timber development during the five years 1923-1928 of 102 million roubles, the last three years (1928-1931) show an increase of the capital invested of more than 400 million roubles.

The new saw-mills are distributed mainly in the geographical regions where the annual increase of wood is least utilised. The authorities are examining with care the problem of the rational and right distribution of the new industrial timber enterprises, which constitute one of the chief points both in the five-year plan we are just completing and in the five-year plan we are preparing.

In the light of these facts, it is evident that the relative importance of our timber exports is decreasing in comparison with our output. While in 1913 — the last pre-war year — the timber export of Russia constituted over 21 per cent of the total output, in 1931 exports from the Soviet Union constituted only 5 per cent of the total output: a striking illustration of the relative economic importance of our home consumption and exports.

The circumstance that timber resources are playing such an outstanding part in the economic development of the Soviet Union is also a reason why the Government is introducing the high standards of modern technique and

mechanisation into our timber industry. We have been able to achieve great progress in the utilisation of our timber resources for satisfying our national needs only by means of a full application of modern technique to the industry.

Yugoslavia.

M. MARINOVITCH.

A. PRODUCTION.

According to the most recent statistics, the total area of land under timber is 7,720,015 hectares. This figure does not include rocky land, land without vegetation, land covered with moving sands, pasture-land, waste land, etc., which are subjected to the regime of the forest law, and which amount approximately to 2.7 to 3 million hectares.

The area under timber is distributed according to trees as follows: conifers only, 11.6 per cent; oaks only, 18.2 per cent; beeches only, 24.3 per cent; mixed deciduous trees, 30.2 per cent; mixed deciduous trees and conifers, 15.7 per cent.

The coppices (1,965,083 hectares) and thickets (997,620 hectares) are employed solely for meeting local needs (of small materials, firewood, and leaves) and are therefore of no interest so far as the exploitation of forests is concerned; we need only consider here the high forests and certain forests of moderate height — *i.e.*, 4.7 million hectares of forest land. Since, however, a large part of the high forests consists of young trees or trees of medium age, the exploitation for the export trade is only concerned with the *oldest trees*. These cover an area of about 2,374,000 hectares, which is equal to approximately 30 per cent of the area under timber.

Another important factor which has to be taken into account in forest exploitation is the question of *annual growth*, for in sound forestry only the interest of the timber capital is expended, not the capital itself. The annual growth may be said to correspond to the average European growth of about 2 cubic metres per hectare, which gives a total of about 15 million cubic metres. In the years after the war, exploitation somewhat exceeded this figure, and about 18 million cubic metres were felled, of which 13 millions were consumed in the country and the rest was exported.

Finally, *the form of ownership* must also be considered. It is not yet possible to give exact data on this subject, as the work of forest delimitation has not been completed in the former territory of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and exact boundaries have not yet been drawn between the State forests and the communal or private forests in the territory of the old kingdom of Serbia. The present percentage of State forests would appear to be excessive, amounting as it does to about 47 per cent, whereas the communal forests constitute only 19 per cent and the private forests 34 per cent. When the above-mentioned work has been completed, the percentage of State forests will be lower in proportion to the communal forests, but it is estimated that the former will still amount to about 30 per cent. The percentage of private forests will be reduced to a certain extent by the carrying-out of the agrarian reform scheme, under which several large privately-owned forest estates will be expropriated in favour of the State and local authorities.

The ownership of forests under exploitation differs according to the district. In old Slovenia, the forests under exploitation are privately owned to the extent of about 95 per cent, and the State and communal forests account for only 5 per

cent of the annual fellings. In the greater part of old Croatia and Slavonia, communal forests account for about 50 per cent, privately-owned forests for about 30 per cent, and State forests for about 20 per cent. In Bosnia, some 60 per cent of the total annual fellings are carried out in State forests, and the remainder in private forests and in forests subjected to the servitude regime.

Fellings throughout the country are distributed approximately as follows: State forests 40 per cent, communal forests 40 per cent, private forests 20 per cent. Out of some 8 million cubic metres felled annually in State forests, about 5 millions are sold, and most of this timber is eventually exported.

B. TRADE.

Part of the timber is utilised in the mines, most of it is non-squared (300,000 to 400,000 cubic metres annually), while the State railways require on an average from 1,300,000 to 1,500,000 sleepers and some 40,000 cubic metres of material for points, bridges and workshops, together with 7,000 cubic metres of firewood. Considerable quantities are used by the Ministries of War, Public Works, and Posts and Telegraphs, but the larger part is employed in industry.

The wood is worked in saw-mills and other industrial establishments. In the whole country there are about 3,400 saw-mills, the majority of which only possess small and primitive plants. Small saw-mills are most numerous in Slovenia (1,975 primitive saw-mills and 275 modern establishments).

The importance of timber exports for our trade balance is shown by the following table:

Year	Total exports		Exports of products of the forest industry			Percentage
	Quantity (in tons)	Value (in thousands of dinars)	Quantity (in tons)	Percentage	Value (in thousands of dinars)	
1923	3,025,914	8,048,844	1,332,785	44.0	1,776,015	22.1
1926	4,881,718	7,818,180	1,772,929	36.3	1,224,307	15.7
1927	4,251,450	6,400,153	2,055,311	48.3	1,398,815	21.9
1929	5,320,866	7,921,708	2,477,796	46.5	2,189,840	27.6
1930	4,733,223	6,780,054	1,933,002	41.0	1,681,211	25.0
1931	3,923,416	4,800,956	1,290,824	39.1	1,040,770	21.6

The following table shows the distribution of the exports :

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons
Firewood	537,365	605,181	656,434	412,641	273,772
Building-timber	1,150,071	1,469,749	1,399,163	1,166,231	730,007
Charcoal	61,142	67,501	67,395	63,148	57,219
Railway sleepers	269,992	204,313	246,784	203,624	147,134
Extracts used for the tanning of hides	18,906	18,757	18,457	14,020	11,006
Timber products	34,507	52,164	57,271	38,487	21,020
Other forest products	29,761	27,952	33,291	33,450	27,076

The exports of forest products were distributed as follows :

	1930	Percentage
1. Italy	772.1	45.9
2. Hungary	138.8	8.0
3. France	105.5	6.2
4. Greece	86.8	5.2
5. Austria	76.5	4.5
6. Spain	74.2	4.4
7. Great Britain	67.4	4.0
8. Belgium	57.4	3.4
9. Germany	46.3	2.7
10. Argentine	39.1	2.3
11. Netherlands	30.8	1.8
12. Algeria	27.7	} 11.6
13. Switzerland	27.2	
14. Czechoslovakia	22.0	
15. Turkey	19.4	
16. Tunis	19.0	
17. Morocco	17.0	
18. United States of America	12.7	
19. Egypt	12.4	
20. Miscellaneous	28.9	
	<u>1,681.2</u>	

The imports of wood amount to only 10 per cent of the quantities exported, and consist of finished articles, such as glued boards, domestic utensils, turnery articles, wood for wheelwrights, ready-made houses, parts of articles of furniture, pulp for paper-making, and gums and resins, etc., of a total value of 160 to 170 million dinars.

M. Makso MAUTNER.

1. Standing timber, timber production and the timber trade rank first in Yugoslav economic life after agriculture and stock-breeding. The big drop in timber exports and products and the even bigger drop in timber prices on the world market have thus had appreciable effects on the economic life of the country, and are reflected chiefly in the falling-off of State revenues, as the State is the principal owner of forests. The income of the peasant, already reduced to a minimum owing to the agrarian depression, is further reduced by the depression in the timber industry, for the peasant often managed to supplement his earnings by work in connection with forestry upkeep and exploitation.

2. There are no organisations in Yugoslavia for concentrating production or fixing export. There is a Yugoslav-Roumanian Union for the export of resinous timber (Timber Union), but this organisation is still quite rudimentary and only includes a few big producers.

Several attempts have been made to set up bodies of this kind, but they have not so far proved successful, owing to the large number of producers who have remained outside any organisation.

3. STATISTICS REGARDING EXPORTS OF TIMBER.

Figures given by the experts at the meeting held in April 1932.

1. AUSTRIA.

Sawn Softwood.

Year	Thousands of tons	Thousands of cubic metres at 500 kilogrammes
1925	1,098	2,196
1926	965	1,930
1927	1,166	2,332
1928	1,195	2,300
1929	1,043	2,086
1930	880	1,760
1931	708	1,416

2. BALTIC COUNTRIES.

Sawn and Planed Timber.

In normal years :

	Standards
Estonia	70,000
Latvia	200,000
Lithuania	30,000

In 1931 :

Latvia	130,000
------------------	---------

3. FINLAND.

Sawn and Planed Timber.

	Standards
1926	1,120,000
1927	1,278,000
1928	1,141,000
1929	1,200,000
1930	900,000
1931	780,000

4. POLAND.

Resinous Industrial Timber.

	Cubic metres
1925	2,620,000
1926	3,260,000
1927	3,960,000
1928	3,132,000
1929	2,360,000
1930	2,340,000
1931	1,992,000

5. ROUMANIA.

Resinous Sawn Timber.

	Cubic metres
1925	2,100,702
1926	1,950,000
1927	1,782,807
1928	2,166,574
1929	2,013,680
1930	1,499,352
1931 (only by sea)	758,052

6. SWEDEN.

Sawn and Planed Timber.

	Standards
1926	912,000
1927	1,011,000
1928	1,046,000
1929	1,181,000
1930	996,000
1931	729,000

7. CZECHOSLOVAKIA.

(Official Government Statistics.)

	<i>Resinous Sawn Timber.</i>		<i>Squared (except railway sleepers).</i>	
	Tons	Cubic metres	Tons	Cubic metres
1925	453,417	907,000	27,248	54,000
1926	347,850	696,000	27,891	56,000
1927	674,272	1,348,000	53,275	106,000
1928	404,394	810,000	41,249	82,000
1929	255,617	511,000	20,301	40,000
1930	253,268	506,000	9,474	19,000
1931	170,832	341,000	9,367	19,000

<i>Sawn Oak.</i>			<i>Squared (except railway sleepers).</i>	
	Tons	Cubic metres	Tons	Cubic metres
1925	11,600	13,000	1,147	1,200
1926	6,535	7,000	1,693	1,800
1927	12,342	14,000	3,130	3,500
1928	11,621	13,000	3,032	3,500
1929	7,725	8,500	1,426	1,500
1930	5,783	6,500	67	—
1931	4,081	4,500	19	—

<i>Sawn Beech.</i>			<i>Squared (except railway sleepers).</i>	
	Tons	Cubic metres	Tons	Cubic metres
1925	30,546	38,000	1,180	1,400
1926	34,891	43,000	823	1,000
1927	55,424	70,000	1,208	1,400
1928	74,516	93,000	1,290	1,400
1929	67,410	85,000	1,663	2,000
1930	42,692	53,000	543	700
1931	33,957	42,000	233	300

8. UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS.
Sawn and Planed Timber.

	Standards
1931	955,000

Deciduous Wood.

	Cubic metres
1931	205,000

9. YUGOSLAVIA.

Building Timber (except sleepers).

	Tons
1926	1,080,000
1927	1,150,000
1928	1,469,000
1929	1,309,000
1930	1,166,000
	<hr/>
	6,264,000

	Percentage
Rough timber	7
Sawn and squared timber :	
Resinous	68
Oak	10
Beech	15

Namely :

	Tons	Cubic metres
Conifers	820,000	1,640,000
Oak	120,000	150,000
Beech	180,000	250,000

Genève, le 8 juin 1932.

SOCIÉTÉ DES NATIONS

COMITÉ ÉCONOMIQUE

**ÉTUDES RELATIVES AU PROBLÈME DES
RAPPROCHEMENTS ÉCONOMIQUES EUROPÉENS**

DEUXIÈME SÉRIE*

**CHIFFRES ESSENTIELS DU COMMERCE
EXTÉRIEUR DES PAYS DANUBIENS**

Première Partie. — Répartition des produits principaux en 1928 et changements en 1931.

Deuxième Partie. — Commerce extérieur de l'Autriche, de la Bulgarie, de la Hongrie et de la Tchécoslovaquie pendant le premier trimestre 1932 (par comparaison avec la même période des années précédentes).

**Données réunies par le Secrétariat
sur la base des statistiques officielles.**

N. B. — Ce document n'existe qu'en français.

* Pour la première série voir document E. 770.

Série de Publications de la Société des Nations
II. QUESTIONS ÉCONOMIQUES
ET FINANCIÈRES
1932. II. B. 7. ✓

PRÉFACE.

Le document précédent publié par la Section des relations économiques sur le commerce extérieur des pays danubiens (E.770) avait pour but principal de faire ressortir — à côté d'autres éléments complémentaires — *le rôle respectif des différents pays* comme fournisseurs et comme acheteurs.

Le présent document a un but différent; il tend à :

1^o Montrer comment, dans l'ensemble des pays qui forment le champ principal de l'activité commerciale des pays danubiens, *se répartissent les produits principaux*;

2^o Mettre en lumière le niveau auquel sont tombés les échanges internationaux des pays en question au cours des trois ou quatre premiers mois de l'année 1932, par comparaison avec la période correspondante des années précédentes.

Les données sont basées sur les statistiques officielles des pays intéressés.

Genève, le 8 juin 1932.

P. STOPPANI,

Section des relations économiques.

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Deuxième Partie.

COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR DE L'AUTRICHE, DE LA BULGARIE, DE LA HONGRIE ET DE LA TCHÉCOSLOVAQUIE PENDANT LE PREMIER TRIMESTRE 1932 (PAR COMPARAISON AVEC LA MÊME PÉRIODE DES ANNÉES PRÉCÉDENTES).

Autriche	50
Bulgarie	53
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NOTE. — Les pays danubiens, qui ont différents systèmes pour l'établissement des statistiques commerciales, indiquent à l'importation, soit le pays d'origine, soit les pays de consignation ou d'achat et, à l'exportation, soit les pays de consommation ou de consignation, soit encore les pays de vente ou de destination finale. Il se peut donc que, dans le présent document, l'importance de certains pays, soit à l'importation, soit à l'exportation, apparaisse quelque peu différente de celle qu'elle est en réalité.

REMARQUES GÉNÉRALES.

I. D'une manière générale, on constate que la valeur des importations et exportations dans les six pays danubiens a fortement diminué pendant la période allant du début de 1928 à la fin de 1931.

La mesure de cette régression apparaît dans le tableau ci-après:

Pourcentage de régression de la valeur du commerce extérieur entre 1928 et 1931.

Exportations		Importations	
	%		%
Bulgarie	5	Bulgarie	23
Roumanie ¹	18	Autriche	33
Yougoslavie	26	Tchécoslovaquie	39
Hongrie	31	Yougoslavie	39
Tchécoslovaquie.	38	Roumanie ¹	51
Autriche	39	Hongrie	55

Pendant les premiers mois de l'année 1932, cette régression du commerce extérieur a pris un rythme encore plus accéléré, notamment pour l'Autriche, la Hongrie et la Tchécoslovaquie, ainsi qu'il ressort de la deuxième partie du présent document.

Dans la colonne des *exportations*, un chiffre tend à fausser la classification des différents pays, c'est celui de la Hongrie. Si des relations contractuelles normales existaient entre ce pays et la Tchécoslovaquie (qui est un des principaux débouchés pour l'exportation agricole de la Hongrie) il est permis de supposer que ce chiffre se trouverait ramené à un niveau sensiblement égal à celui, par exemple, de la Yougoslavie.

Cette correction faite, on constate qu'il est deux pays, l'Autriche et la Tchécoslovaquie, pour lesquels le pourcentage de chute des exportations est beaucoup plus élevé que pour les quatre autres. Or, 70% environ des exportations autrichiennes et tchécoslovaques sont constitués par des produits fabriqués. Les exportations industrielles sont donc tombées plus fortement que les exportations agricoles. Il est probable que ceci tient, d'une part, au fait que les importations de denrées alimentaires ne peuvent être que très difficilement ramenées au-dessous d'un certain niveau et, d'autre part, au fait que les exportations de produits industriels de la Tchécoslovaquie et de l'Autriche, se répartissant sur un nombre beaucoup plus grand de marchés, souffrent de la diminution du pouvoir d'achat de chacun d'eux.

L'examen de la colonne des *importations*, permet de faire une constatation tout à fait opposée. Ici, la chute la plus profonde — exception faite de la Bulgarie — se manifeste dans les pays à prédominance agricole, particulièrement en Hongrie et en Roumanie.

II. Dans la chute des exportations de produits manufacturés, la diminution des quantités joue le rôle principal, tandis que la baisse des prix, bien qu'extrêmement importante, ne vient qu'en deuxième lieu.

Pour les exportations de produits agricoles et de matières brutes, c'est exactement le contraire qui se produit. La baisse des prix est ici le phénomène dominant: les recettes provenant des exportations agricoles et de matières premières diminuent par conséquent beaucoup plus rapidement que les quantités exportées².

La réduction du pouvoir d'achat qui en est la conséquence explique la chute des importations de ces pays. En effet, celles-ci sont presque totalement constituées par des produits industriels, c'est-à-dire des marchandises dont on peut, à la rigueur — et au prix de la dépression du « standard of life » — se passer en partie.

Les exportations industrielles et les exportations agricoles ont donc subi, dans les pays danubiens, une évolution toute différente. En effet, en ce qui concerne les produits manufacturés, la diminution du nombre des unités exportées se reflète dans l'accroissement du nombre des chômeurs. En ce qui concerne les produits agricoles, la diminution de la valeur de chaque unité exportée se reflète dans les difficultés de transfert, dans l'accroissement du poids des dettes, dans le trouble de la balance des comptes, etc.

III. En même temps, certains changements se sont produits dans la *direction* des importations et des exportations. D'une manière générale, on peut constater que tous les pays danubiens ont réussi à élargir le cercle de leur action commerciale en étendant leurs débouchés vers les pays

¹ Il y a lieu de ne point perdre de vue que pour la Roumanie, les tableaux et les notes de la première partie portent sur les années 1927 et 1930.

² Nous verrons plus loin que dans quelques cas ces quantités ont même augmenté. Ainsi, dans le cas de la Roumanie le poids des céréales et de la farine de froment exportées est passé, de 1927 à 1930, de 2.892.300 tonnes à 3.606.000 tonnes, mais la valeur de ces exportations durant la même période est tombée de 19.016 millions de lei à 9.989 millions. Pour les mêmes années, le poids des exportations roumaines de combustibles minéraux a plus que doublé (1.512 millions de tonnes en 1927, 3.853 millions en 1930). Au contraire, la valeur de ces exportations ne s'est accrue que d'un tiers environ (7.517 millions de lei en 1927, 10.437 millions en 1930).

tiers, et notamment vers l'Europe occidentale. Ceci se vérifie avant tout pour l'exportation des produits manufacturés, mais également, quoi que dans une moindre mesure, pour l'exportation de certains produits de l'agriculture.

On voit en même temps que les pays agricoles danubiens, tout en restant toujours des débouchés intéressants, n'absorbent plus les mêmes quantités de produits fabriqués de la Tchécoslovaquie et de l'Autriche. Mais il serait peut-être excessif d'attribuer à ce phénomène un caractère permanent, car il n'est pas exclus qu'un relèvement des prix agricoles n'ait pour effet de ramener le pouvoir d'achat de ces pays à un niveau normal.

IV. Du début de 1928 à la fin de 1931 la balance du commerce des pays agricoles danubiens présente une évolution qui constitue un des symptômes les plus frappants de la dépression économique; elle s'est, en effet, améliorée, mais cette amélioration n'est due qu'à une chute si considérable des importations qu'elle compense même l'énorme diminution de valeur de leurs exportations.

Par contre le passif de la balance du commerce de l'Autriche s'est aggravé, les exportations ayant fléchi d'une manière plus forte que les importations.

En Tchécoslovaquie, le rapport entre l'actif de la balance du commerce et le total des échanges est resté à peu près le même pour les deux années (1 à 20).

V. Dans l'ensemble des pays danubiens, le cas de la Bulgarie apparaît, en ce qui concerne son commerce extérieur, comme quelque peu exceptionnel.

Entre 1928 et 1931, ses exportations, considérées dans leur ensemble, ont plus que doublé en quantités. La valeur globale de ces exportations n'a donc diminué, dans la même période, malgré la chute des prix, que dans la modeste proportion de 5%.

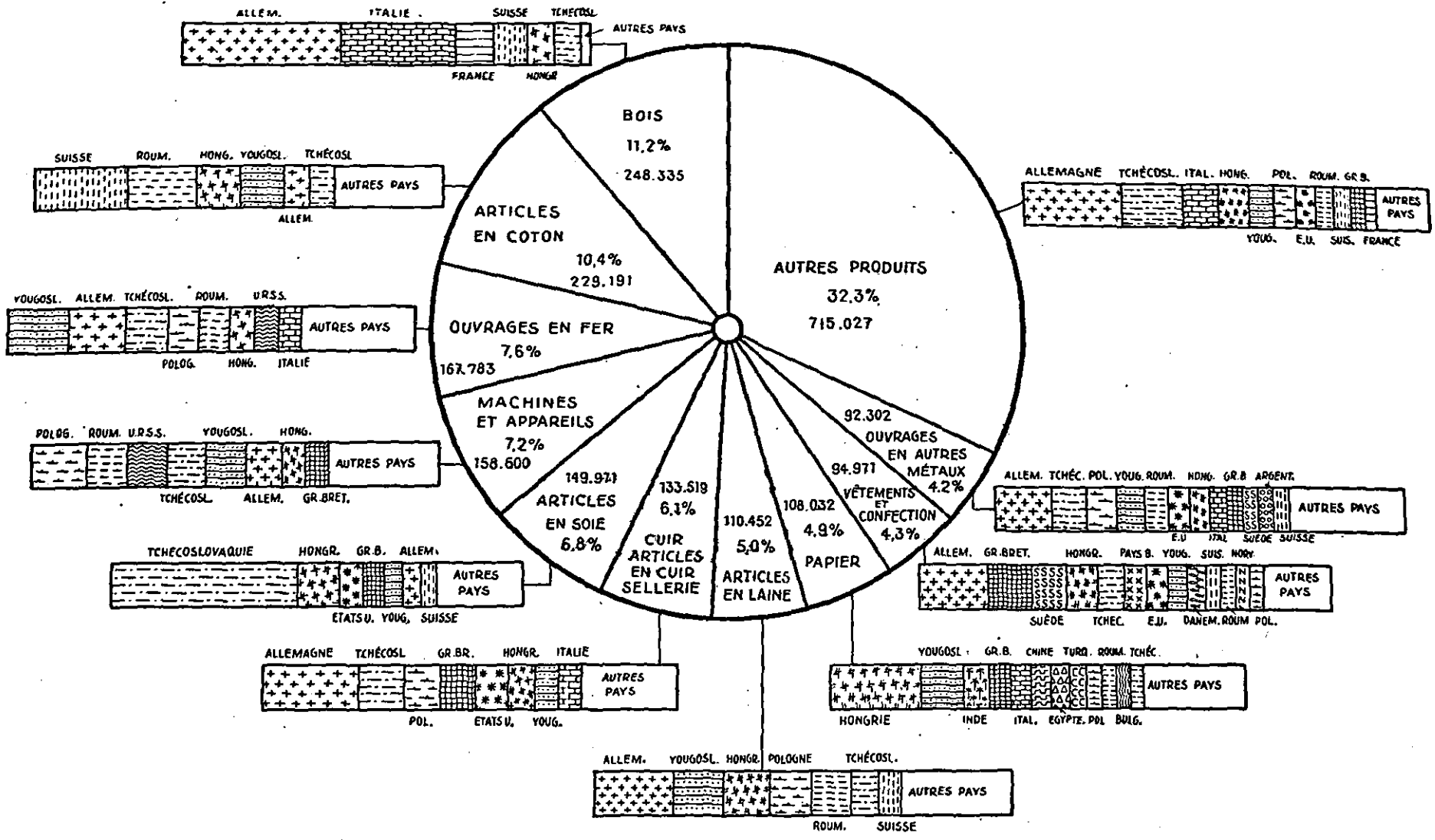
Ce sont là deux faits qu'on peut peut-être mettre en rapport avec la constatation que les importations bulgares, aussi bien en quantité qu'en valeur, ont fléchi dans une moindre mesure que celles de tous les autres pays danubiens.

Première Partie

**RÉPARTITION DES PRODUITS PRINCIPAUX
EN 1928 ET CHANGEMENTS EN 1931**

1. AUTRICHE.

EXPORTATION, EN 1928, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE DESTINATION 1:



1 Graphique établi sur la base du tableau de la page 13 du document E. 770.

Autriche. — EXPORTATION EN 1931 PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE DESTINATION.

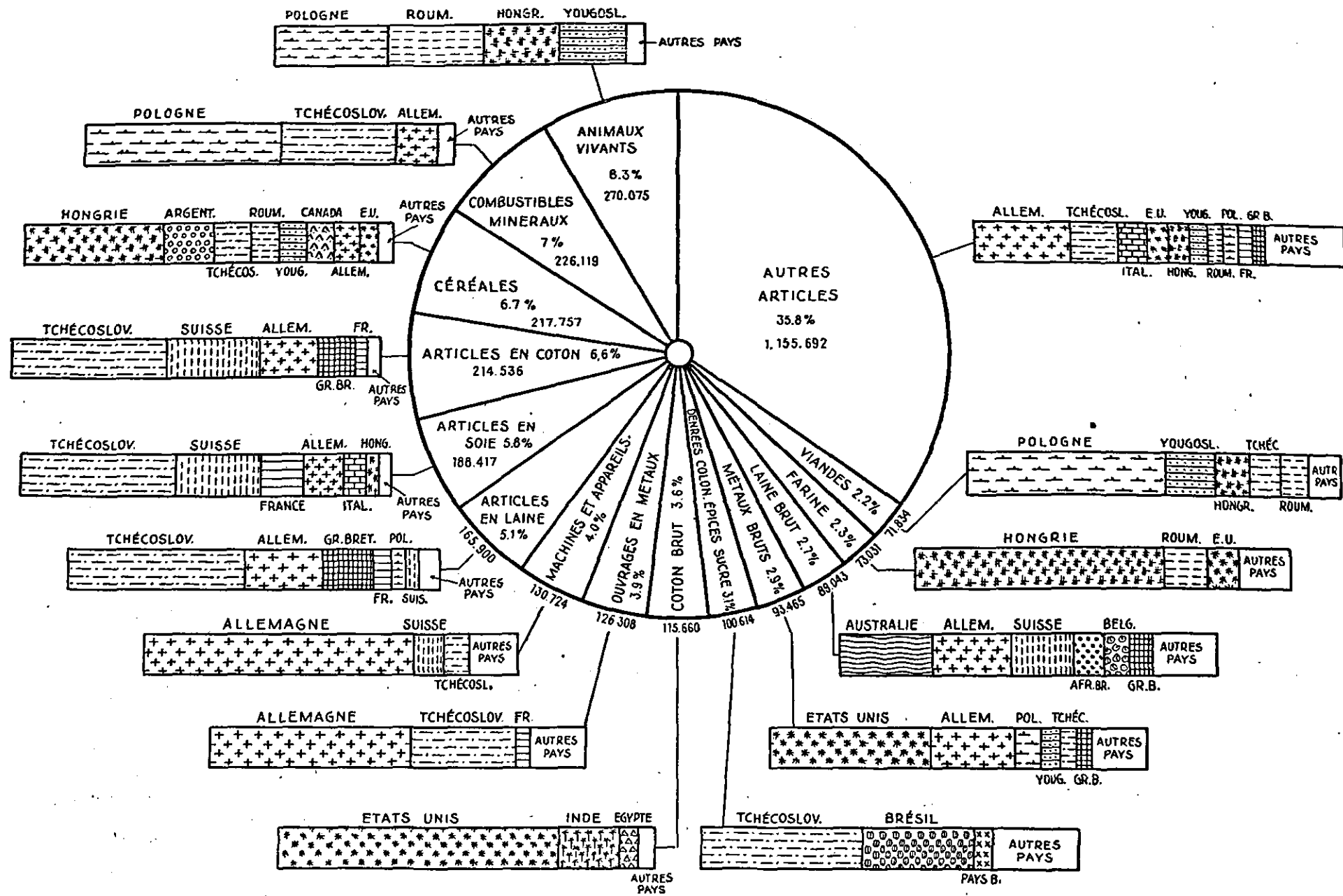
Marchandises exportées	Valeur en milliers de schillings	% de l'exportation totale	Pays de destination														
			Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats-Unis	U.R.S.S.	Pays-Bas	Autres pays
Machines et appareils ¹	112.074	8,4	3.015	7.021	10.735	14.507	35.278	11.388	3.468	10.191	5.100	4.386	3.189	428	14.138	6.738	17.770
	100%		2,7%	6,3%	9,6%	12,9%	31,5%	10,2%	3,1%	9,1%	4,6%	3,9%	2,9%	0,4%	12,6%	6,0%	15,8%
Ouvrages en fer.	104.522	7,8	3.604	4.738	10.999	12.414	31.755	13.246	1.888	1.741	7.625	4.745	3.038	780	15.145	884	23.675 ²
	100%		3,4%	4,5%	10,5%	11,9%	30,4%	12,7%	1,8%	1,7%	7,3%	4,5%	2,9%	0,7%	14,5%	0,8%	22,7%
Bois	102.052	7,6	8.058	9	4.585	101	12.753	8.624	23.421	16	40.618	31	14.822	97	—	230	1.440
	100%		7,9%		4,5%	0,1%	12,5%	8,5%	23,0%		39,8%		14,5%	0,1%		0,2%	1,4%
Fils de soie et articles en soie.	101.296	7,6	17.185	590	38.384	4.306	60.465	3.931	2.270	9.737	677	7.617	6.148	1.629	—	715	8.107
	100%		17,0%	0,6%	37,9%	4,2%	59,7%	3,9%	2,2%	9,6%	0,7%	7,5%	6,1%	1,6%		0,7%	8,0%
Fils de coton et articles en coton	87.836	6,6	4.744	11.032	3.761	10.679	30.216	7.340	538	4.654	1.196	1.516	23.372	733	2	1.887	16.382 ³
	100%		5,4%	12,6%	4,3%	12,1%	34,4%	8,4%	0,6%	5,3%	1,4%	1,7%	26,6%	0,8%		2,1%	18,7%
Papier	84.056	6,3	13.392	1.726	2.406	7.161	24.685	2.850	896	8.318	4.131	1.315	1.675	1.226	3	1.287	37.670 ⁴
	100%		15,9%	2,1%	2,9%	8,5%	29,4%	3,3%	1,1%	9,9%	4,9%	1,6%	2,0%	1,5%		1,5%	44,8%
Fils de laine et articles en laine	73.370	5,5	4.989	3.499	5.409	7.790	21.687	15.331	1.062	6.224	1.791	8.028	5.788	1.630	706	1.625	9.498
	100%		6,8%	4,8%	7,4%	10,6%	29,6%	20,9%	1,5%	8,5%	2,4%	10,9%	7,9%	2,2%	1,0%	2,2%	12,9%
Vêtements et confections ⁶	72.091	5,4	1.932	994	3.781	2.545	9.252	6.453	1.928	16.205	1.452	898	5.239	1.259	72	5.446	23.887 ⁵
	100%		2,7%	1,4%	5,2%	3,5%	12,8%	9,0%	2,7%	22,5%	2,0%	1,2%	7,3%	1,8%	—	7,6%	33,1%
Cuir, articles en cuir, sellerie, pelleterie .	66.520	5,0	2.081	967	5.806	3.064	11.918	22.874	1.595	12.584	1.696	1.919	3.006	1.759	—	1.533	7.636
	100%		3,1%	1,5%	8,7%	4,6%	17,9%	34,4%	2,4%	18,9%	2,6%	2,9%	4,5%	2,6%		2,3%	11,5%
Ouvrages en autres métaux	53.631	4,0	2.184	2.715	5.193	5.076	15.168	6.285	2.420	2.289	3.279	3.358	2.175	2.079	544	766	15.268 ⁷
	100%		4,1%	5,1%	9,7%	9,4%	28,3%	11,7%	4,5%	4,3%	6,1%	6,3%	4,1%	3,9%	1,0%	1,4%	28,4%
Pâte à papier.	37.982	2,8	3.125	34	308	2.138	5.605	3.623	5.485	375	18.755	175	1.381	1.132	—	51	1.400
	100%		8,2%	0,1%	0,8%	5,6%	14,8%	9,5%	14,4%	1,0%	49,4%	0,5%	3,6%	3,0%		0,1%	3,7%
Métaux bruts	26.508	1,9	2.210	138	3.806	1.838	7.992	6.301	397	1.589	760	712	6.482	9	595	—	1.671
	100%		8,3%	0,5%	14,4%	6,9%	30,1%	23,7%	1,5%	6,0%	2,9%	2,7%	24,5%		2,2%		6,4%
Imprimés	25.984	1,9	891	318	3.806	1.465	6.480	13.420	1.147	320	942	862	876	263	2	348	1.324
	100%		3,4%	1,2%	14,7%	5,6%	24,9%	51,7%	4,4%	1,2%	3,6%	3,3%	3,4%	1,0%		1,3%	5,2%
Véhicules et moteurs pour véhicules. . .	18.796	1,3	1.330	380	1.353	2.419	5.482	6.907	218	117	385	867	1.170	4	2.164	702	780
	100%		7,1%	2,0%	7,2%	12,9%	29,2%	36,8%	1,2%	0,6%	2,0%	4,6%	6,2%		11,5%	3,7%	4,2%
Autres articles	373.836	27,9	23.360	11.379	57.038	24.922	116.699	88.575	16.438	18.864	21.218	21.557	21.375	11.973	2.892	8.029	46.216
	100%		6,2%	3,0%	15,3%	6,7%	31,2%	23,7%	4,4%	5,0%	5,7%	5,8%	5,7%	3,2%	0,8%	2,1%	12,4%
Total (y compris un certain montant en lingots et espèces) . .	1.340.554	100	92.100	45.540	157.370	100.425	395.435	217.148	63.171	93.224	109.625	57.986	99.736	25.001	36.263	30.241	212.724
	100%		6,9%	3,4%	11,7%	7,5%	29,5%	16,2%	4,7%	7,0%	8,2%	4,3%	7,4%	1,9%	2,7%	2,2%	15,9%

¹ Y compris les lampes à incandescence, non compris les moteurs pour véhicules.
² Dont: Japon, 3.537, soit 3,4%
³ Dont: Inde, 6.367, soit 7,2%.

⁴ Dont: Inde, 8.467, soit 10%; Chine, 4.685, soit 5,6%; Egypte, 4.670, soit 5,6%; Turquie, 3.458, soit 4,1%.
⁵ Dont: Suède, 8.305 soit 11,5%; Danemark, 6.000, soit 8,3%.
⁶ Y compris chapeaux et formes pour chapeaux, parapluies et ombrelles.
⁷ Dont: Suède, 2.040, soit 3,8%; Egypte, 1.679, soit 3,1%.

— 6 —

Autriche. — IMPORTATION, EN 1928, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE PROVENANCE 1:



1 Graphique établi sur la base du tableau de la page 16 du document E. 770.

Autriche. — IMPORTATION EN 1931 PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE PROVENANCE.

Marchandises importées	Valeur en milliers de schillings	% de l'importation totale	Pays de provenance														
			Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Belgique	Bulgarie	Etats-Unis	Autres pays
Combustibles minéraux	177.080	8,2	3.992	—	56.060	445	60.497	34.915	—	3.216	4	77.267	7	3	1	—	1.170
100%	2,3%	—	31,6%	0,3%	34,2%	19,7%	—	1,8%	—	—	4,3%	—	—	—	—	—	0,7%
Animaux vivants	167.977	7,8	44.743	37.973	2.498	35.372	120.586	3.523	8	—	6	42.834	62	—	2	7	914
100%	26,6%	22,6%	1,5%	21,1%	71,8%	2,1%	—	—	—	—	—	25,5%	—	—	—	—	0,6%
Céréales	150.067	6,9	36.068	35.408	7.389	13.352	92.217	1.562	81	—	—	1.091	59	72	18	6.493	5.601
100%	24,0%	23,6%	4,9%	8,9%	61,4%	1,0%	—	—	—	—	—	0,7%	—	—	—	4,3%	3,7%
Fils de soie et articles en soie	140.422	6,5	9.249	25	53.604	1.370	64.248	17.798	12.539	1.254	11.926	2.921	24.552	1.460	488	320	2.916
100%	6,6%	—	38,2%	1,0%	45,8%	12,7%	8,9%	0,9%	8,5%	2,1%	17,5%	1,0%	0,3%	0,2%	0,2%	2,1%	
Fils de coton et articles de coton	121.727	5,6	263	7	59.097	73	59.440	20.438	3.569	10.095	1.622	190	25.454	668	16	54	181
100%	0,2%	—	48,5%	—	48,7%	16,8%	2,9%	8,3%	1,3%	0,2%	20,9%	0,5%	—	—	—	0,4%	
Fils de laine et articles en laine	100.627	4,7	426	6	47.964	68	48.464	21.687	3.440	11.202	1.965	4.004	2.710	1.686	6	100	5.363
100%	0,4%	—	47,7%	0,1%	48,2%	21,6%	3,4%	11,1%	2,0%	4,0%	2,7%	1,7%	—	—	—	0,1%	
Ouvrages en métaux	81.637	3,8	1.737	9	18.639	191	20.576	47.583	3.974	2.271	340	1.463	2.007	632	—	945	1.846
100%	2,1%	—	22,8%	0,2%	25,1%	58,3%	4,9%	2,8%	0,4%	1,8%	2,5%	0,8%	—	—	—	1,2%	
Machines et appareils	80.330	3,7	1.112	152	5.033	249	6.546	57.886	1.045	2.499	439	140	4.246	444	34	2.666	4.385
100%	1,4%	0,2%	6,3%	0,3%	8,2%	72,1%	1,3%	3,1%	0,5%	0,2%	5,3%	0,6%	—	—	—	3,3%	
Tabacs bruts et manufacturés	78.618	3,6	1.225	—	—	—	1.225	9	—	—	30	91	—	—	—	26.342	6.091
100%	1,6%	—	—	—	—	—	1,6%	—	—	—	0,1%	—	—	—	—	33,5%	
Denrées coloniales, épices, sucre	49.646	2,3	2.722	24	7.855	16	10.617	1.304	111	930	235	76	1.217	—	4	5	808
100%	5,5%	—	15,8%	—	21,3%	2,6%	0,2%	1,9%	0,5%	0,2%	2,5%	—	—	—	—	1,6%	
Laine brute	44.170	2,0	261	7	1.299	7	1.574	6.952	3.215	1.631	393	54	13.340	3.668	9	88	13.246
100%	0,6%	—	2,9%	—	3,5%	15,7%	7,3%	3,7%	0,9%	0,1%	30,2%	8,3%	—	—	—	0,2%	
Fourrage	42.577	2,0	8.327	4.223	11.753	3.551	27.854	4.882	3.053	208	2.861	665	293	—	4	611	146
100%	19,6%	9,9%	27,6%	8,3%	65,4%	11,5%	7,2%	0,5%	6,7%	1,6%	0,7%	—	—	—	1,4%	0,3%	
Viandes	41.197	1,9	6.911	3.905	2.117	4.991	17.924	291	5	—	2	324	21.845	1	—	—	35
100%	16,8%	9,5%	5,1%	12,1%	43,5%	0,7%	—	—	—	—	0,8%	53,0%	—	—	—	—	
Coton brut	40.158	1,9	346	—	854	2	1.202	577	112	31	101	—	189	6	—	27.364	10.576
100%	0,9%	—	2,1%	—	3,0%	1,4%	0,3%	0,1%	0,3%	—	0,5%	—	—	—	—	68,1%	
Métaux bruts	37.186	1,7	174	24	3.472	2.106	5.776	8.332	614	2.618	196	2.685	373	822	—	11.427	4.343
100%	0,5%	—	9,3%	5,7%	15,5%	22,4%	1,7%	7,0%	0,5%	7,2%	1,0%	2,2%	—	—	30,7%		
Farine	37.090	1,7	25.329	2.321	452	334	28.436	52	1.801	—	379	9	34	5	—	4.081	2.293
100%	68,3%	6,3%	1,2%	0,9%	76,7%	0,1%	4,9%	—	1,0%	—	0,1%	—	—	—	—	11,0%	
Autres articles	769.620	35,7	54.016	37.868	86.573	33.213	211.670	246.671	20.221	20.755	71.945	24.001	16.603	6.083	4.119	36.494	111.058
100%	7,0%	4,9%	11,2%	4,4%	27,5%	32,0%	2,6%	2,8%	9,3%	3,1%	2,2%	0,8%	0,5%	—	—	4,7%	
Total (non compris lingots et espèces)	2.160.129	100	196.901	121.952	364.659	95.340	778.852	474.462	53.788	56.748	93.947	178.213	91.161	15.503	38.126	96.227	283.102
100%	9,1%	5,6%	16,9%	4,4%	36,0%	22,0%	2,5%	2,6%	4,3%	8,3%	4,2%	0,7%	1,8%	—	—	4,5%	

¹ Dont: Russie 17.000, soit 11,3% et Argentine 16.232, soit 10,8%.
² Dont: Grèce, 31.022, soit 39,5% et Turquie, 9.078, soit 11,5%.

³ Dont: Brésil, 17.611, soit 35,5%; Pays-Bas, 3.241, soit 6,6% et Inde 2.696, soit 5,4%.
⁴ Dont: Inde, 5.228, soit 13,0% et Egypte, 4.280, soit 10,7%.

EXPORTATION.

La valeur des exportations autrichiennes a diminué, de 1928 à 1931, de 39% (2.208 millions de schillings en 1928 contre 1.341 millions en 1931).

Cependant, quoique cette diminution ait atteint tous les groupes de marchandises, elle n'a pas été partout d'une force égale, ce qui a changé le rôle relatif que jouent dans l'exportation les groupes principaux de marchandises.

Voici, en effet, quels ont été en 1928 et quels sont en 1931 les six principaux articles d'exportation :

Ordre d'importance	1928			1931		
	Marchandises	Valeur en milliers de schillings	Pourcentage de l'exportation totale	Marchandises	Valeur en milliers de schillings	Pourcentage de l'exportation totale
1	Bois	248.335	11,2	Machines et appareils .	112.074	8,4
2	Articles en coton . . .	229.191	10,4	Ouvrages en fer	104.522	7,8
3	Ouvrages en fer	167.783	7,6	Bois	102.052	7,6
4	Machines et appareils .	158.600	7,2	Fils de soie et articles en soie	101.296	7,6
5	Articles en soie	149.971	6,8	Fils de coton et articles en coton	87.836	6,6
6	Cuir et articles en cuir .	133.519	6,1	Papier	84.056	6,3

La diminution de la valeur a donc été particulièrement marquée pour les cotonnades (notamment les qualités supérieures), le bois (ont fléchi notamment les exportations de bois travaillé) et pour le cuir et les articles en cuir (objets de luxe), dont l'exportation, en 1931, ne s'est élevée qu'à 66,5 millions de schillings.

La destination des exportations a également subi des changements importants. Ainsi, les exportations de bois vers l'Allemagne ont fortement diminué, aussi bien en valeur qu'en poids, tandis que celles dirigées vers l'Italie, la France et la Suisse ont pris, en 1931, une importance plus grande dans l'exportation autrichienne.

Pour les produits textiles, ce sont surtout les envois vers les pays danubiens dont le coefficient d'importance a diminué, tandis que l'Allemagne, la Suisse, la Grande-Bretagne et l'Italie ont absorbé une plus grande part des exportations de cotonnades, de lainages et de soieries, et dans le cas de la Grande-Bretagne et de la Suisse, aussi de vêtements et confections.

De même, l'importance des marchés danubiens s'est trouvée réduite en ce qui concerne les produits des industries sidérurgique et mécanique et de l'industrie du papier. Il en est de même pour la Pologne.

L'Allemagne, par contre, est devenue un débouché plus intéressant pour les machines, les appareils, les véhicules et le papier, mais elle a diminué d'importance pour les métaux et les ouvrages en métaux.

La position de la Grande-Bretagne et, à quelques exceptions près, de la France s'est donc considérablement améliorée pour tous ces produits. L'importance du débouché italien s'est également accrue pour plusieurs groupes des produits métallurgiques.

IMPORTATION.

Les importations autrichiennes ont diminué en valeur, de 1928 à 1931, de 33% (3.239 millions de schillings en 1928 contre 2.160 millions en 1931).

Cette diminution se répartit d'une manière assez uniforme sur toutes les catégories principales, de sorte que l'ordre d'importance de ces catégories n'a pas beaucoup changé. Toutefois, les achats de combustibles sont devenus plus importants (8,2% contre 7%), tandis que les animaux vivants passent à la deuxième place (7,8% contre 8,3%).

Le rôle des pays danubiens comme fournisseurs de l'Autriche est resté en général le même, avec une légère tendance à l'augmentation pour les produits de l'élevage et de l'agriculture (autres que les farines) et les produits textiles. L'importance de l'Allemagne s'est, en général, accrue, notamment en ce qui concerne les produits textiles et métallurgiques et les céréales, tandis que les livraisons de combustibles minéraux allemands marquent un recul considérable.

BALANCE DU COMMERCE.

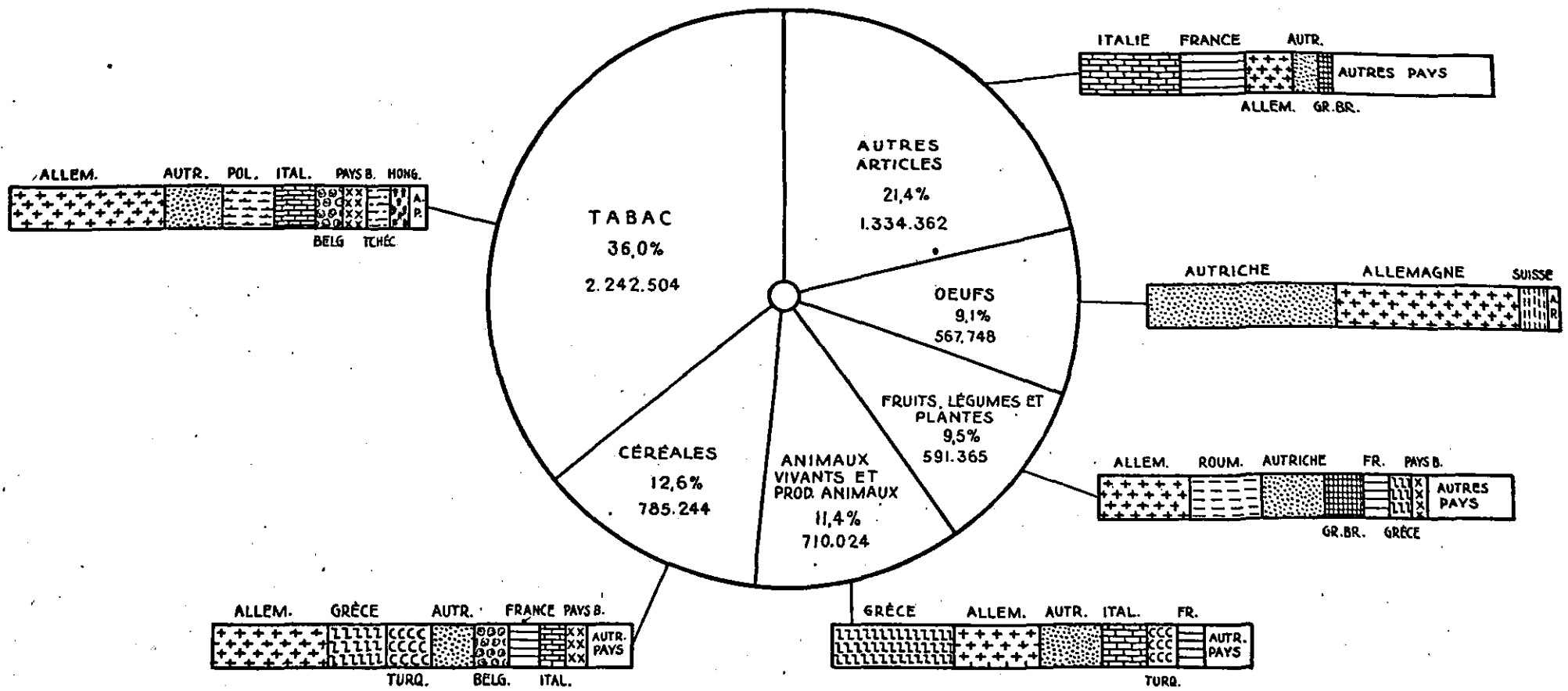
Aussi bien en 1928 qu'en 1931, le commerce extérieur de l'Autriche accuse un passif, qui en 1928 s'est élevé à 1.031 millions de schillings et en 1931 à 868 millions. Cette amélioration de la balance n'est qu'apparente, car, par rapport au volume total du commerce extérieur, le déficit de la balance s'est aggravé d'environ 19% en 1928 contre 25% en 1931.

La situation commerciale de l'Autriche s'est améliorée vis-à-vis de la Tchécoslovaquie et de la Pologne (diminution du déficit), ainsi que vis-à-vis de la France, de la Grande-Bretagne et de la Suisse, à l'égard desquelles le déficit de la balance est remplacé par un actif.

Par contre, le déficit de la balance du commerce autrichien a augmenté vis-à-vis de la Hongrie, de la Roumanie et de l'Allemagne, et l'actif s'est réduit vis-à-vis de la Yougoslavie et de l'Italie.

2. BULGARIE.

EXPORTATION, EN 1928, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE DESTINATION 1:



1 Graphique établi sur la base du tableau ci-contre — Exportation, par principaux articles, en 1928.

Bulgarie. — EXPORTATION EN 1928 PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE DESTINATION.

Marchandises exportées	Valeur en milliers de leva	% de l'exportation totale	Pays de destination												
			Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 5 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Autres
Tabac	2.242.504	36,0	300.713	108.955	6	123.221	—	532.895	834.926	205	4.057	214.948	282.647	—	372.826 ⁴
	100 %		13,4%	4,9%		5,5%		23,8%	37,2%		0,2%	9,6%	12,6%		16,6%
Céréales	785.244	12,6	79.266	12.873	1.762	8.306	915	103.122	218.616	59.495	12.510	47.227	—	—	344.274 ⁵
	100 %		10,1%	1,6%	0,2%	1,1%	0,1%	13,1%	27,8%	7,6%	1,6%	6,0%			43,8%
Animaux vivants et produits animaux	710.024	11,4	105.171	6.090	1.130	18.114	282	130.787	146.995	48.859	6.922	76.141	977	—	299.343 ⁶
	100 %		14,7%	0,9%	0,2%	2,6%		18,4%	20,7%	6,9%	1,0%	10,7%	0,1%		42,2%
Fruits, légumes et plantes	591.365	9,5	86.229	6.564	101.160	14.032	3.520	211.505	129.218	38.392	53.978	14.703	—	—	143.569 ⁷
	100 %		14,6%	1,1%	17,1%	2,4%	0,6%	35,8%	21,9%	6,5%	9,1%	2,5%			24,2%
Oeufs	567.748	9,1	259.543	362	—	—	—	259.905	252.792	27	—	11.068	—	40.949	3.007
	100 %		45,7%					45,7%	44,6%			1,9%		7,2%	0,6%
Autres articles ¹	1.334.362	21,4	84.191	8.055	27.021	19.449	12.325	151.041	155.983	202.420 ²	43.230	321.803 ³	2.336	31.136	426.413
	100 %		6,3%	0,6%	2,0%	1,5%	0,9%	11,3%	11,7%	15,2%	3,2%	24,1%	0,2%	2,3%	32,0%
Total	6.231.247	100	915.113	142.899	131.079	183.122	17.042	1.389.255	1.738.530	349.398	120.697	685.890	285.960	72.085	1.589.432
	100 %		14,7%	2,3%	2,1%	2,9%	0,3%	22,3%	27,9%	5,6%	1,9%	11,0%	4,6%	1,2%	25,5%

¹ Dont: Essence de rose, 240.678; cocons de vers à soie, 265.790.

² Dont: Essence de rose, 154.890.

³ Dont: cocons de vers à soie, 261.385.

⁴ Dont: Belgique, 155.554 (6,9%); Pays-Bas 135.602 (6,0%).

⁵ Dont: Grèce, 107.169 (13,6%); Turquie, 86.558 (11,0%); Belgique 65.338 (8,3%); Pays-Bas 39.548 (5,0%).

⁶ Dont: Grèce, 205.173 (28,9%); Turquie, 53.559 (7,5%).

⁷ Dont: Grèce, 31.878 (5,4%); Pays-Bas 23.073 (3,9%).

Bulgarie. — EXPORTATION EN 1931 PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE DESTINATION.

Marchandises exportées	Valeur en milliers de leva	% de l'exportation totale	Pays de destination												
			Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 5 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Autres
Tabac	2.579.730	43,5	467.879	117.104	268	197.605	—	782.856	1.040.637	38.790	4.040	64.069	478.431	16.444	154.463
	100%		18,1%	4,5%		7,7%		30,3%	40,3%	1,5%	0,2%	2,5%	18,5%	0,7%	6,0%
Céréales	1.195.148	20,1	203.073	49.031	—	25.169	—	277.273	143.239	106.306	13.764	29.512	—	—	625.054 ²
	100%		17,0%	4,1%		2,1%		23,2%	11,9%	8,9%	1,2%	2,5%			52,3%
Animaux vivants et produits animaux	849.990	14,3	219.220	—	—	27	—	219.247	347.555	2.403	—	13.530	—	266.327	928
	100%		25,8%					25,8%	40,9%	0,3%		1,6%		31,3%	0,1%
Fruits, légumes et plantes	420.568	7,1	22.164	192	985	21.445	—	44.786	63.025	20.414	14.563	138.310	5.321	2.175	131.974 ³
	100%		5,3%		0,2%	5,1%		10,6%	15,0%	4,9%	3,5%	32,8%	1,3%	0,5%	31,4%
Œufs	316.292	5,4	44.795	9.114	4.922	14.624	1.612	75.067	72.200	3.559	10.640	13.081	2.695	1.956	137.094 ⁴
	100%		14,2%	2,8%	1,6%	4,6%	0,5%	23,7%	22,8%	1,1%	3,4%	4,1%	0,9%	0,6%	43,4%
Autres articles ¹	572.446	9,6	36.069	4.885	5.696	15.004	4.723	66.377	81.669	62.328	15.946	85.777	3.742	23.693	232.914
	100%		6,3%	0,9%	1,0%	2,6%	0,8%	11,6%	14,3%	10,9%	2,8%	15,0%	0,7%	4,1%	40,6%
Total	5.934.174	100	993.200	180.326	11.871	273.874	6.335	1.465.606	1.748.325	233.800	58.953	344.279	490.189	310.595	1.282.427
	100%		16,7%	3,0%	0,2%	4,6%	0,1%	24,6%	29,4%	3,8%	1,0%	5,8%	8,3%	5,5%	21,6%

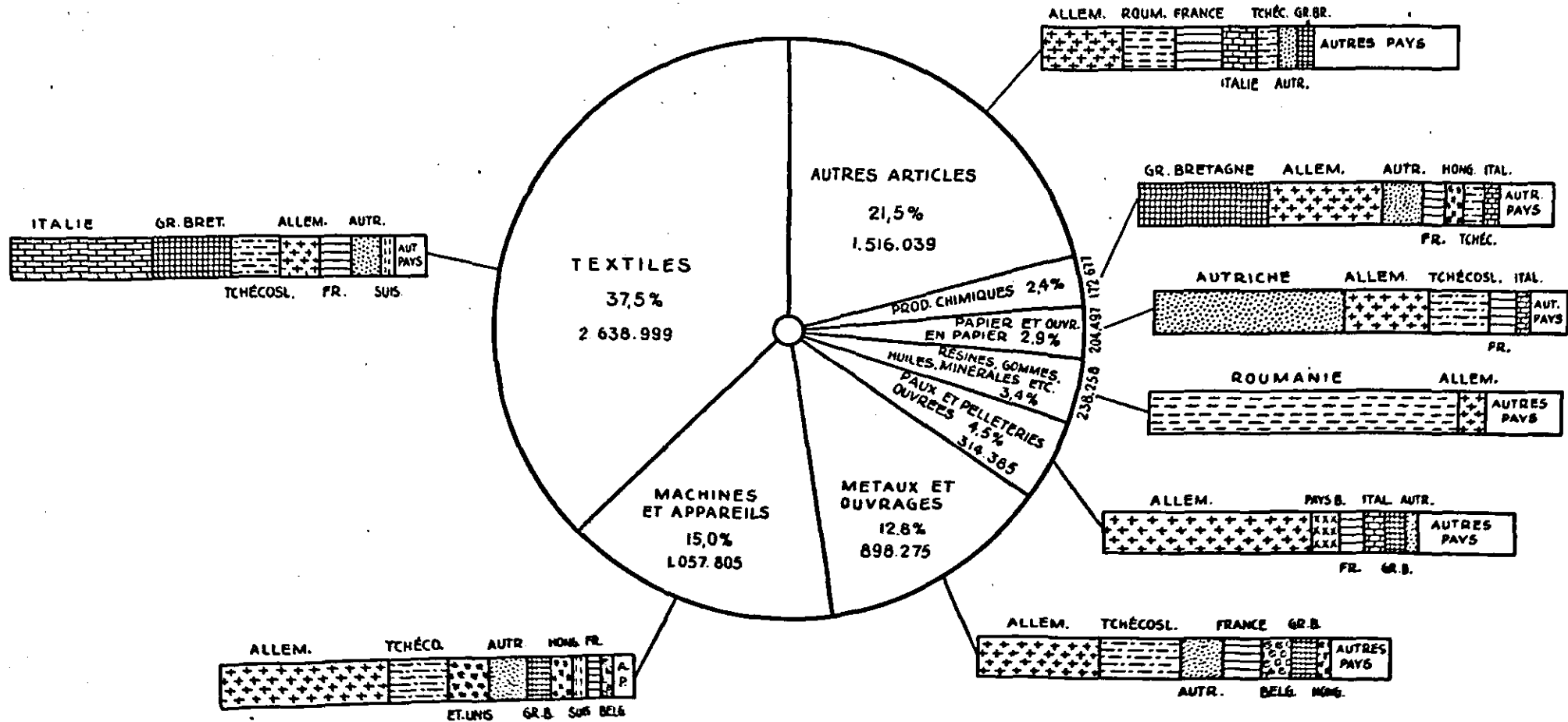
¹ Dont: Essence de rose: 85.095; dont: cocons de vers à soie, 42.379.

² Dont: Belgique, 423.539 (35,4%); Pays-Bas, 57.635 (4,8%).

³ Dont: Belgique, 38.569 (12,2%); Pays-Bas, 37.421 (11,8%).

⁴ Dont: Grèce, 53.348 (12,7%); Egypte, 14.478 (5,8%); Turquie, 21.378 (5,1%).

Bulgarie. — IMPORTATION, EN 1928, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE PROVENANCE 1.



1 Graphique établi sur la base du tableau ci-contre — • Importation, par principaux articles, en 1928 ».

Bulgarie. — IMPORTATION EN 1928 PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE PROVENANCE.

Marchandises importées	Valeur en milliers de leva	% de l'importation totale	Pays de provenance												
			Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 5 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Autres
Textiles	2.638.999	37,5	184.542	14.363	1.298	309.549	7.654	517.406	248.851	205.663	490.495	884.540	7.494	85.773	198.777
	100%		7,0%	0,5%	0,1%	11,7%	0,3%	19,6%	9,4%	7,8%	18,6%	33,5%	0,3%	3,3%	7,5%
Machines et appareils	1.057.805	15,0	96.455	56.635	830	150.810	1.111	305.841	427.320	33.198	57.465	26.720	949	36.206	170.106 ¹
	100%		9,1%	5,4%		14,3%	0,1%	28,9%	40,4%	3,2%	5,4%	2,5%	0,1%	3,4%	16,1%
Métaux et ouvrages en métaux . .	898.275	12,8	93.075	27.408	1.296	176.455	8.546	306.780	265.886	86.526	56.249	2.780	10.381	2.556	167.117 ²
	100%		10,4%	3,1%	0,1%	19,6%	1,0%	34,2%	29,6%	9,6%	6,3%	0,3%	1,2%	0,2%	18,6%
Peaux et pelleteries travaillées . .	314.385	4,5	9.553	608	1.256	5.935	5	17.357	157.501	19.307	14.133	15.599	4	1.480	89.004 ³
	100%		3,0%	0,2%	0,4%	1,9%		5,5%	50,1%	6,1%	4,5%	5,0%		0,5%	28,3%
Résines, gommés, huiles minérales, etc.	238.258	3,4	2.903	48	180.473	1.025	769	185.218	15.868	2.371	916	3.074	63	191	30.557
	100%		1,3%		75,7%	0,4%	0,3%	77,7%	6,7%	1,0%	0,4%	1,3%		0,1%	12,8%
Papier et ouvrages en papier . . .	204.497	2,9	95.049	1.943	707	29.890	4.567	132.156	41.170	13.943	394	6.217	38	144	10.435
	100%		46,5%	1,0%	0,3%	14,6%	2,2%	64,6%	20,1%	6,8%	0,2%	3,0%		0,1%	5,2%
Produits chimiques	172.677	2,4	16.503	7.270	3.249	6.861	138	34.021	47.989	9.146	54.770	6.154	20	1.141	19.436
	100%		9,6%	4,2%	1,9%	4,0%	0,1%	19,7%	27,8%	5,3%	31,7%	3,6%	—	0,7%	11,2%
Autres articles	1.516.039	21,5	69.022	25.290	187.916	76.382	21.178	379.788	289.060	170.069	59.052	125.373	10.733	42.088	439.876
	100%		4,6%	1,7%	12,4%	5,0%	1,4%	25,1%	19,1%	11,2%	3,9%	8,3%	0,7%	2,7%	29,0%
Total	7.040.935	100	567.102	133.565	377.025	756.907	43.968	1.878.567	1.493.645	540.223	733.474	1.070.457	29.682	169.579	1.125.308
	100%		8,1%	1,9%	5,4%	10,7%	0,6%	26,7%	21,2%	7,7%	10,4%	15,2%	0,4%	2,4%	16,0%

¹ Dont: Etats-Unis, 101.124(9,6%); Belgique, 32.741 (3,1%).

² Dont: Belgique, 67.320 (7,5%).

³ Dont: Pays-Bas, 22.131 (7,0%).

Bulgarie. — IMPORTATION EN 1931 PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE PROVENANCE.

Marchandises importées	Valeur en milliers de leva	% de l'importation totale	Pays de provenance												
			Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 5 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Autres
Textiles	1.472.811	31,6	76.528	15.236	5.093	139.027	798	236.682	150.446	137.746	225.317	541.936	17.554	80.354	82.776
	100%		5,2%	1,0%	0,3%	9,5%	0,1%	16,1%	10,2%	9,4%	15,3%	36,8%	1,2%	5,4%	5,6%
Métaux et ouvrages en métaux .	909.462	19,5	66.968	29.122	5.672	117.028	2.097	220.887	239.616	58.544	281.759	3.153	877	6.877	97.749
	100%		7,4%	3,2%	0,6%	12,9%	0,2%	24,3%	26,3%	6,4%	31,0%	0,4%	0,1%	0,8%	10,7%
Machines et appareils	664.180	14,3	60.435	11.572	1.816	50.302	837	124.962	303.053	14.356	16.126	24.247	118.351	19.391	43.694
	100%		9,1%	1,7%	0,3%	7,6%	0,1%	18,8%	45,6%	2,2%	2,4%	3,7%	17,8%	2,9%	6,6%
Peaux et pelleteries travaillées . .	211.264	4,5	7.584	938	1.171	736	1.225	11.654	44.568	37.134	7.334	9.545	—	1.820	99.209 ¹
	100%		3,6%	0,4%	0,6%	0,3%	0,6%	5,5%	21,1%	17,6%	3,5%	4,5%	—	0,9%	46,9%
Papier et ouvrages en papier . . .	177.201	3,8	61.015	918	4.285	40.683	160	107.061	23.153	11.913	19.064	6.162	—	1.191	8.657
	100%		34,4%	0,5%	2,4%	23,0%	0,1%	60,4%	13,1%	6,7%	10,7%	3,5%	—	0,7%	4,9%
Résines, gommes, huiles minérales, etc.	170.984	3,7	1.863	—	126.253	3.004	—	131.120	15.896	1.061	4.073	2.118	—	—	16.716
	100%		1,1%	—	73,8%	1,8%	—	76,7%	9,3%	0,6%	2,4%	1,2%	—	—	9,8%
Produits chimiques	168.208	3,6	8.381	22.687	5.980	28.747	1.984	67.779	40.336	4.921	24.173	2.401	—	1.682	26.886
	100%		5,0%	13,5%	3,6%	17,0%	1,2%	40,3%	24,0%	2,9%	14,4%	1,4%	—	1,0%	16,0%
Autres articles	885.953	19,0	51.790	23.837	67.383	51.649	9.203	203.862	267.093	62.560	39.224	47.937	8.050	39.153	218.074
	100%		5,8%	2,7%	7,6%	5,8%	1,1%	23,0%	30,1%	7,1%	4,5%	5,4%	0,9%	4,4%	24,6%
Total	4.660.063	100	334.564	104.310	217.653	431.176	16.304	1.104.007	1.084.191	328.235	617.070	637.499	144.832	150.468	593.761
	100%		7,2%	2,2%	4,7%	9,5%	0,3%	23,7%	23,3%	7,1%	13,2%	13,7%	3,1%	3,2%	12,7%

¹ Dont: Pays-Bas, 13.060 (6,2%); Belgique, 7.839 (3,7%); Espagne, 5.521 (2,6%); Suède, 5.276 (2,5%).

Le commerce extérieur de la Bulgarie a subi entre les années 1928 et 1931 une réduction qui, par comparaison avec le fléchissement du commerce mondial, peut être considérée comme modeste. Les exportations en effet, n'ont diminué que de 5% environ (de 6.231 à 5.934 millions de leva); tandis que les importations ont fléchi de 23% environ. En poids, la moyenne mensuelle des exportations bulgares a passé de 31.000 tonnes en 1928 à 64.000 tonnes en 1931. Par contre, celle des importations a diminué; de 30.000 en 1928, elle est tombée à 25.000 en 1931.

EXPORTATION.

L'exportation bulgare consiste presque exclusivement en *produits agricoles*. Le tabac, les céréales et les œufs constituaient en 1928 près du 60% de l'exportation totale, avec une valeur de 3.595 millions de leva. En 1931, malgré la baisse du volume global du commerce extérieur, ce même groupe a augmenté en valeur. Il a atteint 4.625 millions de leva représentant près du 80% de l'exportation totale.

Le tabac est le principal article d'exportation (36% des exportations totales en 1928 et 43,5% en 1931). Entre ces deux années, les exportations de tabac ont augmenté aussi bien en valeur qu'en quantité (de 22.400 tonnes à 24.600 tonnes et de 2.243 millions de leva à 2.580 millions). L'exportation des tabacs vers l'Allemagne, principal acheteur des tabacs bulgares, ainsi que vers les pays danubiens et vers la Pologne, a augmenté, tandis que vers l'Italie elle a subi une sensible réduction.

Les exportations de *céréales* ont considérablement augmenté en volume; d'un peu plus de 200.000 tonnes en 1928, elles atteignent près de 500.000 tonnes en 1931. Cependant, par suite de la baisse des prix, leur valeur n'est passée que de 785 millions de leva (12,6% de l'exportation totale) en 1928 à 1.195 millions de leva (20,1%) en 1931.

On peut apprécier l'importance de la chute des prix des céréales dans un pays comme la Bulgarie en constatant que si ces prix étaient restés en 1931 les mêmes qu'en 1928, sa recette à ce titre aurait été de 1.962 millions de leva au lieu de 1.195 millions.

Les achats des pays danubiens et de la France ont augmenté, alors que, par contre, ceux de l'Allemagne, de la Grande-Bretagne et de l'Italie ont fléchi. Il est à remarquer que la moitié environ des céréales bulgares trouve des débouchés en dehors des pays mentionnés.

Les exportations d'*œufs* montrent une évolution semblable à celle des exportations de céréales. leur volume a passé de 10.600 tonnes à 22.400 tonnes, mais leur valeur n'a augmenté que de 568 millions de leva (9,1%) à 850 millions de leva (14,3%).

Pour l'exportation des œufs bulgares, les pays danubiens n'ont plus la même importance qu'autrefois. Les ventes sur les deux autres grands marchés: l'Allemagne et la Suisse, accusent, par contre, une augmentation considérable.

D'une manière générale, la *distribution géographique des exportations* est restée à peu près la même, un quart environ des exportations a été dirigé vers les pays danubiens, un peu plus d'un quart vers l'Allemagne, et environ un quart vers le groupe composé de la France, de la Grande-Bretagne, de l'Italie, de la Pologne et de la Suisse.

L'importance relative du marché danubien a cependant augmenté quelque peu (22,3% et 24,6%), quoique les exportations vers la Roumanie et la Yougoslavie montrent une légère diminution. Les exportations vers l'Allemagne, la Pologne et la Suisse ont augmenté, tandis que celles dirigées vers la France, la Grande-Bretagne et l'Italie ont diminué.

IMPORTATION.

Les importations de la Bulgarie, dont la majeure partie est formée par les textiles, les produits des industries métallurgiques et sidérurgiques, les peaux et les pelleteries, le papier et les ouvrages en papier, ainsi que les résines, gommes et huiles minérales, ont gardé essentiellement le même caractère.

Les cinq pays danubiens considérés comme un ensemble occupent la première place parmi les fournisseurs, bien que leur part proportionnelle ait légèrement diminué (de 26,7 à 23,7%). La part de l'Allemagne par contre a augmenté légèrement (de 21,2 à 23,3%), de même que celle de la Grande-Bretagne (de 10,4 à 13,2%), de la Pologne (de 0,4 à 3,1%) et de la Suisse (de 2,4 à 3,2%). Les importations en provenance de France et d'Italie, par contre, ont diminué respectivement de 7,7 à 7,1% et de 15,2 à 13,7%.

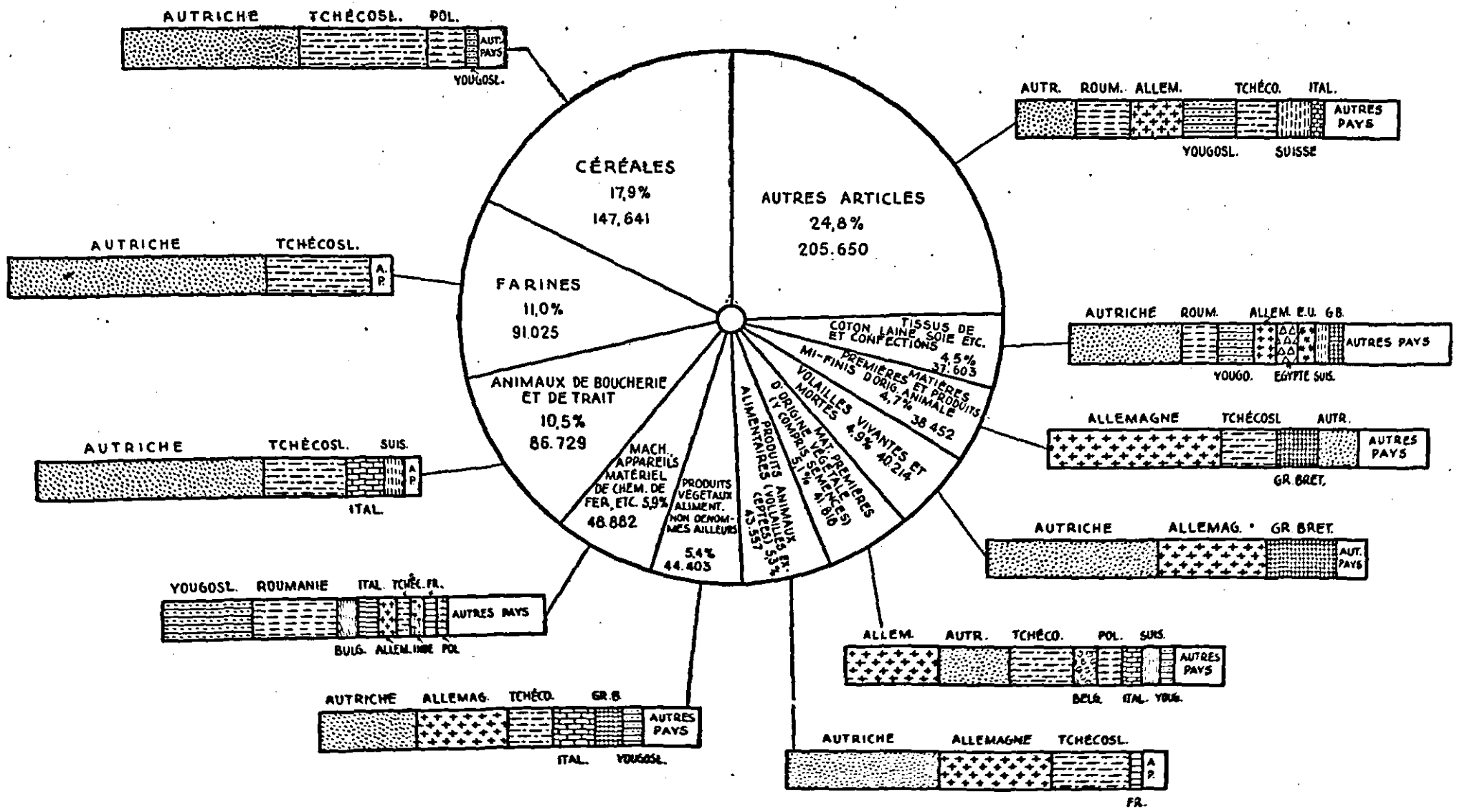
BALANCE DU COMMERCE.

En 1928, le commerce extérieur de la Bulgarie se soldait par un excédent d'importation de 809.688.000 leva. En 1931, par contre, l'excédent des exportations a été de 1.274.111.000 leva. Ce solde actif provient du commerce avec l'Allemagne (excédent de 664.134.000 leva), les cinq pays danubiens (361.593.000 leva), la Pologne (345.357.000 leva), la Suisse (160.127.000 leva), et les pays non dénommés dans les tableaux annexés (688.666.000 leva).

Par contre, un solde passif subsiste dans le commerce avec la Grande-Bretagne (déficit de 558.117.000 leva), l'Italie (293.220.000 leva) et la France (94.435.000 leva).

3. HONGRIE.

EXPORTATION, EN 1928, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE DESTINATION 1:



1 Graphique établi sur la base du tableau suivant : « Exportation, par principaux articles, en 1928 ».

Hongrie. — EXPORTATION EN 1928¹ PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE DESTINATION.

Marchandises	Valeur en millions de pengö	% de l'exportation totale	Pays de destination															
			Autriche	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Belgique	Turquie	Bulgarie	Grèce	Autres pays
Céréales	147.641	17,9	67.887	385	49.392	4.439	122.103	1.728	—	181	2.353	14.710	1.382	—	4.162	—	130	892
	100%		46,0%	0,3%	33,4%	3,0%	82,7%	1,2%		0,1%	1,6%	10,0%	0,9%		2,8%		0,1%	0,6%
Farines	91.025	11,0	61.126	—	24.738	1.179	87.043	430	—	308	611	—	2.320	—	—	—	56	257
	100%		67,0%		27,2%	1,3%	95,5%	0,5%		0,3%	0,7%		2,7%					0,3%
Animaux de boucherie et de trait	86.729	10,5	50.739	289	18.828	—	69.856	45	19	—	8.563	82	4.560	—	100	—	599	2.905
	100%		58,5%	0,3%	21,7%		80,5%				9,9%	0,1%	5,3%		0,1%		0,7%	3,3%
Machines, appareils, matériel de chemins de fer, etc.	48.882	5,9	1.309	10.752	1.719	11.516	25.296	2.360	1.624	22	2.517	1.469	—	872	1.013	2.663	528	10.518
	100%		2,7%	22,0%	3,5%	23,5%	51,7%	4,8%	3,3%		5,1%	3,0%		1,8%	2,1%	5,4%	1,1%	21,5%
Produits végétaux alimentaires non dénommés ailleurs	44.403	5,4	11.264	1.212	5.101	2.281	19.858	10.701	457	3.181	4.882	905	108	—	—	—	1.169	3.142
	100%		25,4%	2,7%	11,5%	5,1%	44,7%	24,1%	1,0%	7,2%	11,0%	2,0%	0,2%				2,6%	7,1%
Produits animaux alimentaires (volailles exceptées)	43.557	5,3	17.431	—	9.143	—	26.574	12.854	1.360	273	833	908	213	—	98	—	96	348
	100%		40,0%		21,0%		61,0%	29,5%	3,1%	0,6%	1,9%	2,2%	0,5%		0,2%		0,2%	0,8%
Matières premières d'origine végétale (y compris semences)	41.818	5,1	7.796	—	7.001	1.509	16.306	10.231	451	266	2.103	2.790	2.005	2.796	—	—	—	4.870
	100%		18,6%		16,7%	3,7%	39,0%	24,4%	1,1%	0,6%	5,0%	6,7%	4,8%	6,7%				11,7%
Volailles vivantes et mortes	40.214	4,9	18.042	—	525	—	18.567	11.641	—	7.497	206	—	528	781	—	—	—	994
	100%		44,9%		1,3%		46,2%	28,9%		18,6%	0,5%		1,3%	1,9%				2,6%
Matières premières et produits mi-finis d'origine animale	38.452	4,7	3.934	168	5.614	329	10.045	17.604	445	4.167	354	958	—	259	186	—	465	3.969
	100%		10,2%	0,4%	14,6%	0,9%	26,1%	45,8%	1,2%	10,8%	0,9%	2,5%		0,7%	0,5%		1,2%	10,3%
Tissus de coton, laine, soie, etc. et confections	37.603	4,5	11.092	3.617	620	3.447	18.776	2.242	—	1.266	311	—	1.414	420	507	143	467	12.057
	100%		29,5%	9,7%	1,5%	9,2%	49,9%	6,0%		3,4%	0,8%		3,8%	1,1%	1,3%	0,4%	1,2%	32,1%
Autres articles	205.650	24,8	31.340	28.674	22.503	27.793	110.310	27.974	2.615	5.600	6.488	5.079	18.285	352	1.648	3.976	2.608	20.715
	100%		15,2%	13,9%	10,9%	13,6%	53,6%	13,6%	1,3%	2,7%	3,2%	2,5%	8,9%	0,2%	0,8%	1,9%	1,3%	10,0%
Exportation totale (non compris lingots et espèces)	825.974	100	281.960	45.097	145.184	52.493	524.734	97.810	6.971	22.761	29.221	26.901	30.815	5.480	7.714	6.782	6.118	60.667
			34,1%	5,5%	17,6%	6,4%	63,4%	11,9%	0,8%	2,8%	3,5%	3,4%	3,7%	0,7%	0,9%	0,8%	0,7%	7,4%

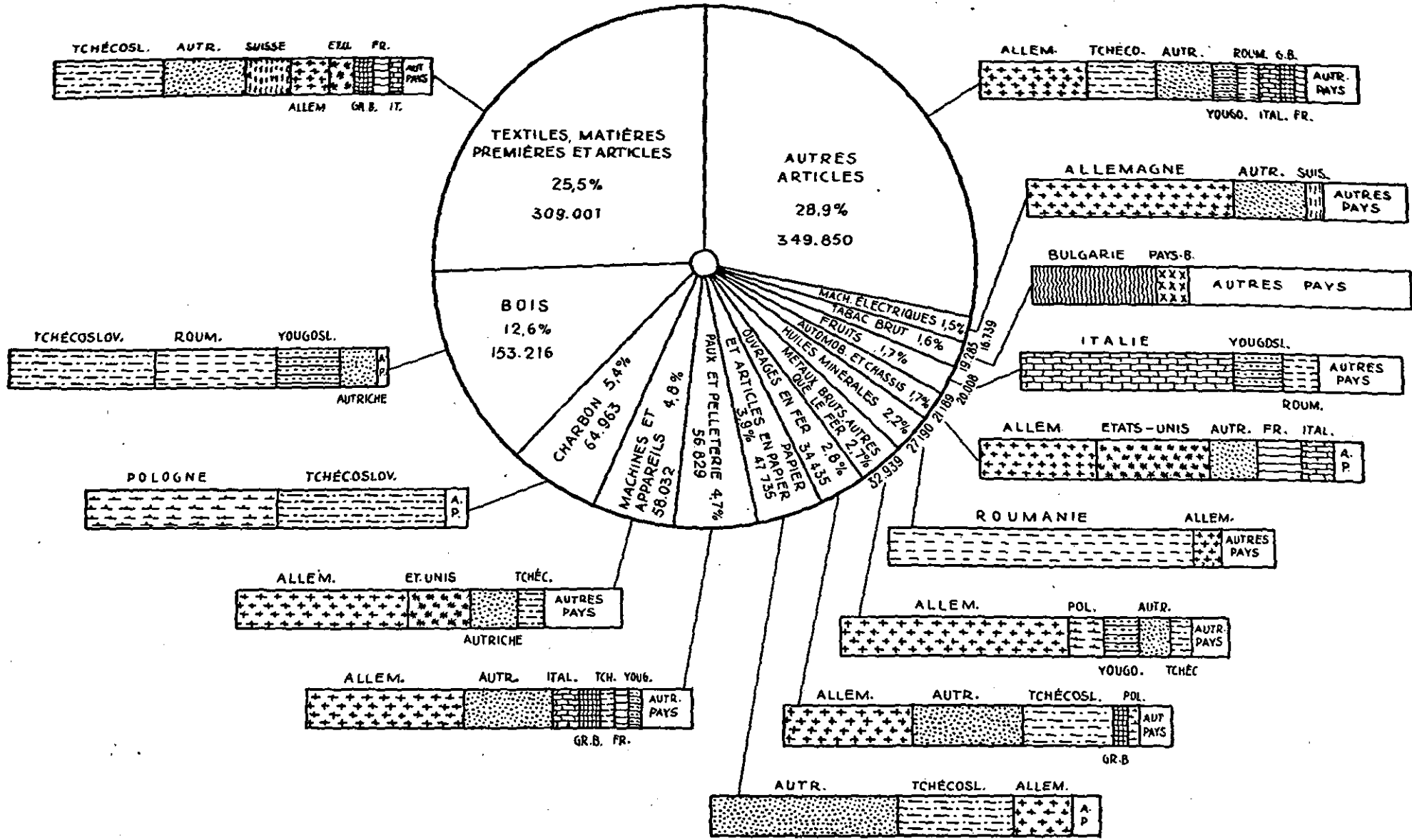
¹ Afin de pouvoir comparer les données disponibles pour 1931 avec celles de 1928, on a établi le présent tableau en remaniant le tableau de la page 20 du document E. 770.

Hongrie. — EXPORTATION EN 1931 PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE DESTINATION.

Marchandises	Exportation totale. Valeur en milliers de pengö	% de l'exportation totale	Pays de destination																
			Autriche	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	Belgique	Grande-Bretagne	Bulgarie	France	Italie	Pologne	Suède	Suisse	Etats-Unis	Inde	Autres pays
Animaux de boucherie et de trait . .	89.795	15,8	36.411	—	3.088	—	39.499	—	—	—	—	4.654	28.671	—	—	16.308	—	—	663
	100%		40,6%		3,4%		44,0%					5,2%	31,9%			18,2%			0,7%
Céréales ¹	52.915	9,3	27.882	—	552	424	28.858	474	2.034	8.135	—	4.782	1.755	—	—	3.375	—	—	3.502
	100%		52,6%		1,0%	0,8%	54,4%	0,9%	3,9%	15,4%		9,0%	3,3%			6,4%			6,7%
Volailles vivantes et mortes	44.700	7,9	20.550	—	—	—	20.550	9.769	—	9.800	—	494	3.846	—	—	149	—	—	92
	100%		46,0%				46,0%	21,9%		21,9%		1,1%	8,6%			0,3%			0,2%
Produits animaux alimentaires ² (excepté volailles)	42.579	7,5	20.804	—	613	—	21.417	14.844	—	525	—	2.409	1.900	78	—	924	61	—	421
	100%		48,9%		1,4%		50,3%	34,9%		1,2%		5,6%	4,5%	0,2%		2,2%	0,1%		1,0%
Machines et appareils, électriques ou non. Matériel de chemins de fer. .	42.374	7,5	842	4.599	1.355	11.365	18.161	—	816	—	1.355	—	1.494	938	298	499	—	2.216	16.597
	100%		2,0%	10,9%	3,2%	26,8%	42,9%		1,9%		3,2%		3,5%	2,2%	0,7%	1,2%		5,2%	39,2%
Produits bruts et mi-finis d'origine végétale	35.577	6,3	4.702	—	3.977	1.180	9.859	7.185	2.039	—	—	6.892	3.137	442	152	3.359	711	—	1.801
	100%		13,2%		11,2%	3,4%	27,8%	20,2%	5,7%			19,4%	8,8%	1,2%	0,4%	9,4%	2,0%		5,1%
Farines	32.018	5,6	23.870	—	11	—	23.881	—	—	1.877	—	—	1.679	—	—	3.160	—	—	1.421
	100%		74,5%				74,5%			5,9%			5,2%			9,9%			4,5%
Produits végétaux alimentaires, non spécialement dénommés	30.394	5,4	7.969	—	972	—	8.941	7.174	—	1.204	—	—	8.791	1.450	108	147	726	—	1.853
	100%		26,2%		3,2%		29,4%	23,6%		4,0%			28,8%	4,8%	0,4%	0,5%	2,4%		6,1%
Produits bruts et mi-finis d'origine animale	24.345	4,3	1.685	372	2.639	295	4.991	11.053	597	3.360	58	392	—	297	104	222	346	—	2.925
	100%		6,9%	1,5%	10,8%	1,2%	20,4%	45,4%	2,5%	13,8%	0,2%	1,6%		1,2%	0,4%	0,9%	1,4%		12,1%
Tissus de coton, laine, soie, etc., confections	21.251	3,8	868	845	—	2.979	4.692	1.564	1.138	4.613	205	1.125	288	—	746	299	961	—	5.620
	100%		4,1%	4,0%		14,0%	22,1%	7,4%	5,4%	21,7%	1,0%	5,3%	1,4%		3,5%	1,4%	4,5%		26,3%
Autres articles	151.173	26,6	25.297	14.322	10.989	16.385	66.993	16.308	1.424	25.859	3.385	7.601	5.755	2.572	602	9.090	972	2.305	8.307
	100%		16,7%	9,5%	7,3%	10,8%	44,3%	10,8%	0,9%	17,1%	2,2%	5,0%	3,8%	1,7%	0,4%	6,1%	0,6%	1,5%	5,5%
Exportation totale (non compris lingots et espèces)	567.121	100	170.880	20.138	24.196	32.628	247.842	68.371	8.048	55.373	5.003	28.349	57.316	5.777	2.010	37.532	3.777	4.521	43.202
	100%		30,1%	3,6%	4,3%	5,8%	43,8%	12,1%	1,4%	9,8%	0,9%	5,0%	10,1%	1,0%	0,4%	6,6%	0,7%	0,8%	7,5%

¹ Dont: 49.778 milliers de pengö pour le froment.
² Lait, œufs et beurre y compris.

Hongrie. — IMPORTATION, EN 1928, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE PROVENANCE 1 :



1 Graphique établi sur la base du tableau suivant : « Importation, par principaux articles, en 1928. »

Hongrie. — IMPORTATION EN 1928¹ PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE PROVENANCE.

Marchandises	Valeur en milliers de pengö	% de l'importation totale	Pays de provenance											
			Autriche	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Autres pays
Textiles, matières premières et articles . . .	309.001	25,5	66.991	—	90.550	2.852	160.393	31.322	13.411	15.047	9.858	2.481	36.833	39.656 ²
	100%		21,7%		29,3%	1,0%	52,0%	10,1%	4,3%	4,9%	3,2%	0,8%	11,9%	12,8%
Bois	153.216	12,6	14.818	50.365	59.070	25.963	150.216	—	—	—	—	2.550	—	450
	100%		9,7%	32,9%	38,6%	16,9%	98,1%					1,6%		0,3%
Charbon	64.963	5,4	1.334	—	28.528	342	30.204	1.349	—	—	—	32.670	—	740
	100%		2,1%		43,9%	0,5%	46,5%	2,1%				50,3%		1,1%
Machines et appareils	58.032	4,8	6.994	—	4.052	38	11.084	25.871	1.527	1.685	109	190	871	16.695 ⁴
	100%		12,1%		7,0%		19,1%	44,6%	2,6%	2,9%	0,2%	0,3%	1,5%	28,8%
Peaux et pelleteries	56.829	4,7	12.967	596	2.111	1.825	17.499	23.586	2.127	3.140	3.900	13	512	6.052
	100%		22,8%	1,0%	3,8%	3,2%	30,8%	41,6%	3,7%	5,5%	6,9%		0,9%	10,6%
Papier et articles en papier	47.735	3,9	23.163	—	14.082	421	37.666	7.303	227	547	671	—	—	1.321
	100%		48,5%		29,5%	1,0%	79,0%	15,3%	0,5%	1,0%	1,4%			2,8%
Ouvrages en fer ³	34.435	2,8	9.820	244	8.153	—	18.217	11.356	275	1.258	—	1.016	—	2.313
	100%		28,6%	0,7%	23,6%		52,9%	33,0%	0,8%	3,7%		3,0%		6,7%
Métaux bruts autres que le fer	32.939	2,7	2.679	314	1.890	2.985	7.868	19.245	—	213	—	3.041	341	2.231
	100%		8,1%	1,0%	5,7%	9,0%	23,9%	58,4%		0,8%		9,1%	1,0%	6,8%
Huiles minérales	27.190	2,2	—	21.412	—	—	21.412	2.077	—	—	—	616	—	3.085
	100%			78,8%			78,8%	7,6%				2,3%		11,3%
Automobiles et châssis d'automobiles	21.189	1,7	2.586	—	—	—	2.586	6.396	2.455	385	1.807	—	—	7.560 ⁵
	100%		12,2%				12,2%	30,2%	11,6%	1,8%	8,5%			35,7%
Fruits	20.008	1,7	399	1.869	—	2.579	4.847	—	228	—	11.204	—	—	3.729
	100%		2,0%	9,3%		12,9%	24,2%		1,2%		56,0%			18,6%
Tabac brut	19.285	1,6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	350	—	—	18.935 ⁶
	100%										1,8%			98,2%
Machines électriques	16.739	1,5	3.208	—	—	—	3.208	9.081	—	370	—	—	752	3.328
	100%		19,2%				19,2%	54,3%		2,1%			4,5%	19,9%
Autres articles	349.850	28,9	51.274	20.934	63.450	23.950	159.608	99.076	10.845	12.807	20.514	6.767	8.391	31.842
	100%		14,7%	5,9%	18,1%	6,9%	45,6%	28,3%	3,1%	3,7%	5,9%	1,9%	2,4%	9,1%
Total (non compris lingots et espèces)	1.211.411	100	196.233	95.734	271.886	60.955	624.808	236.662	31.095	35.452	48.413	49.344	47.700	137.937
	100%		16,2%	7,9%	22,4%	5,0%	51,5%	19,5%	2,6%	3,0%	4,0%	4,1%	3,9%	

¹ Afin de pouvoir comparer les données disponibles pour 1931, avec celles de 1928, on a établi le présent tableau en remaniant celui de la page 21 du document E-770.

² Y compris les produits mi-fabriqués en fer (7.824) et le fer brut et ferraille (6.980).

³ Dont: Etats-Unis, 20.730 (6,7%).

⁴ Dont: Etats-Unis, 9.340 (16,1%).

⁵ Dont: Etats-Unis, 6.290 (29,7%).

⁶ Dont: Turquie, 6.769 (35,1%); Bulgarie, 6.308 (32,7%); Grèce, 4.209 (22,2%); Pays-Bas, 1.650 (8,6%).

Hongrie. — IMPORTATION EN 1931 PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE PROVENANCE.

Marchandises	Valeur en milliers de pengő	% de l'importation totale	Pays de provenance											
			Autriche	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Autres pays
Textiles, matières premières et articles . . .	92.929	16,9	11.943	—	9.480	1.636	23.059	14.379	8.521	7.096	9.453	2.851	7.644	19.926 ³
	100%		12,8%		10,2%	1,8%	24,8%	15,5%	9,2%	7,6%	10,2%	3,1%	8,2%	21,4%
Bois	64.781	11,8	7.486	41.040	4.208	7.727	60.461	—	—	—	—	4.310	—	10
	100%		11,6%	63,3%	6,5%	11,9%	93,3%					6,7%		
Peaux et pelleteries	32.634	5,9	3.929	379	1.619	1.555	7.482	15.991	802	4.029	1.420	612	—	2.298
	100%		12,0%	1,1%	5,0%	4,8%	22,9%	49,0%	2,5%	12,3%	4,4%	1,9%		7,0%
Charbon	31.106	5,7	1.085	—	13.874	192	15.151	3.661	—	—	—	12.241	—	53
	100%		3,5%		44,6%	0,6%	48,7%	11,8%				39,4%		0,1%
Papier et articles en papier	28.793	5,2	16.863	308	3.221	154	20.546	5.307	140	147	1.078	105	—	1.470
	100%		58,6%	1,1%	11,2%	0,5%	71,4%	18,4%	0,5%	0,5%	3,7%	0,4%		5,1%
Machines et appareils	20.027	3,6	2.084	128 ²	1.043	199 ²	3.454	13.210	556 ²	476	375	—	289	1.667
	100%		10,4%	0,6%	5,2%	1,0%	17,2%	66,0%	2,8%	2,4%	1,9%		1,4%	8,3%
Tabac brut	19.372	3,5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1.664	—	—	17.708 ⁴
	100%										8,6%			91,4%
Huiles minérales	16.044	2,9	—	14.091	—	—	14.091	—	—	—	—	326	—	1.627
	100%			87,8%			87,8%					2,0%		10,2%
Mé aux bruts, autres que le fer	13.963	2,5	2.207	179	432	683	3.501	6.370	—	769	—	1.010	505	1.808
	100%		15,8%	1,3%	3,1%	4,9%	25,1%	45,6%		5,5%		7,2%	3,7%	12,9%
Maïs.	13.660	2,5	—	3.449	—	9.693	13.142	—	—	—	—	—	—	518
	100%			25,2%		71,0%	96,2%							3,8%
Fruits	12.434	2,3	—	629	—	1.238	1.867	942	—	—	6.660	—	—	2.965
	100%			5,0%		10,0%	15,0%	7,6%			53,6%			23,8%
Ouvrages en fer ¹	10.394	1,9	777	—	1.289	—	2.066	6.426	161	189	—	303	—	1.249
	100%		7,5%		12,4%		19,9%	61,8%	1,6%	1,8%		2,9%		12,0%
Autres articles.	193.446	35,3	23.080	11.002	14.945	16.707	65.734	66.330	7.085	7.886	11.092	3.327	4.219	27.773
	100%		11,9%	5,8%	7,7%	8,6%	34,0%	34,3%	3,7%	4,1%	5,7%	1,6%	2,2%	14,4%
	549.583	100	69.454	71.205	50.111	39.784	230.554	132.616	17.265	20.592	31.742	25.085	12.657	79.072
	100%		12,6%	13,0%	9,1%	7,3%	42,0%	24,1%	3,1%	3,7%	5,8%	4,6%	2,3%	14,4%

¹ Y compris les demi-produits en fer (2.513).

² Même électriques.

³ Dont: Etats-Unis, 15.777 (17,0%).

⁴ Dont: Bulgarie, 7.469 (38,6%); Turquie, 4.817 (24,9%); Grèce, 2.211, (11,4%); Pays-Bas, 2.031 (10,5%).

EXPORTATIONS.

La valeur globale des exportations passe de 825.974.000 pengö en 1928 à 567.121.000 pengö en 1931. La diminution de valeur est donc de 31%.

Le tableau ci-dessous montre les changements intervenus dans le rôle relatif des principales catégories de marchandises exportées en 1928 et 1931.

Ordre d'importance	1928			Ordre d'importance	1931		
	Marchandises	% de l'exportation totale	Millions de pengö		Marchandises	% de l'exportation totale	Millions de pengö
1	Céréales	17,9	147.641	1	Animaux de boucherie et de trait . .	15,8	89.795
2	Farines	11,0	91.025	2	Céréales	9,3	52.915
3	Animaux de boucherie et de trait . .	10,5	86.729	3	Volailles vivantes et mortes	7,9	44.700
4	Machines et appareils, matériel de chemin de fer . .	5,9	48.882	4	Produits animaux alimentaires . .	7,5	42.579
5	Produits végétaux alimentaires . .	5,4	44.403	5	Machines et appareils, matériel de chemin de fer . .	7,5	42.374
6	Produits animaux alimentaires . .	5,3	43.557	6	Produits bruts et finis d'origine végétale	6,3	35.577
7	Matières premières d'origine végétale	5,1	41.818	7	Farines	5,6	32.018

Ce tableau fait ressortir l'orientation nouvelle de l'agriculture hongroise qui, en présence de la chute des prix des *céréales* a dirigé davantage ses efforts vers l'élevage des *animaux et de la volaille*; aussi, tandis qu'en 1928 l'exportation de l'ensemble des produits végétaux représentait 39,4% de l'exportation totale et les produits de l'élevage 25,4% seulement, en 1931 au contraire ce rapport est de 26,6% et de 35,5%.

Le tableau montre aussi une régression notable dans l'importance relative de l'exportation des *farines*. Elle est imputable probablement à la tendance généralisée des pays importateurs de réserver la mouture à leurs nationaux.

Par contre, l'importance relative des produits industriels à l'égard de l'ensemble des exportations s'est accrue.

Les données statistiques de 1928 et 1931 permettent de constater que l'Autriche a conservé le premier rang comme importateur de produits agricoles hongrois.

Elles montrent l'importance croissante du marché italien qui a pris la troisième place et la diminution très considérable des exportations vers la Tchécoslovaquie, due probablement à l'absence d'un règlement contractuel des relations commerciales entre ces deux pays.

Le tableau et le graphique indiquent également que les *industries mécaniques* hongroises écoulent leur production surtout en Yougoslavie et en Roumanie, mais que les marchés bulgare et italien ne sont pas négligeables. Ils font ressortir l'importance de l'Allemagne comme débouché pour les *produits animaux alimentaires, y compris les volailles*.

Il est à remarquer d'ailleurs que plusieurs pays européens, en dehors du groupe danubien, sont devenus des clients relativement plus importants pour la Hongrie. Tel est le cas pour la Grande-Bretagne et la Suisse quant aux *céréales*, la Grande-Bretagne pour la *volaille*, l'Italie et la Suisse pour les *animaux et les produits animaux alimentaires*, la France pour ces derniers produits.

IMPORTATIONS.

Les importations hongroises de 1.211.411.000 de pengö en 1928 tombent à 549.583.000 pengö en 1931, soit une différence de 55%.

Le fait saillant qui se dégage des données statistiques est que le rang d'importance des principales marchandises importées par rapport à la valeur totale des importations est resté sensiblement le même, c'est le cas pour les *textiles*, le *bois*, les *peaux et pelleteries*, le *charbon*, qui gardent dans l'ordre les cinq premières places, bien que par rapport à l'ensemble leur pourcentage ait diminué.

Il y a lieu de noter, d'une part, l'importance accrue de l'importation du *papier*, d'autre part, la diminution de celle des *machines et appareils*.

En valeur, les importations des principales marchandises ont diminué.

Le rôle des pays danubiens comme fournisseurs de la Hongrie a diminué d'importance pour les textiles, les bois, les peaux et pelleteries, le papier et les articles en papier, les machines et appareils. Le contraire s'est produit pour le charbon et davantage pour les huiles minérales en provenance de ces pays.

La position de l'Allemagne s'est notablement améliorée pour l'ensemble de ses importations, sauf pour les métaux non ferreux bruts, pour lesquels elle n'occupe plus le même rang qu'en 1928.

La part de la France, de la Grande-Bretagne et de l'Italie dans les importations hongroises de produits textiles s'est accrue.

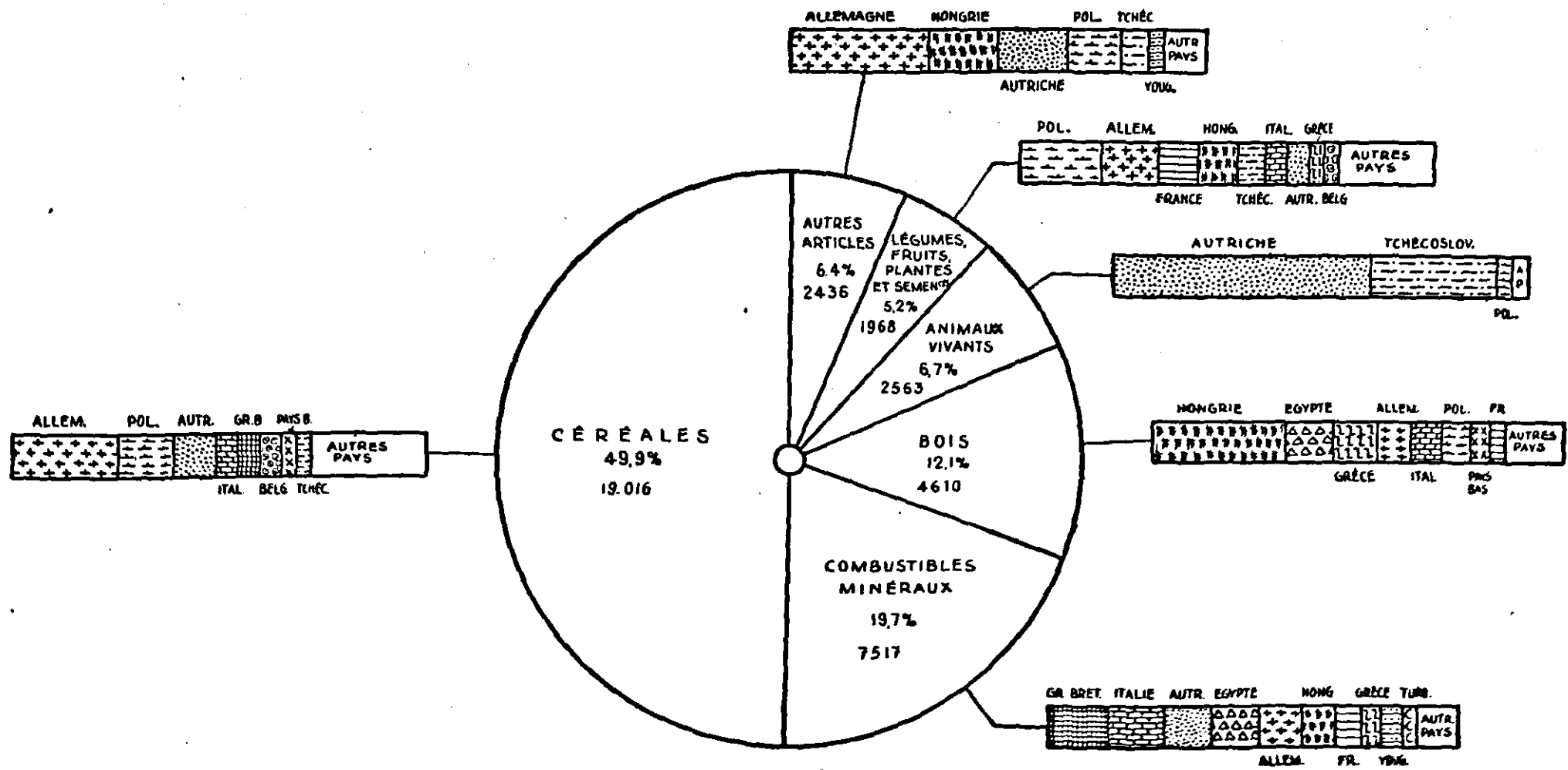
Il en est de même pour la Pologne quant aux bois, et la Grande-Bretagne en ce qui concerne les peaux et les pelleteries.

BALANCE DU COMMERCE.

En 1928, le commerce extérieur de la Hongrie se soldait par un passif de 385.437.000 pengö en 1931, par contre, l'excédent des exportations a été de 17.537.000 pengö. Ce solde actif provient de l'amélioration de la situation commerciale vis-à-vis de tous les pays considérés dans le tableau ci-annexé à l'exception de la Roumanie, à l'égard de laquelle le passif de la balance a légèrement augmenté.

4. ROUMANIE.

EXPORTATION, EN 1927, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE DESTINATION 1.



Graphique établi sur la base du tableau suivant : « Exportation, par principaux articles, en 1927 ».

Roumanie. — EXPORTATION EN 1927 PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE DESTINATION.

Marchandises exportées	Valeur en millions de lei	% de l'exportation totale	Pays de destination											
			Autriche	Hongrie	Tchécoslovaquie	Yougoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Autres
Céréales	19.016	49,9	2.010	445	687	30	3.172	4.797	526	1.049	1.072	2.480	4	5.916 ²
	100%		10,6%	2,3%	3,6%	0,2%	16,7%	25,2%	2,8%	5,5%	5,6%	13,0%	0,02%	31,2%
Combustibles minéraux	7.517	19,7	895	602	197	401	2.095	808	470	1.060	1.010	2	—	2.072 ³
	100%		11,9%	8,0%	2,6%	5,3%	27,8%	10,8%	6,3%	14,1%	13,4%	0,03%	—	27,6%
Bois	4.610	12,1	21	1.489	58	14	1.582	372	165	76	341	332	5	1.737 ⁴
	100%		0,5%	32,3%	1,3%	0,3%	34,4%	8,1%	3,6%	1,6%	7,4%	7,2%	0,1%	37,6%
Animaux vivants	2.563	6,7	1.593	39	791	—	2.423	33	—	—	—	81	—	26
	100%		62,2%	1,5%	30,9%	—	94,6%	1,2%	—	—	—	3,2%	—	1,0%
Légumes, fruits, plantes et semences	1.968	5,2	101	186	126	7	420	265	189	32	107	386	1	568 ⁵
	100%		5,1%	9,5%	6,4%	0,4%	21,4%	13,5%	9,6%	1,6%	5,4%	19,6%	0,05%	28,9%
Autres articles ¹	2.436	6,4	402	408	169	93	1.072	817	12	12	20	310	30	163
	100%		16,6%	16,7%	6,9%	3,8%	44,0%	33,5%	0,5%	0,5%	0,8%	12,7%	1,2%	6,8%
Total	38.110	100	5.022	3.169	2.028	545	10.764	7.092	1.362	2.229	2.550	3.591	40	10.482
	100%		13,2%	8,3%	5,3%	1,4%	28,2%	18,6%	3,6%	5,9%	6,7%	9,4%	0,1%	27,5%

¹ Dont 833 millions de lei de produits alimentaires animaux.

² Dont Gibraltar 3.287 (17,3%); Belgique 997 (5,2%); Pays-Bas 715 (3,8%); Grèce 231 (1,2%).

³ Dont Egypte 878 (11,7%); Grèce 372 (4,9%); Turquie 267 (3,6%).

⁴ Dont Egypte 538 (11,7%); Grèce 498 (10,8%); Pays-Bas 222 (4,8%).

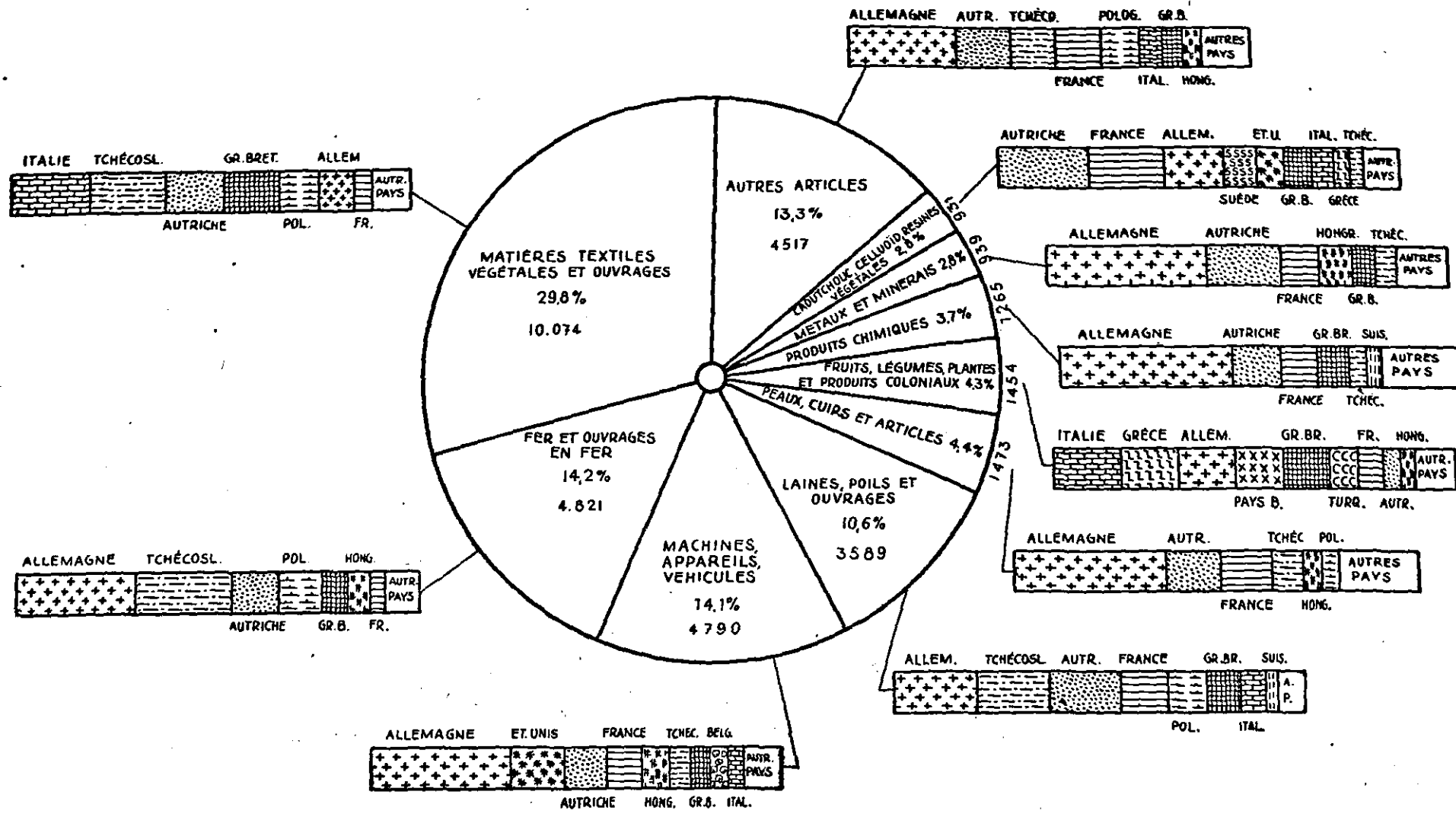
⁵ Dont Grèce 70 (3,6%); Belgique 68 (3,5%); Pays-Bas 49 (2,5%); Gibraltar 39 (2,0%).

Roumanie. — EXPORTATION EN 1930 PAR PRINCIPaux ARTICLES ET PAYS DE DESTINATION.

Marchandises exportées	Valeur en millions de lei	% de l'expor- tation totale	Pays de destination											
			Autriche	Hongrie	Tchéco- slovaquie	Yougo- slavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande- Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Autres
Combustibles minéraux	10.437	36,6	1.069	524	565	445	2.603	840	1.140	2.215	1.257	2	1	2.379
	100%		10,2%	5,0%	5,4%	4,3%	24,9%	8,1%	10,9%	21,2%	12,0%	0,02%	0,01%	22,9%
Céréales	9.989	35,0	366	164	281	8	819	2.946	672	925	1.740	138	—	2.749
	100%		3,7%	1,6%	2,8%	0,08%	8,2%	29,5%	6,7%	9,3%	17,4%	1,4%	—	27,5%
Bois	3.096	10,8	30	1.147	94	8	1.279	338	79	12	212	29	9	1.138
	100%		1,0%	37,1%	3,0%	0,3%	41,4%	10,9%	2,6%	0,4%	6,9%	0,9%	0,3%	36,7%
Animaux vivants	1.878	6,6	647	3	780	—	1.430	93	1	—	332	3	—	19
	100%		34,5%	0,2%	41,5%	—	76,2%	5,0%	0,05%	—	17,7%	0,2%	—	1,0%
Légumes, fruits, plantes et semences	1.075	3,8	48	96	139	5	288	371	40	62	30	151	5	128
	100%		4,5%	8,9%	12,9%	0,5%	26,8%	34,5%	3,7%	5,8%	2,8%	14,0%	0,5%	11,9%
Autres articles ¹	2.045	7,2	426	192	127	42	787	774	25	16	104	129	37	173
	100%		20,8%	9,4%	6,2%	2,1%	38,5%	37,8%	1,2%	0,8%	5,1%	6,3%	1,8%	8,5%
Total	28.520	100	2.586	2.126	1.986	508	7.206	5.362	1.957	3.230	3.675	452	52	6.586
	100%		9,1%	7,5%	7,0%	1,8%	25,4%	18,8%	6,9%	11,3%	12,8%	1,6%	0,2%	23,0%

¹ Dont 1.068 de produits alimentaires animaux.

1 Graphique établi sur la base du tableau suivant — « Importation par principaux articles, en 1927 ».



Roumanie. — IMPORTATION, EN 1927, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE PROVENANCE.

Marchandises importées	Valeur en millions de lei	% de l'importation totale	Pays de provenance											
			Autriche	Hongrie	Tchéco-slovaquie	Yougo-slavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Autres pays
Matières textiles végétales et ouvrages . . .	10.074	29,8	1.466	130	1.895	6	3.497	895	446	1.365	1.931	1.010	215	715
	100%		14,6%	1,3%	18,8%	0,1%	34,8%	8,9%	4,4%	13,6%	19,2%	10,0%	2,1%	7,0%
Fer et ouvrages en fer	4.821	14,2	540	271	1.155	4	1.980	1.439	182	301	11	511	21	376
	100%		11,2%	5,6%	24,0%	0,3%	41,4%	29,9%	3,8%	6,2%	0,2%	10,6%	0,4%	7,8%
Machines, appareils, véhicules.	4.790	14,1	486	333	246	6	1.071	1.603	415	221	174	94	94	1.118 ¹
	100%		10,1%	7,0%	5,1%	0,1%	22,3%	33,5%	8,7%	4,6%	3,6%	2,0%	2,0%	23,3%
Laines, poils et ouvrages	3.589	10,6	625	75	634	2	1.336	720	405	303	218	331	112	164
	100%		17,4%	2,1%	17,7%	0,1%	37,3%	20,1%	11,3%	8,4%	6,1%	9,2%	3,1%	4,5%
Peaux, cuirs et articles	1.473	4,4	195	69	117	12	393	549	187	40	43	67	43	151
	100%		13,2%	4,7%	7,9%	0,8%	26,6%	37,3%	12,7%	2,7%	2,9%	4,6%	2,9%	10,3%
Fruits, légumes, plantes et produits coloniaux	1.454	4,3	58	52	29	28	167	200	101	166	236	8	3	573 ²
	100%		4,0%	3,6%	2,0%	1,9%	11,5%	13,8%	6,9%	11,4%	16,2%	0,6%	0,2%	39,4%
Produits chimiques	1.265	3,7	152	25	55	6	238	534	115	103	35	21	44	175
	100%		12,0%	2,0%	4,3%	0,5%	18,8%	42,2%	9,2%	8,1%	2,7%	1,7%	3,5%	13,8%
Métaux et minerais	939	2,8	175	82	48	7	312	369	87	55	6	20	8	82
	100%		18,6%	8,7%	5,1%	0,8%	33,2%	39,3%	9,3%	5,9%	0,6%	2,1%	0,9%	8,7%
Caoutchouc, celluloïd, résines végétales. . .	931	2,8	207	25	34	—	266	136	175	65	49	16	19	205 ³
	100%		22,2%	2,7%	3,7%		28,6%	14,6%	18,8%	7,0%	5,3%	1,7%	2,0%	22,0%
Autres articles	4.517	13,3	595	200	506	8	1.319	1.202	502	221	247	438	121	467
	100%		13,2%	4,4%	11,2%	0,4%	29,2%	26,6%	11,1%	4,9%	5,5%	9,7%	2,7%	10,3%
Total	33.853	100	4.499	1.262	4.719	99	10.579	7.647	2.615	2.840	2.950	2.516	680	4.026
	100%		13,3%	3,7%	13,9%	0,3%	31,2%	22,6%	7,7%	8,4%	8,7%	7,4%	2,0%	12,0%

¹ Dont Etats-Unis 620 (12,9%); Belgique 207 (4,3%).

² Dont Grèce 200 (13,8%); Pays-Bas 173 (11,9%); Turquie 100 (6,9%).

³ Dont Suède 76 (8,2%); Etats-Unis 66 (7,1%); Grèce 36 (3,9%).

Roumanie. — IMPORTATION, EN 1930, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE PROVENANCE.

Marchandises importées	Valeur en millions de lei	% de l'impor- tation totale	Pays de provenance											
			Autriche	Hongrie	Tchéco- slovaquie	Yougo- slavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande- Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Autres pays
Matières textiles végétales et ouvrages. . .	6.679	29,0	978	92	1.572	7	2.649	558	324	872	1.256	356	192	472
	100%		14,6%	1,4%	23,5%	0,1%	39,6%	8,4%	4,9%	13,1%	18,8%	5,3%	2,9%	7,0%
Machines, appareils, véhicules	3.725	16,2	339	192	125	1	657	1.757	157	126	64	21	154	789
	100%		9,1%	5,2%	3,3%	—	17,6%	47,2%	4,2%	3,4%	1,7%	0,6%	4,1%	21,2%
Fer et ouvrages en fer.	3.701	16,1	277	291	958	13	1.539	1.056	347	168	8	186	18	379
	100%		7,5%	7,9%	25,9%	0,4%	41,7%	28,5%	9,4%	4,5%	0,2%	5,0%	0,5%	10,2%
Laines, poils et ouvrages.	1.359	5,9	227	24	171	—	422	315	112	205	34	183	40	48
	100%		16,7%	1,8%	12,6%	—	31,1%	23,2%	8,2%	15,1%	2,5%	13,5%	2,9%	3,5%
Produits chimiques	1.135	4,9	112	27	115	—	254	461	190	87	35	4	39	65
	100%		9,9%	2,4%	10,1%	—	22,4%	40,6%	16,7%	7,7%	3,1%	0,4%	3,4%	5,7%
Fruits, légumes, plantes et produits coloniaux	1.040	4,5	38	14	16	19	87	124	62	92	213	5	1	456
	100%		3,7%	1,3%	1,5%	1,8%	8,3%	11,9%	6,0%	8,8%	20,5%	0,5%	0,1%	43,9%
Métaux et minerais	870	3,8	103	51	39	2	195	289	110	124	4	26	20	102
	100%		11,8%	5,9%	4,5%	0,2%	22,4%	33,2%	12,6%	14,3%	0,4%	3,0%	2,3%	11,8%
Caoutchouc, celluloïd, résines végétales . .	740	3,2	114	19	28	—	161	126	88	50	16	18	13	268
	100%		15,4%	2,6%	3,8%	—	21,8%	17,0%	11,9%	6,8%	2,2%	2,4%	1,8%	36,1%
Peaux, cuirs et articles	508	2,2	107	38	57	9	211	126	80	9	13	3	28	38
	100%		21,1%	7,5%	11,2%	1,8%	41,6%	24,8%	15,8%	1,8%	2,6%	0,5%	5,5%	7,4%
Autres articles	3.286	14,2	385	160	291	27	863	967	235	140	181	180	108	612
	100%		11,7%	4,9%	8,9%	0,8%	26,3%	29,4%	7,2%	4,3%	5,5%	5,5%	3,3%	18,5%
Total	23.043	100	2.680	908	3.372	78	7.038	5.779	1.705	1.873	1.824	982	613	3.229
	100%		11,6%	3,9%	14,6%	0,3%	30,4%	25,1%	7,4%	8,1%	7,9%	4,3%	2,7%	14,1%

Les données statistiques roumaines indiquent la distribution du commerce extérieur de la Roumanie par pays de provenance et de destination pour les années 1927 et 1930. La comparaison des chiffres de ces années indique certains changements essentiels dans le commerce extérieur roumain. En premier lieu, les chiffres globaux du commerce accusent un fléchissement très accentué, les exportations se sont abaissées de 38.110 millions de lei à 28.520 millions de lei, et les importations ont fléchi de 33.853 millions de lei à 23.043 millions de lei.

EXPORTATION.

L'exportation de produits agricoles de la Roumanie consiste surtout en céréales, bois, animaux vivants, légumes, fruits, plantes et semences. En 1927, ces articles formaient les 73,9% de l'exportation totale. La part des combustibles minéraux s'élevait à 19,7%.

La valeur des exportations de produits agricoles s'est abaissée pendant la période envisagée de 28.157 millions de lei à 16.038 millions de lei. Comme le volume global des exportations n'a pas fléchi au même degré — notamment par suite de l'augmentation des exportations de combustibles minéraux passant de 7.517 millions de lei à 10.437 millions de lei — l'importance relative du groupe en question a aussi diminué, et il ne représentait en 1930 que 56,2% du total des exportations; tandis que l'exportation des combustibles minéraux atteignait 36,6%.

La valeur des *céréales* exportées s'est abaissée de 19.016 millions de lei en 1927 à 9.989 millions de lei en 1930, tandis que le volume de céréales et des farines de froment exportées augmentait de 2.892.300 tonnes à 3.106.000 tonnes. On peut apprécier l'influence de la chute des prix des céréales dans un pays comme la Roumanie en constatant que si ces prix étaient restés en 1930 les mêmes qu'en 1927, sa recette à ce titre aurait été d'environ 20 milliards de lei au lieu de 10.

De 1927, à 1930, la *destination* des exportations a subi des changements profonds. La vente de céréales en Europe danubienne a baissé de moitié, vers la Pologne elle s'est réduite à un dixième. Par contre les expéditions vers la France, l'Italie et la Grande-Bretagne ont augmenté.

Les exportations de *bois* ont fléchi légèrement en volume, mais leur valeur a fléchi presque de moitié. Les changements accusent une tendance contraire à celle des céréales. Les exportations vers les pays danubiens et l'Allemagne ont augmenté. Elles ont, au contraire, fortement diminué vers la France, l'Italie, la Grande-Bretagne et la Pologne.

Les exportations d'*animaux vivants* ont subi à peu près le même sort que les céréales. En 1927, presque la totalité des exportations d'animaux vivants était dirigée vers les pays danubiens (94,6%). En 1930, les exportations vers les pays danubiens étaient réduites à 76,2% tandis que l'Italie entrait en jeu comme acheteur nouveau et absorbait 17,7% des exportations.

Les exportations de *combustibles minéraux* ont plus que doublé en volume (1.512 millions de tonnes en 1927; 3.853 millions de tonnes en 1930) mais, ainsi qu'il a déjà été dit, par suite de la baisse des prix sur le marché mondial, l'augmentation de leur valeur était beaucoup moindre. La distribution des marchés n'a subi que des modifications peu importantes.

L'importance relative du marché danubien a sensiblement diminué pour le total des exportations roumaines par suite de l'affaiblissement des ventes à l'Autriche et à la Hongrie, tandis que les ventes à la Tchécoslovaquie et à la Yougoslavie accusaient un léger accroissement. Les exportations vers la Pologne ont diminué tandis qu'elles augmentaient très fortement vers la France, l'Italie et la Grande-Bretagne.

IMPORTATION.

Les importations — dont les textiles, le fer, les ouvrages en fer, machines, appareils et véhicules constituent un peu plus de deux tiers — ont diminué, passant de 33.853 millions de lei à 23.043 millions de lei; mais, dans leur composition et provenance, elles n'ont accusé que peu de changements.

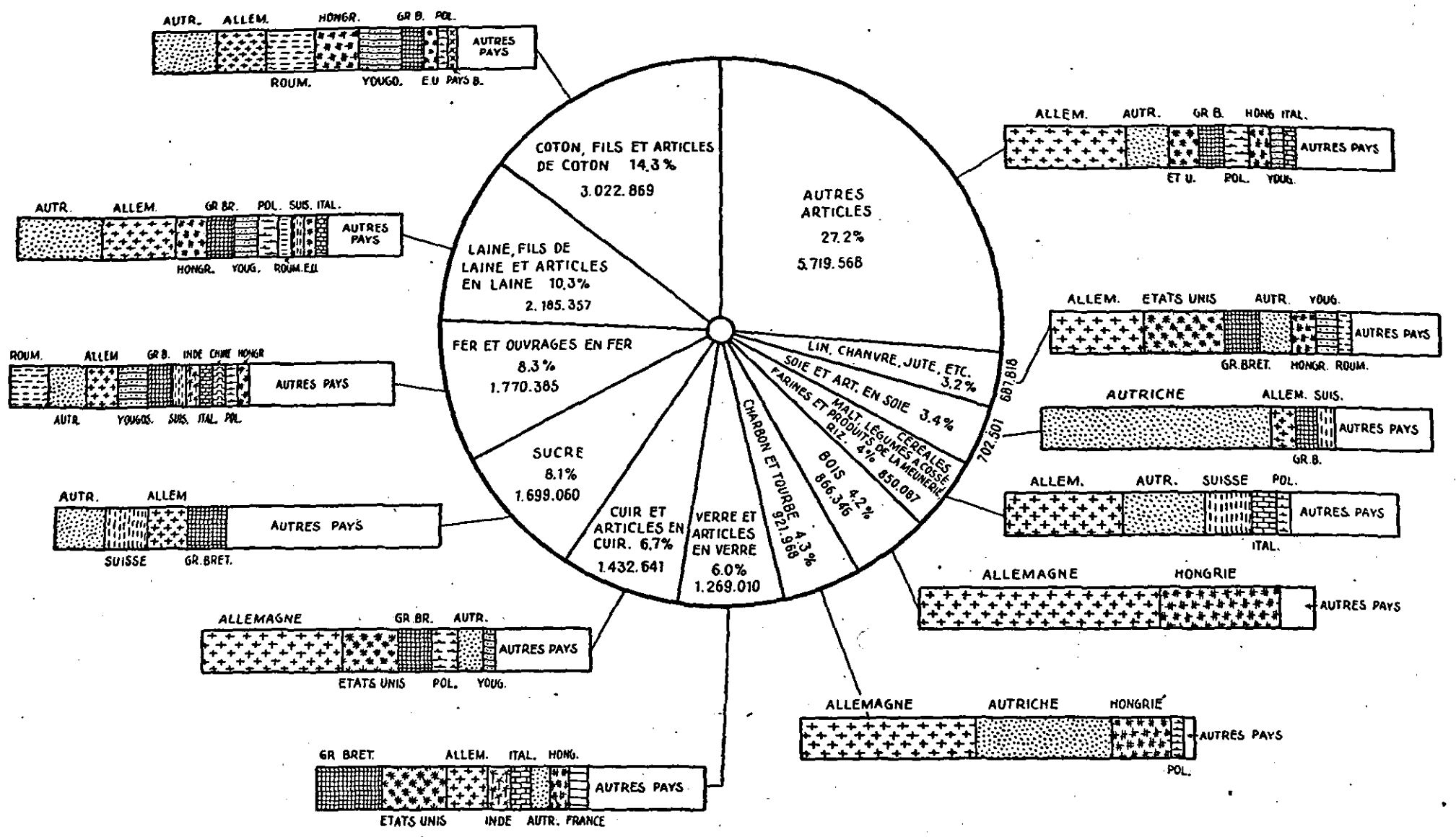
Dans l'importance relative des marchés fournisseurs les progrès de l'Allemagne et de la Suisse sont notamment à signaler.

BALANCE DU COMMERCE.

En 1928, la balance du commerce extérieur roumain a montré un solde passif de 5.226.000 lei. En 1930, par contre, la balance se solde par un actif de 5.478.000 lei. Elle s'est donc considérablement améliorée entre les deux années en question.

5. TCHÉCOSLOVAQUIE.

EXPORTATION, EN 1928, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAR PAYS DE DESTINATION¹:



¹ Graphique établi sur la base du tableau de la page 31 du document E. 770.

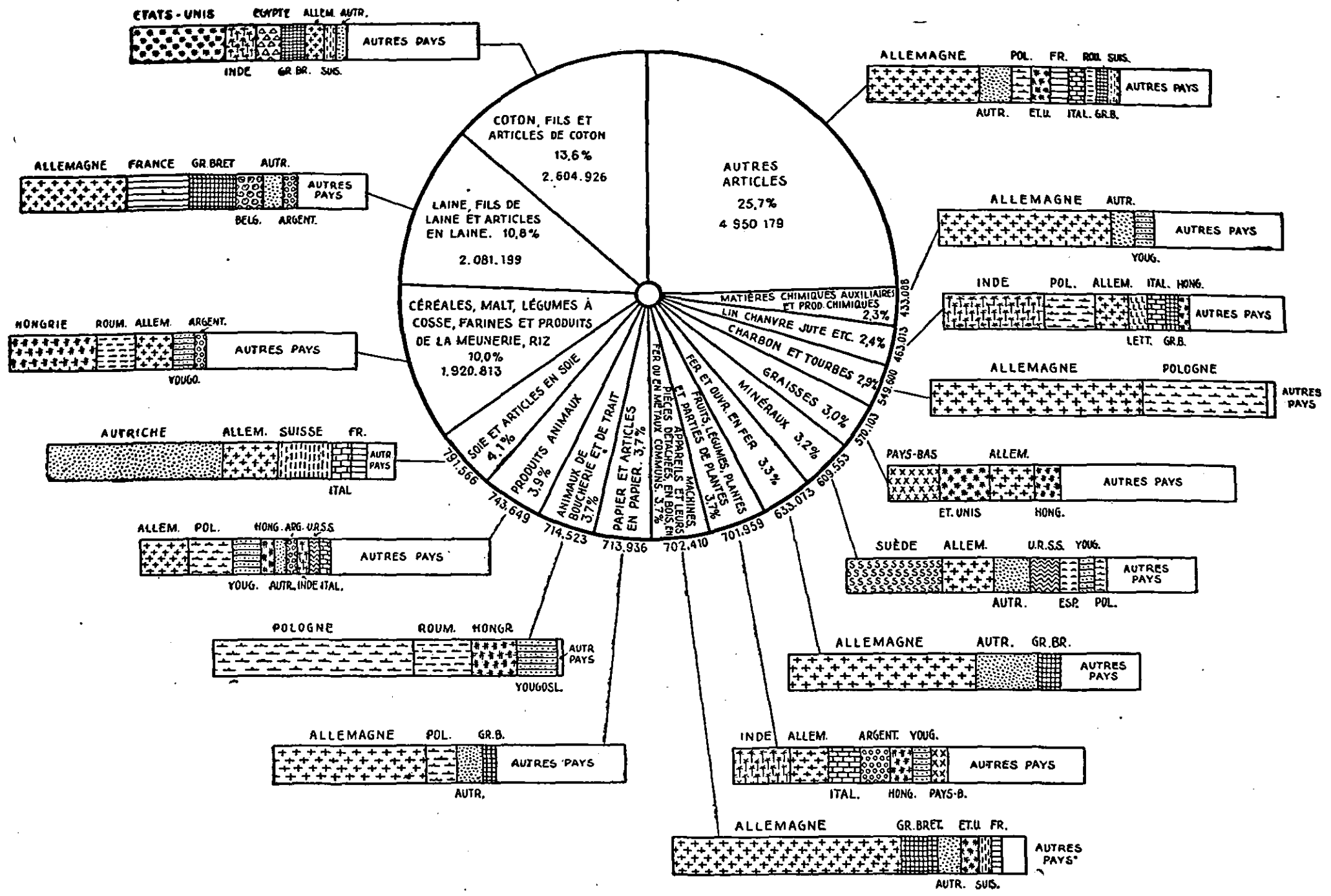
Tchécoslovaquie. — EXPORTATION, EN 1931, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE DESTINATION.

Marchandises exportées	Valeur en milliers de couronnes	% de l'exportation totale	Pays de destination													
			Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Yougoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Pays-Bas	Etats-Unis	Autres pays ^b
Coton, fils et articles de coton	1.578.286	12,0	283.677	29.741	178.201	196.529	688.148	130.432	24.800	182.247	16.035	35.001	22.842	55.861	38.698	384.222
	100%		18,0%	1,9%	11,3%	12,5%	43,7%	8,3%	1,6%	11,5%	1,0%	2,2%	1,5%	3,5%	2,5%	24,2%
Fer et ouvrages en fer . . .	1.329.030	10,1	88.366	7.425	36.404	134.932	262.127	64.520	20.441	94.329	69.814	24.240	32.841	10.806	11.889	733.023
	100%		6,6%	0,6%	2,7%	10,2%	20,1%	4,9%	1,5%	7,1%	5,3%	1,8%	2,5%	0,8%	0,9%	55,1%
Cuir et articles en cuir . . .	1.227.364	9,4	34.323	3.606	7.421	81.205	126.555	176.906	106.001	149.078	14.909	52.405	51.687	65.889	259.311	224.623
	100%		2,8%	0,3%	0,6%	6,6%	10,3%	14,4%	8,6%	12,1%	1,2%	4,3%	4,2%	5,4%	21,1%	18,4%
Laine, fils et articles de laine.	1.139.291	8,7	228.016	23.420	19.391	75.358	346.185	181.380	13.534	146.252	18.673	40.511	51.578	51.555	17.745	271.878
	100%		20,0%	2,1%	1,7%	6,6%	30,4%	15,9%	1,2%	12,8%	1,6%	3,6%	4,5%	4,5%	1,6%	23,9%
Verre et articles en verre . .	974.223	7,4	37.410	9.143	5.192	23.141	74.886	71.874	69.905	218.992	56.006	15.642	22.120	35.458	151.196	258.144
	100%		3,8%	0,9%	0,5%	2,4%	7,7%	7,4%	7,2%	22,5%	5,8%	1,6%	2,3%	3,6%	15,5%	26,4%
Charbon et tourbe	642.880	4,9	280.773	83.936	5.470	9.638	379.817	247.083	157	—	5.973	9.092	467	8	—	283
	100%		43,7%	13,1%	0,9%	1,5%	59,2%	38,4%	—	—	0,9%	1,4%	0,1%	—	—	—
Soie et articles en soie . . .	574.751	4,4	296.845	2.186	2.378	10.921	312.330	36.759	17.687	55.473	3.433	2.435	24.977	27.440	6.470	87.747
	100%		51,6%	0,4%	0,4%	1,9%	54,3%	6,4%	3,1%	9,7%	0,6%	0,4%	4,3%	4,8%	1,1%	15,3%
Sucre	542.447	4,1	36.475	623	286	1.233	38.617	6.862	205	49.524	3.584	142	59.322	158	—	384.033 ¹
	100%		6,7%	0,1%	0,1%	0,2%	7,1%	1,3%	—	9,1%	0,7%	—	10,9%	—	—	70,9%
Confections	437.844	3,3	26.291	448	3.070	7.770	37.579	19.789	23.864	71.427	7.446	3.851	23.887	39.165	52.608	158.228 ²
	100%		6,0%	0,1%	0,7%	1,8%	8,6%	4,5%	5,5%	16,3%	1,7%	0,9%	5,5%	8,9%	12,0%	36,1%
Céréales, malt, légumes à cosse, farine et produits de la meunerie, riz	424.950	3,2	97.537	487	15	341	98.380	29.825	16.610	7.352	15.021	7.830	98.272	21.703	670	129.287 ³
	100%		22,9%	0,1%	—	0,1%	23,1%	7,0%	3,9%	1,7%	3,5%	1,8%	23,1%	5,2%	0,2%	30,5%
Lin, chanvre, jute et autres matières textiles végétales non dénommées ailleurs, fils et articles en ces matières.	424.604	3,2	26.781	4.731	8.115	18.433	58.060	57.540	7.853	45.817	9.429	8.334	8.892	9.826	141.735	77.118
	100%		6,3%	1,1%	1,9%	4,3%	13,6%	13,6%	1,9%	10,8%	2,2%	2,0%	2,1%	2,3%	33,4%	18,1%
Papier et articles en papier . .	396.873	3,0	23.879	17.092	6.597	18.592	66.160	76.572	18.032	25.746	27.181	20.371	10.010	4.077	28.197	120.527 ⁴
	100%		6,0%	4,3%	1,7%	4,7%	16,7%	19,3%	4,5%	6,5%	6,8%	5,1%	2,5%	1,0%	7,1%	30,5%
Machines, appareils et leurs pièces détachées, en bois, en fer, ou en métaux communs	333.633	2,6	18.306	4.566	14.362	29.630	66.864	29.680	5.993	6.572	9.975	21.281	2.955	4.066	679	185.568
	100%		5,5%	1,4%	4,3%	8,9%	20,1%	8,9%	1,8%	2,0%	3,0%	6,4%	0,9%	1,2%	0,2%	55,5%
Articles en argile	320.285	2,4	28.392	2.077	8.107	20.682	59.258	9.386	29.055	23.284	15.661	19.788	4.881	27.247	15.597	116.128
	100%		8,9%	0,6%	2,5%	6,5%	18,5%	2,9%	9,1%	7,3%	4,9%	6,2%	1,5%	8,5%	4,9%	36,2%
Métaux et articles en métaux.	308.697	2,3	13.270	3.812	4.594	12.052	33.728	66.383	13.100	64.430	13.120	12.235	3.412	11.403	8.958	81.928
	100%		4,3%	1,2%	1,5%	3,9%	10,9%	21,5%	4,2%	20,9%	4,3%	4,0%	1,1%	3,7%	2,9%	26,5%
Bois	307.919	2,3	9.181	22.101	412	213	31.907	206.593	9.324	9.466	3.702	5.341	4.981	19.622	4.729	12.254
	100%		3,0%	7,2%	0,1%	0,1%	10,4%	67,1%	3,0%	3,1%	1,2%	1,7%	1,6%	6,4%	1,5%	4,0%
Autres articles	2.177.322	16,7	265.614	73.810	40.816	191.292	571.532	627.766	83.882	205.890	46.019	100.236	44.708	39.568	66.130	391.591
	100%		12,2%	3,4%	1,9%	8,8%	26,3%	28,8%	3,9%	9,5%	2,1%	4,6%	2,1%	1,7%	3,0%	18,0%
Total	13.140.399	100	1.795.136	289.204	340.831	831.962	3.257.133	2.039.350	460.443	1.355.879	335.981	378.735	467.832	423.852	804.612	3.616.582
	100%		13,7%	2,2%	2,6%	6,3%	24,8%	15,5%	3,5%	10,3%	2,6%	2,9%	3,6%	3,2%	6,1%	27,5%

¹ Dont: Hambourg, 246.555 (45.4%); Trieste, 71.117 (13.1%).
² Dont: Suède, 42.689 (9.7%).
³ Dont: Hambourg, 52.212 (12.5%).

⁴ Dont: Hambourg, 34.458 (8,2%); Trieste, 16.835 (4,2%).
⁵ Des chiffres plus détaillés en ce qui concerne la répartition de l'exportation par pays ne sont pas encore disponibles.

Tchécoslovaquie. — IMPORTATION, EN 1928, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE PROVENANCE 1:



1 Graphique établi sur la base du tableau de la page 32 du document E. 770.

Tchécoslovaquie. — IMPORTATION, EN 1931, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE PROVENANCE.

Marchandises	Valeur en milliers de couronnes	% de l'importation totale	Pays de provenance													
			Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Yougoslavie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Pays-Bas	Etats-Unis	Autres pays
Coton, fils et articles en coton	1.066.414	9,0	30.661	664	516	127	31.968	87.702	28.127	95.518	2.308	1.256	66.066	2.274	188.259	562.936 ¹
Céréales, malt, légumes à cosse, farine et produits de la meunerie, riz	1.041.761	8,8	5.629	3.014	330.111	137.370	476.124	40.071	2.107	112	8.267	61.230	—	1.728	1.785	450.337 ²
Laine, fils et articles en laine.	947.743	8,0	70.793	12.056	1.638	288	84.775	297.308	170.942	119.068	1.790	11.627	19.077	3.401	891	238.864
Fruits, légumes, plantes et parties de plantes	553.377	4,7	15.022	19.639	16.836	30.605	82.102	58.497	10.715	1.916	65.206	10.004	3.973	23.304	15.074	282.586 ³
Soie et articles en soie	539.044	4,6	243.894	1.976	26	158	246.054	106.007	33.229	5.114	41.947	3.139	80.302	13.735	1.012	8.503
Minéraux	526.138	4,5	23.651	2.304	2.800	7.022	35.777	69.443	1.459	896	9.261	11.626	285	234	12.469	384.688 ⁴
Produits animaux	481.553	4,2	20.487	13.537	8.650	18.259	60.933	62.157	9.532	4.148	4.241	116.837	918	4.466	965	217.356 ⁵
Machines, appareils et leurs pièces détachées en bois, en fer ou en métaux communs	406.423	3,4	26.467	1.435	340	350	28.592	273.985	13.484	26.578	1.037	1.866	17.659	1.471	24.449	17.302
Charbon et tourbe	388.576	3,3	55	7.596	71	519	8.241	240.186	—	278	—	139.044	—	45	—	782
Métaux et articles en métaux	380.719	3,2	30.285	816	80	378	31.559	222.327	6.518	9.233	843	19.727	8.848	499	2.720	78.445
Fer et ouvrages en fer	371.360	3,1	62.026	852	214	2.988	66.080	210.935	9.079	16.677	2.176	2.545	7.542	3.140	6.632	46.554
Huiles minérales	370.037	3,1	11.654	34	61.324	1	73.013	8.433	87	420	4	55.964	307	32	47.132	184.645 ⁶
Graisses	341.799	2,9	13.174	2.227	562	12.571	28.534	79.028	169	2.220	21	4	43	67.682	22.651	141.447 ⁷
Machines et appareils électriques	295.881	2,5	25.066	5.237	65	247	30.615	160.424	9.937	4.948	707	199	21.314	43.897	8.882	14.958
Produits chimiques	256.255	2,2	12.433	481	2.357	6.536	21.807	159.571	7.184	2.634	9.976	6.926	5.696	2.283	4.711	35.467
Tabac	256.072	2,2	5	—	6.052	52.425	58.482	1.388	1	278	—	—	49	24.413	6.880	164.581
Caoutchouc, gutta-percha et articles en ces matières	248.135	2,1	18.243	1.113	13	97	19.466	101.855	24.437	25.831	4.126	431	1.341	774	47.064	22.810
Denrées coloniales	237.921	2,0	1.978	22	—	—	2.000	148	370	3.377	1	9	1.346	6.371	766	223.533 ⁸
Animaux de boucherie et de trait	225.167	1,9	467	20.210	90.611	72.642	183.930	635	50	—	—	28.158	110	1.002	—	11.282
Vernis, couleurs, produits médicaux et parfumerie	224.107	1,9	6.283	1.223	86	227	7.819	151.285	14.711	4.850	956	258	34.458	4.535	3.052	2.183
Instruments et horlogerie	220.787	1,9	11.900	159	19	195	12.273	133.289	4.473	4.622	1.420	322	35.896	423	26.744	1.325
Autres articles	2.409.932	20,5	216.787	39.678	43.824	41.469	341.758	837.336	106.053	97.727	188.045	147.932	48.499	30.731	61.095	550.756
Total	11.789.201	100	846.960	134.273	566.195	384.474	1.931.902	3.302.010	452.664	426.445	342.332	619.104	353.729	236.440	483.233	3.641.342
	100%		7,2%	1,1%	4,8%	3,3%	16,4%	28,0%	3,8%	3,6%	2,9%	5,3%	3,0%	2,0%	4,1%	30,9%

¹ Dont: Brême, 334.585 (31,4%); Inde, 69.740 (6,5%).
² Dont: Hambourg, 347.108 (33,3%); Trieste, 38.624 (3,7%).
³ Dont: Hambourg, 83.806 (15,1%); Inde, 55.007 (9,9%).

⁴ Dont: Hambourg, 100.533 (20,9%).
⁵ Dont: Hambourg, 52.896 (14,3%).
⁶ Dont: Hambourg, 68.208 (20,0%).
⁷ Dont: Hambourg, 162.269 (68,2%).

EXPORTATION.

La valeur des exportations tchécoslovaques a diminué, entre 1928 et 1931, de 38 % (21.278 millions de couronnes tchécoslovaques en 1928 contre 13.140 millions en 1931). Comme dans le cas de l'Autriche, l'exportation de tous les produits importants a diminué, mais le rythme de cette diminution a été plus ou moins accéléré selon les différents groupes de marchandises, ainsi que le montre le tableau suivant:

Ordre d'importance	1928			Ordre d'importance	1931		
	Marchandise	Valeurs en millions Kč	% de l'exportation totale		Marchandise	Valeur en millions Kč	% de l'exportation totale
1	Coton, fils et articles de coton	3.022,9	14,3	1	Coton, fils et articles de coton	1.578,3	12,0
2	Laine, fils et articles de laine	2.185,4	10,3	2	Fer et ouvrages en fer.	1.329,0	10,1
3	Fer et ouvrages en fer.	1.770,4	8,3	3	Cuir et articles en cuir.	1.227,4	9,4
4	Sucre	1.699,1	8,1	4	Laine, fils et articles de laine	1.139,3	8,7
5	Cuir et articles en cuir	1.432,6	6,7	5	Verre et articles en verre.	974,2	7,4
6	Verre et articles en verre.	1.269,0	6,0	6	Charbon et tourbe	642,9	4,9
				7	Sucre.	542,4	4,1

Le sucre est donc, parmi les articles les plus importants de l'exportation tchécoslovaque, celui qui a souffert le plus, son exportation en 1931 ne s'élevant plus qu'à 542,4 millions. La diminution de la valeur des principaux produits textiles exportés est également très forte (48%).

Pour tous les principaux articles d'exportation, le rôle des pays danubiens et de l'Allemagne comme débouchés a diminué; toutefois, cette dernière a conservé son importance pour le bois et les soieries tchécoslovaques. Par contre, l'importance de la Grande-Bretagne et de la France s'est accrue pour presque tous les articles importants. Ont en outre augmenté leurs achats de marchandises tchécoslovaques: l'Italie pour le fer et les ouvrages en fer, les verreries et le bois, les Etats-Unis d'Amérique pour le cuir et les articles en cuir et les textiles végétales, ainsi que la Suisse pour les cotonnades, le cuir et les articles en cuir, les verreries et le bois. Toutefois, ces achats plus forts de certains articles d'exportation tchécoslovaque ont été compensés par la diminution des achats qu'avaient fait les mêmes pays pour d'autres articles en 1931, de sorte que la valeur absolue des exportations vers ces pays est inférieure à celle de l'année 1928, quoique l'importance relative de la Suisse et des Etats-Unis d'Amérique pour le commerce extérieur tchécoslovaque ait augmenté et que celle de l'Italie soit restée la même.

IMPORTATION.

Les importations tchécoslovaques ont diminué en valeur de 1928 à 1931 de 39% (19.194 millions de Kč en 1928 et 11.789 millions en 1931). Les différents groupes de principaux articles d'importation ont participé à cette diminution dans une mesure différente, ce qui a changé le rôle relatif que jouent ces groupes de marchandises dans l'ensemble des importations tchécoslovaques.

Voici quels étaient en 1928, et quels sont en 1931, les neuf principaux articles d'importation:

Ordre d'importance	1928			Ordre d'importance	1931		
	Marchandise	Valeurs en millions de Kč	% de l'importation totale		Marchandise	Valeurs en millions de Kč	% de l'importation totale
1	Coton, fils et articles de coton	2.604,9	13,6	1	Coton, fils et articles en coton	1.066,4	9,0
2	Laine, fils et articles de laine	2.081,2	10,8	2	Céréales, malt, légumes, farines, etc.	1.041,8	8,8
3	Céréales, malt, légumes à cosse, farines, etc.	1.920,8	10,0	3	Laines, fils et articles en laine	947,7	8,0
4	Soie et articles en soie	791,6	4,1	4	Fruits, légumes et plantes	553,4	4,7
5	Produits animaux	743,6	3,9	5	Soie et art. en soie	529,0	4,6
6	Animaux vivants	714,5	3,7	6	Minéraux	526,1	4,5
7	Papier et articles en papier	713,9	3,7	7	Produits minéraux	481,6	4,2
8	Machines et appareils	702,4	3,7	8	Machines et appareils	406,4	3,4
9	Fruits, légumes et plantes	701,9	3,7	9	Charbon et tourbe	388,6	3,3

Ce tableau indique que les importations d'*animaux*, des *produits animaux* et du *papier* qui, en 1928, jouaient encore un rôle considérable, ont diminué dans une forte mesure en 1931. Par contre, les *textiles et leurs matières premières*, les *céréales et leurs produits*, les *fruits, légumes et plantes*, ainsi que les *machines et appareils* ont conservé leur importance pour les importations de la Tchécoslovaquie.

Le rôle des pays danubiens et de la Pologne, comme fournisseurs des céréales a gagné d'importance, tandis que la part de l'Allemagne s'est réduite. Par contre, l'Allemagne et la Grande-Bretagne ont pu augmenter leur importance comme fournisseurs des cotonnades; tandis que les importations de coton provenant des Etats-Unis d'Amérique ont sensiblement diminué. En outre, l'Allemagne a vu augmenter l'importance de ses envois de lainages et de soieries. Il en est de même pour la France quant aux cotonnades¹, aux machines et appareils, aux soieries et pour la Suisse en ce qui concerne les cotonnades et les machines et appareils.

Par contre, la position de l'Allemagne comme fournisseur des machines et appareils s'est affaiblie sensiblement.

L'Italie a pu augmenter ses envois de fruits et de légumes.

BALANCE DU COMMERCE.

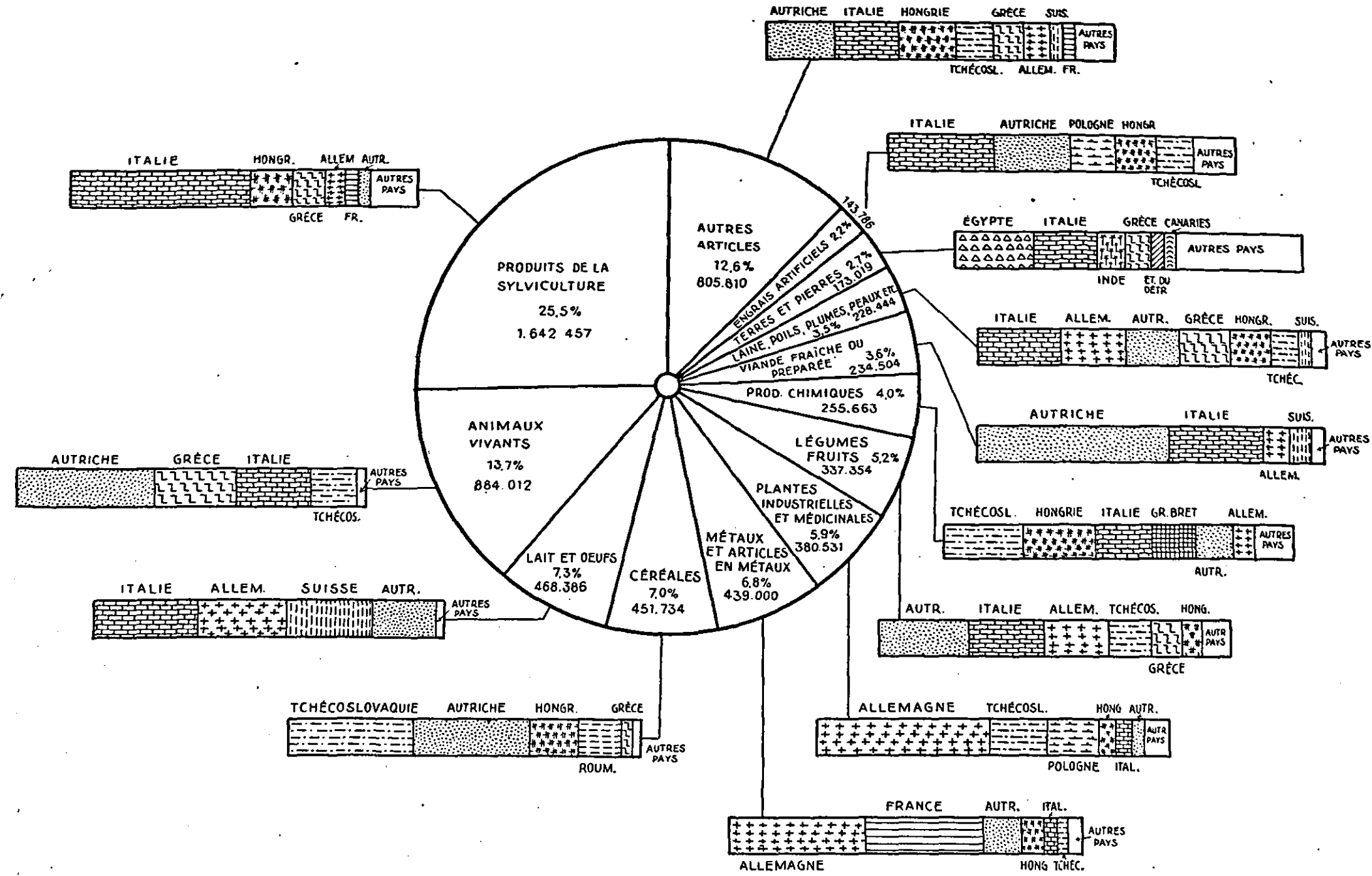
En 1928, la balance du commerce extérieur tchécoslovaque a accusé un solde actif de 2.016 millions de couronnes. En 1931, cet actif s'est réduit à 1.357 millions. En même temps, la balance du commerce extérieur est devenue passive avec la Roumanie et l'Italie. En outre, la situation commerciale de la Tchécoslovaquie a empiré vis-à-vis de la Hongrie, de l'Autriche, de la Yougoslavie et de la Suisse — pays avec lesquels la Tchécoslovaquie a gardé une balance favorable —, ainsi que vis-à-vis de l'Allemagne qui a toujours eu une balance active avec la Tchécoslovaquie.

Par contre, la balance du commerce tchécoslovaque s'est améliorée à l'égard de la France, où le fort déficit de la balance a été remplacé par un actif, à l'égard de la Pologne, où le déficit a considérablement diminué, et à l'égard de la Grande-Bretagne où l'actif de la balance a augmenté.

¹ Les cotonnades et les lainages considérés ci-dessus comprennent également le coton brut et la laine brute. Etant donné le fait que les statistiques tchécoslovaques indiquent pour l'importation les pays de provenance et non les pays d'origine et que, par conséquent, les matières premières d'origine extraeuropéenne qui ne font que traverser l'Allemagne, la Grande-Bretagne ou la France figurent parmi les importations provenant de ces pays, la part de ces derniers comme fournisseurs des cotonnades et des lainages apparaît dans les tableaux plus importante qu'elle ne l'est en réalité.

6. YOUGOSLAVIE.

EXPORTATION, EN 1928, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE DESTINATION 1:



1 Graphique établi sur la base du tableau de la page 36 du document E. 770.

Yougoslavie. — EXPORTATION, EN 1931, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE DESTINATION.

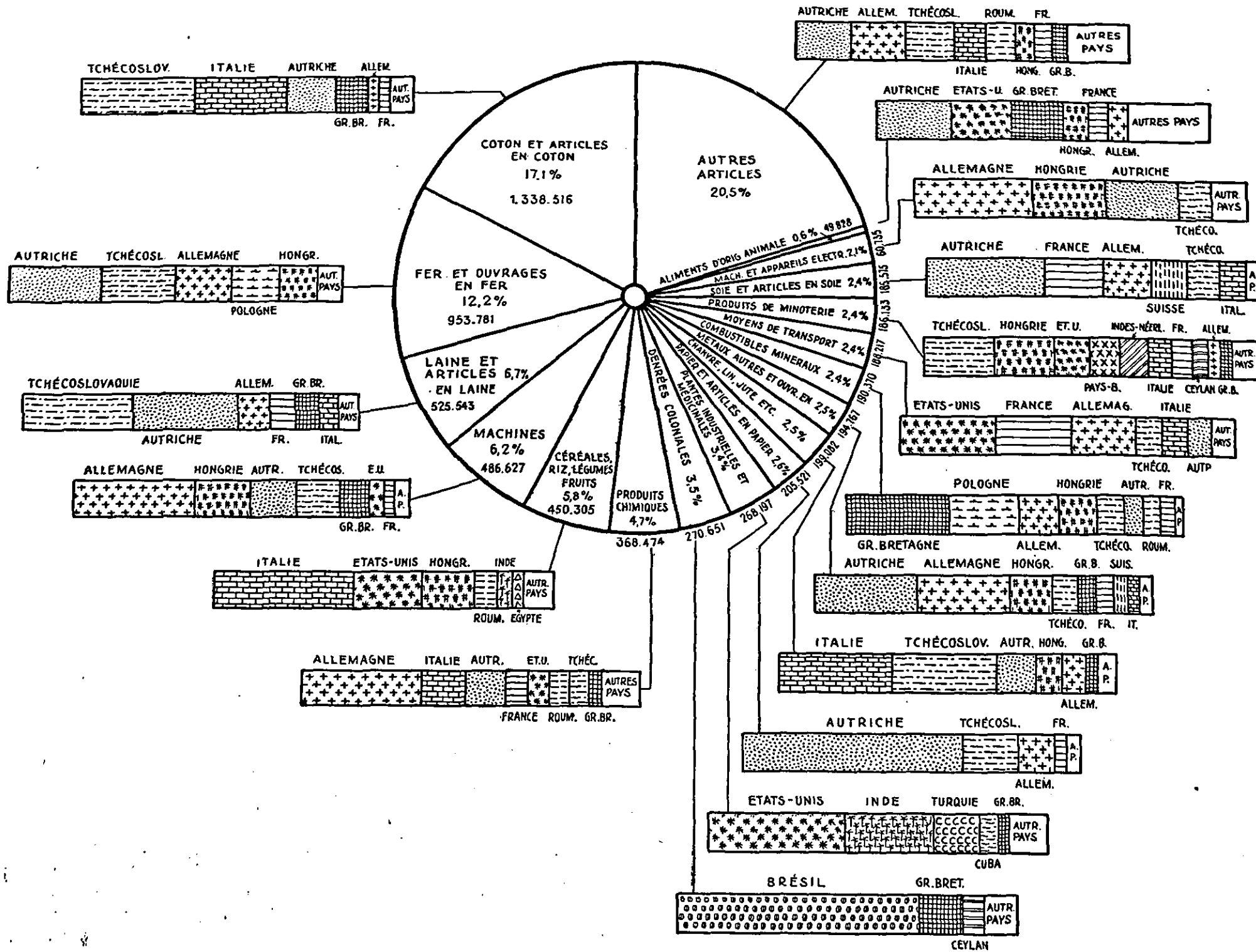
Marchandises exportées	Valeur en milliers de dinars	% de l'ex- porta- tion totale	Pays de destination													
			Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchéco- slovaquie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande- Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats- Unis	Grèce	Autres pays
Produits de la sylviculture .	879.027	18,3	26.699	67.980	61	2.610	97.350	7.690	112.217	31.646	415.825	—	18.448	157	55.566	140.128 ¹
	100%		3,0%	7,7%		0,3%	11,1%	0,9%	12,7%	3,8%	47,3%		2,1%		6,3%	15,8%
Animaux vivants	740.166	15,4	234.614	238	—	75.200	310.052	2.659	7.624	270	304.030	—	17.859	—	93.291	4.381
	100%		31,6%	0,3%		10,0%	41,9%	0,4%	1,0%		41,1%		2,4%		12,6%	0,6%
Céréales	684.296	14,4	68.738	88.571	77.435	428.718	663.462	—	1.898	1.514	5.260	—	—	—	8.041	4.121
	100%		10,0%	12,9%	11,3%	62,7%	96,9%		0,1%	0,1%	0,8%				1,8%	0,3%
Lait et œufs	400.107	8,3	76.639	171	—	1.760	78.570	107.506	231	—	152.288	—	59.292	—	2.098	122
	100%		19,1%			0,4%	19,6%	26,9%	0,1%		38,1%		14,8%		0,5%	
Métaux et ouvrages en métaux	366.406	7,6	33.293	8.939	1.496	4.348	48.076	262.721	29.589	—	10.352	814	160	1.563	1.291	11.840
	100%		9,1%	2,4%	0,4%	1,2%	13,1%	71,6%	8,1%		2,8%	0,2%		0,4%	0,4%	3,3%
Fruits et légumes	231.880	4,8	60.453	8.740	—	45.502	114.695	34.180	2.802	245	38.847	7.504	2.737	3.482	18.428	8.960
	100%		26,1%	3,8%		19,6%	49,5%	14,7%	1,2%		16,8%	3,3%	1,2%	1,5%	8,0%	3,8%
Viandes	205.625	4,3	83.857	—	—	10.737	94.594	15.864	1.889	20.757	48.864	—	19.721	—	—	3.936
	100%		40,8%			5,2%	46,0%	7,7%	0,9%	10,1%	23,8%		9,6%			1,9%
Terres et pierres	175.873	3,7	963	1.017	139	—	2.119	7.710	427	42	22.847	—	—	654	14.147	127.927
	100%		0,5%	0,6%	0,1%		1,2%	4,4%	0,3%		13,0%			0,3%	8,0%	72,8% ²
Plantes industrielles et médi- cinales (y compris le tabac)	151.259	3,2	2.184	4.236	—	86.376	92.796	6.006	2.598	3.314	7.197	33.687	213	1.612	513	3.323
	100%		1,4%	2,8%		57,1%	61,3%	4,0%	1,7%	2,2%	4,8%	22,3%	0,1%	1,1%	0,3%	2,2%
Produits chimiques ⁴	146.248	3,1	7.256	50.661	3.257	15.577	76.751	12.419	—	25.350	14.353	3.562	258	558	127	12.870
	100%		5,0%	34,6%	2,2%	10,6%	52,4%	8,5%		17,3%	9,8%	2,5%	0,2%	0,4%	0,1%	8,8%
Laine, poils, plumes et peaux	112.510	2,3	5.288	21.045	3.097	11.411	40.841	26.164	1.802	1.043	18.187	246	1.369	201	17.885	4.772
	100%		4,7%	18,7%	2,8%	10,1%	36,3%	23,2%	1,6%	0,9%	16,2%	0,2%	1,2%	0,2%	15,9%	4,3%
Autres articles	707.569	14,6	127.333	66.148	4.974	61.361	259.816	60.386	31.589	12.218	160.638	4.213	18.348	41.088 ³	45.415	73.857
	100%		18,0%	9,4%	0,7%	8,6%	36,7%	8,5%	4,2%	1,7%	23,1%	0,6%	2,6%	5,8%	6,4%	10,4%
Total	4.800.966	100	727.317	317.746	90.459	743.600	1.879.122	543.305	192.667	96.399	1.198.688	50.026	138.405	49.315	256.802	396.237
	100%		15,2%	6,6%	1,9%	15,5%	39,2%	11,3%	4,0%	2,0%	25,0%	1,0%	2,9%	1,0%	5,4%	8,2%

¹ Dont: Espagne 49.478 (5,6%).

² Dont: Syrie 23.395 (13,3%); Egypte 13.154 (7,5%); Canaries 12.479 (7,1%).

³ Dont: Minerai de chrome 25.771; opium 6.001.

⁴ Matières inorganiques et combinaisons organiques seulement.



1 Graphique établi sur la base du tableau suivant: « Importation, par principaux articles, en 1928 » et qui résulte du remaniement du tableau de la page 37 du document E. 770.

Yougoslavie. — IMPORTATION, EN 1928, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE PROVENANCE.

Marchandises importées	Valeur en milliers de dinars	% de l'importation totale	Pays de provenance												
			Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchécoslovaquie	Total de ces 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande-Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats-Unis	Autres pays
Coton et articles en coton . . .	1.338.516	17,1	192.456	21.343	16	463.314	677.129	44.726	40.146	130.865	375.639	3.543	18.656	1.866	45.946
	100%		14,4%	1,6%	—	34,6%	50,6%	3,3%	3,0%	9,8%	28,1%	0,3%	1,4%	0,1%	3,4%
Fer et ouvrages en fer	953.781	12,2	259.211	107.234	1.109	222.592	590.146	158.489	15.525	12.606	10.155	135.168	4.036	8.206	19.450
	100%		27,2%	11,2%	1,2%	22,3%	61,9%	16,6%	1,6%	1,3%	1,1%	14,2%	0,4%	0,9%	2,0%
Laine et articles en laine	525.543	6,7	168.047	5.505	808	172.320	346.680	48.178	41.287	35.999	31.210	5.001	3.793	159	13.236
	100%		32,0%	1,0%	0,2%	32,8%	66,0%	9,2%	7,8%	6,9%	5,9%	1,0%	0,7%	—	2,5%
Machines	486.627	6,2	67.149	78.896	338	61.583	207.966	176.073	15.582	42.975	6.070	2.515	4.501	20.084	10.861
	100%		13,8%	16,2%	0,1%	12,7%	42,8%	36,2%	3,2%	8,8%	1,2%	0,5%	0,9%	4,1%	2,3%
Céréales, riz, légumes, fruits . .	450.305	5,8	3.275	68.015	29.759	6.031	107.080	410	2.452	3.311	186.403	112	46	91.360	59.131
	100%		0,7%	15,2%	6,6%	1,3%	23,8%	0,1%	0,5%	0,7%	41,4%	—	—	20,3%	13,2%
Produits chimiques ¹	368.474	4,7	43.337	4.518	21.586	19.924	89.365	131.099	25.000	13.582	47.866	3.108	8.750	22.793	26.911
	100%		11,8%	1,2%	5,9%	5,4%	24,3%	35,6%	6,8%	3,7%	12,9%	0,8%	2,4%	6,2%	7,3%
Denrées coloniales	270.651	3,5	2.020	3	—	95	2.118	2.567	904	32.923	6.013	—	138	1.108	224.880 ²
	100%		0,7%	—	—	0,1%	0,8%	0,9%	0,3%	12,2%	2,2%	—	—	0,4%	83,2%
Plantes industrielles et médicinales	268.197	3,4	727	4.103	34	5.747	10.611	1.597	4.261	8.307	4.658	2	—	107.283	131.478 ²
	100%		0,3%	1,5%	—	2,1%	3,9%	0,6%	1,6%	3,1%	1,7%	—	—	40,0%	49,1%
Papier et articles en papier . . .	205.521	2,6	132.147	3.604	166	33.016	168.933	23.448	7.061	1.848	1.820	733	399	284	995
	100%		64,3%	1,8%	—	16,1%	82,2%	11,4%	3,4%	0,9%	0,9%	0,4%	0,2%	0,1%	0,5%
Chanvre, lin, jute, etc.	199.082	2,5	22.607	14.483	400	61.874	99.364	14.637	1.446	6.444	66.908	2.795	24	997	6.467
	100%		11,3%	7,3%	0,2%	31,1%	49,9%	7,3%	0,7%	3,2%	33,6%	1,4%	—	0,5%	3,4%
Métaux autres et ouvrages en . .	194.767	2,5	58.740	23.598	20	14.198	96.556	53.484	9.861	10.132	6.950	176	7.909	1.925	7.774
	100%		30,2%	12,1%	—	7,3%	49,6%	27,5%	5,1%	5,2%	3,6%	—	4,1%	1,0%	4,0%
Combustibles minéraux	190.370	2,4	10.959	21.204	9.705	15.827	57.695	22.242	8.832	57.479	2.306	39.557	—	408	1.851
	100%		5,8%	11,1%	5,1%	8,3%	30,3%	11,7%	4,6%	30,2%	1,7%	20,8%	—	0,2%	1,0%
Moyens de transport	188.217	2,4	13.846	4.589	8	15.098	33.541	35.811	42.005	3.471	14.443	—	32	53.887	5.027
	100%		7,4%	2,4%	—	8,0%	17,8%	19,0%	22,3%	1,8%	7,7%	—	—	28,6%	2,8%
Produits de minoterie	186.133	2,4	2.787	32.934	478	38.817	75.016	6.759	11.439	6.306	12.971	916	67	18.785	53.874
	100%		1,5%	17,7%	0,3%	20,8%	40,3%	3,6%	6,2%	3,4%	7,0%	0,5%	—	10,1%	28,9%
Soie et articles en soie	185.575	2,4	64.156	2.220	4	18.023	84.403	26.250	32.874	1.326	15.981	3	19.423	139	5.176
	100%		34,6%	1,2%	—	9,7%	45,5%	14,1%	17,7%	0,7%	8,6%	—	10,5%	—	2,9%
Machines et appareils électriques .	160.735	2,1	35.360	35.413	11	16.090	86.874	56.709	4.271	1.695	1.501	—	3.752	732	5.201
	100%		22,0%	22,0%	—	10,0%	54,0%	35,3%	2,7%	1,1%	0,9%	—	2,3%	0,4%	3,3%
Aliments d'origine animale . . .	49.828	0,6	11.095	3.696	3	565	15.359	2.975	3.069	7.813	1.303	16	3	8.684	10.606
	100%		22,3%	7,4%	—	1,1%	30,8%	6,0%	6,2%	15,7%	2,6%	—	—	17,4%	21,3%
Animaux vivants	1.079	—	481	486	24	33	1.024	25	1	—	1	—	—	—	28
	100%		44,6%	45,0%	2,2%	3,0%	94,8%	2,3%	0,1%	—	0,1%	—	—	—	2,7%
Autres articles	1.608.262	20,5	266.554	87.792	143.967	236.966	735.279	261.030	86.982	69.459	146.984	18.183	27.524	46.743	216.078
	100%		16,6%	5,4%	9,0%	14,7%	45,7%	16,2%	5,4%	4,3%	9,1%	1,1%	1,7%	2,9%	13,6%
Total (non compris lingots et espèces)	7.831.663	100	1.354.954	519.636	208.436	1.402.113	3.485.139	1.066.509	352.998	446.541	939.182	211.828	99.053	385.443	844.970
	100%		17,3%	6,6%	2,7%	17,9%	44,5%	13,6%	4,5%	5,7%	12,0%	2,7%	1,3%	4,9%	10,8%

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¹ Matières inorganiques et combinaisons organiques seulement.
² Dont: Brésil 194.111 milliers de dinars (71,7 %); Ceylan 17.165 milliers de dinars (6,4 %).
 — Roumanie 60.734 milliers de dinars (26 %); Turquie 36.254 milliers de dinars (13,5 %); Cuba, 13.672 milliers de dinars (5,1 %).

Yougoslavie. — IMPORTATION, EN 1931, PAR PRINCIPAUX ARTICLES ET PAYS DE PROVENANCE.

Marchandises importées	Valeur (en milliers de dinars)	% de l'im- portation totale	Pays de provenance												
			Autriche	Hongrie	Roumanie	Tchéco- slovaquie	Total des 4 pays	Allemagne	France	Grande- Bretagne	Italie	Pologne	Suisse	Etats- Unis	Autres pays
Coton et articles en coton . . .	759.609	15,8	74.879	16.020	—	290.511	381.410	32.221	23.636	98.121	200.411	510	13.129	373	9.798
	100%		9,9%	2,1%		38,2%	50,2%	4,2%	3,1%	12,9%	26,4%	0,1%	1,7%	0,1%	1,3%
Fer et ouvrages en fer	533.157	11,1	122.657	72.462	4.505	99.939	299.563	143.660	20.225	9.521	1.654	17.119	15.496	5.874	20.045
	100%		23,1%	13,6%	0,8%	18,7%	56,2%	26,8%	3,8%	1,8%	0,3%	3,2%	2,9%	1,1%	3,8%
Laine et articles en laine	314.562	6,6	81.602	5.333	287	94.071	181.293	45.211	23.679	29.690	16.725	5.132	3.630	—	9.202
	100%		25,9%	1,7%	0,1%	29,9%	57,6%	14,4%	7,5%	9,5%	5,3%	1,6%	1,2%		2,9%
Machines	296.381	6,2	46.591	12.837	180	36.714	96.322	146.339	7.216	12.073	5.539	732	12.427	9.818	5.915
	100%		15,7%	4,3%	0,1%	12,4%	32,5%	49,4%	2,4%	4,1%	1,9%	0,2%	4,2%	3,3%	2,0%
Produits chimiques ¹	240.304	5,0	26.140	3.914	3.139	12.988	46.181	95.727	15.606	9.239	21.238	7.549	12.125	12.247	20.392
	100%		10,9%	1,6%	1,3%	5,4%	19,2%	39,8%	6,5%	3,8%	8,8%	3,1%	5,1%	5,1%	8,6%
Autres articles	2.656.268	55,3	378.025	141.284	70.313	338.203	927.825	462.250	120.203	156.879	248.423	35.762	69.086	171.481	464.359
	100%		14,3%	5,3%	2,6%	12,7%	34,9%	17,4%	4,5%	5,9%	9,4%	1,4%	2,6%	6,4%	17,5%
	4.800.281	100,0	729.894	251.850	78.424	872.426	1.932.594	925.408	210.565	315.523	493.990	66.804	125.893	199.793	529.711
	100%		15,2%	5,2%	1,6%	18,2%	40,2%	19,3%	4,4%	6,6%	10,3%	1,4%	2,6%	4,2%	11,0%

¹ Produits chimiques et pharmaceutiques; couleurs et matières colorantes; vernis, laques, éthers, alcools non dénommés ailleurs, huiles et substances odorantes étherées; engrais artificiels, ainsi que matières inflammables et explosibles.

EXPORTATION.

La valeur des exportations yougoslaves qui, en 1928, était de 6.444 millions de dinars, est tombée, en 1931, à 4.800 millions, diminution due en premier lieu à la baisse des prix des produits de la sylviculture, de l'agriculture et de l'élevage, qui représentent à peu près sept dixièmes des exportations totales.

L'exportation des *produits de la sylviculture*, qui, en 1928, représentait un peu plus d'un quart des exportations yougoslaves, est tombée, en 1931, à moins d'un cinquième.

Par contre, l'exportation des *animaux vivants* a passé de 2.378 tonnes et de 1.413.410 têtes en 1926 à 7.994 tonnes et à 1.011.612 têtes en 1931. Dans la même période, l'exportation des *céréales* a presque triplé.

On peut apprécier ici l'influence de la chute des prix des céréales dans un pays comme la Yougoslavie en constatant que si ces prix étaient restés en 1931 les mêmes qu'en 1928, sa recette à ce titre aurait été de 1.350 millions de dinars, tandis qu'elle n'a été en réalité que de 684 millions.

Malgré une légère baisse, l'Italie reste, en 1931, le meilleur client de la Yougoslavie (25% des exportations yougoslaves). La légère diminution des exportations yougoslaves vers l'Allemagne, la Hongrie et l'Italie a été compensée par une augmentation des exportations vers l'Autriche et la Tchécoslovaquie.

Pour les *produits de la sylviculture*, l'Italie constitue, encore en 1931, le principal marché, suivie de loin par la Hongrie et par la Grèce. Les achats de l'Allemagne ont diminué, ceux de la France ont augmenté. Le reste des produits en question est exporté en Allemagne, en Grande-Bretagne et en d'autres pays.

En 1928, la presque totalité des *animaux vivants* a été exportée dans quatre pays qui sont, par ordre d'importance, l'Autriche, l'Italie, la Grèce et la Tchécoslovaquie. En 1931, l'Italie ayant doublé ses achats, a pris la première place. Les achats des trois autres pays ont, au contraire, diminué.

En 1931, comme en 1928, plus des deux tiers des céréales trouvent leurs débouchés en Autriche et en Tchécoslovaquie, mais les achats de l'Autriche ont passé de 33% à 10%, tandis que ceux de la Tchécoslovaquie ont augmenté de 35,2 à 62,7%.

IMPORTATION.

Les importations yougoslaves se composent, pour la plus grande partie, de produits manu, facturés. Le détail, en 1931, en est resté plus ou moins le même qu'en 1928. Les cotonnades, le lainages, les ouvrages en fer et les machines prennent les premières places. L'Allemagne, l'Autriche, l'Italie et la Tchécoslovaquie sont les principaux fournisseurs. En 1931, on constate une avance sensible des importations allemandes et tchécoslovaques; par contre, les importations autrichiennes et italiennes ont diminué.

BALANCE COMMERCIALE.

Si l'on se borne à considérer quelques-uns seulement des fournisseurs et des clients les plus importants de la Yougoslavie, la balance du commerce extérieur yougoslave a été active en 1928, vis-à-vis de la Hongrie, de l'Italie, de la Grèce et de la Suisse, et passive, vis-à-vis de l'Autriche, de l'Allemagne, de la Tchécoslovaquie, de la France et de la Grande-Bretagne. Pour l'année 1931, cette situation n'a subi aucun changement. Cependant, la situation commerciale de la Yougoslavie s'est, en général, aggravée à l'égard de l'Italie, de l'Allemagne, de la Grèce et de la Suisse; elle s'est au contraire améliorée vis-à-vis des autres pays considérés.

Le résultat final est que le passif de la balance commerciale, qui s'est élevé en 1928 à 1391 millions de dinars, a disparu et que, pour l'année 1931, les valeurs des exportations et des importations se compensent à peu près.

Deuxième Partie.

**COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR DE L'AUTRICHE, DE LA BULGARIE,
DE LA HONGRIE ET DE LA TCHÉCOSLOVAQUIE
PENDANT LE PREMIER TRIMESTRE 1932**

(par comparaison avec la même période des années précédentes)¹

¹ Les statistiques roumaines ne donnent pas la répartition du commerce extérieur par pays pour les années 1929 et 1931. Les statistiques yougoslaves ne publient également pas les données relatives à la répartition du commerce extérieur par pays que chaque semestre. De ce fait le commerce extérieur de ces deux pays n'a pas pu être examiné dans le présent chapitre.

AUTRICHE

La première partie du présent document fait ressortir la régression du commerce autrichien entre le début de 1928 et la fin de 1931.

Si l'on compare ensuite le premier trimestre 1932 au premier trimestre 1931, on constate que les importations ont diminué, en valeur, de 25% et les exportations de 40%, tandis que le passif de la balance commerciale est resté à peu près le même (201 millions au lieu de 212 millions de schillings).

Pour se faire toutefois une idée aussi exacte que possible de l'état du commerce autrichien durant le premier trimestre 1932, il faut le comparer avec la période correspondante de la dernière année qui peut être considérée comme normale, à savoir le premier trimestre 1929.

Or, par rapport au premier trimestre 1929, les importations autrichiennes ont diminué de 338,0 millions, soit de 48% et les exportations de 286,6 millions de schillings, soit 59%.

La valeur globale du commerce autrichien a donc diminué de plus de la moitié.

Cependant, en examinant ces chiffres, il convient de tenir compte des faits suivants:

a) Depuis 1929, une forte chute des prix est intervenue. — Elle est évaluée en moyenne de 30 à 40%.

Or, cette baisse des prix a atteint les denrées alimentaires et les matières brutes plus fortement que les produits manufacturés. Par conséquent, les importations autrichiennes, qui se composent pour environ 70% de denrées alimentaires et de matières brutes, ont été plus affectées par cette baisse que les exportations qui, pour les trois quarts environ, consistent en produits industriels. En effet, le *tonnage* des importations a diminué dans une mesure moindre que leur *valeur*; le total des quantités importées pendant le premier trimestre 1932 n'est que de 38% inférieur à celui des quantités importées pendant le premier trimestre 1929, tandis que leur valeur a diminué de 48%. Par ailleurs, si l'on compare les quantités importées pendant les trois premiers mois de 1931 et celles importées durant la période correspondante de 1932, la diminution est de 15%.

b) En ce qui concerne les exportations, les chiffres indiquant la valeur de celles-ci se rapprochent davantage de la réalité des faits. Ainsi, la comparaison entre les *quantités* exportées pendant le premier trimestre 1929 et celles exportées pendant la période correspondante de 1932 accuse un recul des exportations de 58%.

Les quantités exportées pendant le premier trimestre 1932 accusent, par rapport à celles exportées pendant le premier trimestre 1931, un recul de 33%.

c) Quoique le déficit de la *balance commerciale* de l'Autriche pour le premier trimestre 1932 ne soit que légèrement différent de celui de la période correspondante de l'année précédente et que, par conséquent, la balance des paiements de l'Autriche n'en ait été que très peu affectée, la situation du commerce extérieur de l'Autriche s'est néanmoins sérieusement aggravée. En effet, ce déficit, qui ne représentait, pour le premier trimestre 1931, qu'un quart du volume total des échanges, correspond à environ un tiers pour le premier trimestre 1932.

La résistance plus forte de l'importation s'explique par le fait que celle-ci se compose, comme il a déjà été mentionné, en grande partie de marchandises qui sont nécessaires, soit à l'alimentation de la population, soit à la production autrichienne, et que, en outre, les différentes mesures introduites par l'Autriche en vue de protéger son économie nationale (élévation des droits d'entrée, contrôle des devises, etc.) n'ont pas influencé les importations d'une manière considérable.

2. En ce qui concerne les *exportations de l'Autriche vers les pays danubiens* considérés dans le tableau ci-annexé, elles ont diminué, entre le premier trimestre 1931 et le premier trimestre 1932, vers la Roumanie, de 45%; vers la Yougoslavie, de 43%. Sur le marché tchécoslovaque, par contre, les exportations autrichiennes ne se sont réduites que de 29% et, sur le marché hongrois, que de 20%.

Quant aux *autres grands clients européens de l'Autriche*, leurs achats du premier trimestre de 1932, comparés à ceux qu'ils avaient effectués pendant la période correspondante de 1931, sont inférieurs pour la Grande-Bretagne de 63%, pour la Pologne de 53%, et pour l'Allemagne — premier acheteur des marchandises autrichiennes — de 44%. Le recul des exportations autrichiennes vers l'Italie et vers la France est presque aussi important: 42% et 40%, tandis que, vis-à-vis de la Suisse, la situation est moins défavorable: 27%.

Le mouvement régressif général des exportations autrichiennes se reflète également dans le fait que, contrairement à ce qui s'est produit dans les années précédentes, l'augmentation saisonnière des exportations en mars comparativement à celles de février n'a été, en 1932, que très faible (350.000 schillings).

Pendant le premier trimestre 1932, 32% des exportations autrichiennes ont été dirigées vers les pays danubiens, au lieu des 29% durant la période correspondante de 1931; le commerce extérieur de l'Autriche a donc moins souffert sur les marchés danubiens que sur les autres.

Du côté de *l'importation*, les changements se maintiennent dans des proportions plus modestes. Parmi les importations danubiennes, celles provenant de la Tchécoslovaquie et de la Roumanie ont diminué d'une façon considérable (respectivement 30% et 37%). En ce qui concerne les autres fournisseurs de l'Autriche, les importations françaises et polonaises accusent un fort recul: 47% et 41%. L'Allemagne et la Grande-Bretagne n'ont fourni que les quatre cinquièmes de la valeur de leurs importations de l'année précédente et la Suisse un peu moins des trois quarts. Seules les importations provenant de l'Italie sont restées à peu près inchangées, avec une légère tendance à l'augmentation (mars 1931: 8,3 millions de schillings; mars 1932: 9,1 millions de schillings).

Pendant le premier trimestre 1931, la *balance du commerce extérieur de l'Autriche* a été active vis-à-vis de la France, de la Grande-Bretagne, de l'Italie et de la Suisse, et passive à l'égard de tous les autres pays considérés.

Pendant la période correspondante de l'année 1932, la situation commerciale de l'Autriche comparée à celle du premier trimestre de 1931, a empiré vis-à-vis de l'Allemagne, de l'Italie, de la Yougoslavie, de la Suisse, de la Grande-Bretagne, de la France, et elle s'est améliorée seulement à l'égard de la Tchécoslovaquie, de la Pologne et de la Roumanie. La balance reste active seulement à l'égard de la France.

Autriche. — DÉVELOPPEMENT DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR PENDANT LES TROIS PREMIERS MOIS
DES ANNÉES 1929 A 1932.

(En milliers de schillings.)

	Total général		Hongrie		Roumanie		Tchécoslovaquie		Yougoslavie		Allemagne	
	Imp.	Export.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.
1929 . .	3.317.687	2.219.598	327.779	169.156	127.721	112.499	591.130	298.885	132.425	169.642	695.517	352.500
Janvier .	} 732.250	} 464.773	} 60.784	} 35.216	} 27.060	} 24.030	} 124.811	} 61.734	} 24.748	} 32.841	} 157.484	} 73.836
Février .												
Mars . .												
1930 . .	2.738.929	1.879.614	285.142	122.094	130.545	85.691	479.625	227.999	149.240	150.210	580.024	331.509
Janvier .	210.951	130.200	27.000	8.079	11.788	5.132	34.762	16.382	14.599	8.670	40.046	20.870
Février .	231.062	160.094	22.602	8.451	10.077	7.226	42.377	19.816	13.561	12.235	49.698	27.629
Mars . .	232.752	167.452	22.292	10.946	10.062	8.110	40.147	19.998	10.683	13.895	51.797	30.274
1931 ¹ .	2.208.234	1.340.554	196.935	92.100	122.069	45.540	366.864	157.370	95.367	100.425	490.785	217.148
Janvier .	169.563	92.850	14.521	5.552	8.922	3.172	29.556	11.373	8.365	6.417	32.332	15.361
Février .	179.495	107.633	14.079	6.553	9.073	3.443	30.150	12.212	8.504	7.699	36.598	18.733
Mars . .	177.457	114.349	13.475	8.691	9.308	4.197	28.645	12.664	8.071	9.554	37.762	20.284
Avril . .	192.200	122.100										
1932 . .												
Janvier .	132.941	60.628	14.473	5.525	6.855	1.830	19.284	9.673	6.851	4.419	25.823	8.945
Février .	128.236	66.351	11.639	4.830	5.989	1.898	21.276	7.730	7.268	4.245	29.415	10.725
Mars . .	133.060	66.674	14.667	6.272	4.329	2.127	21.213	8.284	9.184	4.735	30.400	10.611
Avril . .	125.500	67.600										

	France		Grande-Bretagne		Italie		Pologne		Suisse		Autres pays	
	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.
1929 . .	88.455	76.338	119.655	98.707	120.597	199.800	291.457	107.067	148.830	125.627	674.621	509.377
Janvier .	} 18.848	} 15.796	} 26.203	} 19.218	} 22.842	} 40.108	} 71.909	} 25.413	} 35.781	} 29.328	} 161.780	} 107.253
Février .												
Mars . .												
1930 . .	71.248	78.322	93.537	102.031	107.138	176.390	216.981	83.543	116.404	109.917	509.045	411.908
Janvier .	4.004	4.977	7.467	7.340	5.910	12.133	15.415	5.181	8.751	9.069	41.209	32.367
Février .	6.713	6.423	8.356	9.244	8.272	15.092	15.730	6.181	13.105	10.545	40.571	37.252
Mars . .	7.146	5.738	10.020	7.319	8.385	15.655	17.384	7.524	11.352	10.153	43.484	37.840
1931 ¹ .	56.501	63.171	75.547	93.224	93.948	109.625	178.214	57.986	94.307	99.736	437.697	304.229
Janvier .	3.583	4.697	5.612	5.736	7.236	9.181	17.561	3.974	7.408	6.861	36.063	21.474
Février .	4.784	5.033	5.875	6.167	7.990	10.600	15.748	4.590	7.939	8.972	39.542	25.497
Mars . .	5.498	5.992	5.977	8.043	8.380	11.246	14.616	5.171	7.500	7.145	38.923	24.320
Avril . .												
1932 . .												
Janvier .	2.093	2.335	4.473	2.363	6.602	5.728	9.122	1.870	5.621	5.431	31.744	12.509
Février .	3.027	3.272	5.301	3.363	6.597	6.190	7.546	2.307	5.539	6.301	24.639	15.490
Mars . .	2.988	3.802	3.869	1.517	9.130	6.207	8.705	2.346	5.757	5.027	22.818	15.746
Avril . .												

¹ Les chiffres indiquant le total général des importations et des exportations pendant les mois de janvier à mars 1931 sont les chiffres définitifs. Par contre, les chiffres indiquant la répartition des importations et des exportations par pays sont les chiffres provisoires, les chiffres définitifs n'ayant pas été publiés.

BULGARIE¹.

1. Les chiffres du commerce extérieur de la Bulgarie varient, d'un mois à l'autre, d'une manière beaucoup plus considérable que pour n'importe quel autre des pays considérés dans la présente étude.

Cette constatation se réfère notamment aux exportations et s'explique par le fait que celles-ci se composent, pour la plus grande partie, de produits comme le tabac, les céréales et les œufs, qui naturellement se vendent dans certains mois en plus grandes quantités que pendant certaines autres périodes de l'année. Aussi, l'examen de l'évolution du commerce extérieur bulgare pendant les deux premiers mois des années 1929 à 1932 ne peut-il donner de résultats indiquant la ligne générale de l'évolution du commerce extérieur bulgare pendant ces dernières années. Seule la première partie du présent document fournit des indications à cet égard.

2. Sous ces réserves entre les deux premiers mois de l'année 1929 et ceux de l'année 1932, la valeur des importations a diminué de 50% et celle des exportations de 38%. En ce qui concerne les quantités, par contre, les importations ont diminué seulement de 19%, tandis que les exportations ont même augmenté de 234%.

Si l'on se borne à considérer l'évolution entre les deux premiers mois des années 1931 et 1932, on constate que les importations ont diminué de 16% en valeur et de 15% en quantité, alors que les exportations ont diminué de 20% en valeur, mais augmenté de 118% en quantité.

3. En ce qui concerne la valeur des exportations de la Bulgarie vers les cinq pays danubiens, elles ont diminué, entre les deux premiers mois de l'année 1931 et les deux premiers mois de l'année 1932, pour la Hongrie de 97%, pour l'Autriche de 45%, pour la Roumanie de 43% et pour la Tchécoslovaquie de 24%. Par contre, les exportations bulgares en Yougoslavie accusent, pour les mêmes périodes, une augmentation de 244%.

Quant aux autres clients de la Bulgarie, considérés dans le tableau ci-après, leurs achats des deux premiers mois de l'année 1932, comparés à ceux qu'ils avaient effectués pendant la période correspondante de 1931, sont inférieurs, pour l'Allemagne de 68%, pour la France de 25%, pour la Suisse de 23%, et pour l'Italie de 15%. D'autre part, les exportations bulgares dirigées vers la Grande-Bretagne ont augmenté de 281% et celles dirigées vers la Pologne de 44%.

Pendant les deux premiers mois de 1932, le 17% des exportations bulgares a été dirigé vers les cinq pays danubiens, contre 20% pendant la période correspondante de 1931.

4. Le rôle des pays danubiens comme fournisseurs de la Bulgarie a subi, pendant les deux premiers mois de l'année 1932, des changements assez considérables par rapport aux deux premiers mois de l'année 1931. Ainsi, les importations bulgares provenant de l'Autriche ont diminué de 24%, celles de la Roumanie de 45%, celles de la Yougoslavie de 57%, celles de la Tchécoslovaquie de 6% et celles de la Hongrie de 73%. En ce qui concerne les autres fournisseurs de la Bulgarie, les importations polonaises accusent un recul de 35%, les importations allemandes un recul de 27% et les importations britanniques un recul de 24%. Les importations provenant de France ont diminué d'environ 10%, tandis que celles provenant de Suisse et d'Italie ont augmenté de 15% et de 6% respectivement.

5. Pendant les deux premiers mois de l'année 1931, la balance du commerce extérieur de la Bulgarie a été active à l'égard de l'Autriche, de l'Allemagne, de la Pologne, de la Hongrie et de la Suisse, et passive à l'égard de la Roumanie, de la Tchécoslovaquie, de la Yougoslavie, de la France, de la Grande-Bretagne et de l'Italie.

Pendant la période correspondante de 1932, la balance commerciale est également devenue déficitaire à l'égard de l'Allemagne, de la Hongrie et de la Suisse, tandis qu'elle montre un solde actif à l'égard de la Yougoslavie.

En général, la situation commerciale de la Bulgarie pendant les deux premiers mois de l'année 1932, comparée à celle des deux premiers mois de 1931, a empiré, non seulement à l'égard des pays avec lesquels sa balance commerciale est devenue passive, mais encore à l'égard de l'Autriche, de l'Italie, de la Roumanie et de la France, tandis qu'elle s'est améliorée à l'égard de la Yougoslavie, de la Grande-Bretagne et de la Pologne, et, dans une moindre mesure, à l'égard de la Tchécoslovaquie.

Le résultat final de ces changements est que l'actif de la balance du commerce, qui s'était élevé, pour les deux premiers mois de l'année 1931, à 132,1 millions de leva, s'est abaissé pour les deux premiers mois de 1932 à 86,5 millions de leva.

¹ Les chiffres du commerce extérieur bulgare pendant le mois de mars 1932 n'étant pas encore disponibles, on a dû se borner à établir un parallèle entre l'évolution du commerce bulgare pendant les deux premiers mois de l'année 1932 et l'évolution pendant les périodes correspondantes des années précédentes.

DÉVELOPPEMENT DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR PENDANT LES TROIS PREMIERS MOIS DES ANNÉES 1929 A 1932¹ (en millions de levass).

	Total général		Autriche		Hongrie		Roumanie		Tchécoslovaquie		Yougoslavie		Allemagne	
	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.
1929	8.324.633	6.397.061	635.351	802.684	195.709	173.020	591.373	27.044	748.356	304.365	311.757	16.958	1.849.877	1.911.704
Janvier	563.128	575.627	42.844	10.070	9.800	8.873	18.629	745	50.255	48.689	3.514	1.024	134.124	296.070
Février	443.006	379.755	22.057	5.039	5.421	44.459	13.638	704	36.042	2.037	434	1.034	108.960	86.522
Mars	643.671	543.821	30.734	5.369	5.954	37.391	18.551	3.220	43.881	12.624	3.200	2.687	143.870	205.134
1930	4.589.725	6.191.140	310.849	477.898	88.797	235.927	366.663	22.901	430.062	395.718	60.660	29.618	1.065.459	1.620.598
Janvier	401.026	582.047	27.321	46.556	4.719	7.222	31.789	1.838	38.745	15.247	25.255	1.787	96.852	164.343
Février	367.349	387.810	17.296	7.221	5.272	27.586	13.365	1.108	28.683	69.751	13.511	3.798	74.971	136.073
Mars	387.582	644.199	20.246	56.806	2.080	53.583	26.735	6.472	20.473	162.112	4.355	530	77.340	106.292
1931	4.660.063	5.934.174	334.564	993.200	104.310	180.326	217.653	11.871	431.176	273.874	16.304	6.335	1.084.191	1.748.325
Janvier	296.495	390.018	16.445	46.389	12.481	12.278	11.462	160	24.945	1.405	1.086	1.396	74.532	130.813
Février	308.421	346.999	14.330	28.513	3.609	10.069	19.108	1.381	15.859	3.531	1.621	510	77.978	173.318
Mars	374.092	582.433	22.089	25.447	8.453	46.672	14.783	849	28.064	3.293	944	786	82.756	260.436
1932														
Janvier	246.933	307.054	12.454	24.627	2.258	530	9.242	549	20.339	3.170	247	6.341	60.122	44.227
Février	257.702	284.104	10.822	16.201	2.143	147	7.608	343	17.825	563	917	197	51.309	52.752

	France		Grande-Bretagne		Italie		Pologne		Suisse		Autres pays	
	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.
1929	680.339	328.998	738.986	100.096	887.555	670.372	48.183	542.194	212.776	133.995	1.424.371	1.385.631
Janvier	43.009	3.400	51.042	707	66.524	26.287	3.481	58.189	15.505	4.028	124.401	117.545
Février	26.511	10.605	42.741	1.155	81.548	22.548	4.052	52.247	17.872	2.769	83.730	150.636
Mars	51.183	12.596	80.805	3.451	108.534	84.570		45.891	21.720	2.236	135.239	128.652
1930	424.914	320.746	375.999	127.568	623.373	514.142	52.544	630.966	129.894	261.573	660.511	1.553.485
Janvier	26.463	15.982	31.437	22.087	38.547	41.579	11.625	127.199	12.122	2.652	56.151	135.555
Février	93.292	16.026	22.049	7.843	42.842	16.210	4.534	21.489	13.506	3.377	38.028	77.328
Mars	54.008	11.171	39.778	7.237	53.166	117.417	6.212	52.214	7.771	13.676	75.418	56.689
1931	328.235	233.800	617.070	58.953	637.499	344.279	144.832	490.189	150.468	310.595	593.761	1.282.427
Janvier	17.903	19.804	43.447	2.807	39.520	27.443	3.699	71.552	9.676	20.787	41.299	55.184
Février	26.829	7.657	43.179	2.820	47.728	41.321	3.516	9.410	9.820	9.180	44.844	59.289
Mars	32.513	45.141	64.302	2.339	54.310	42.219	2.945	11.912	13.425	28.747	49.508	114.592
1932												
Janvier	22.290	11.021	23.553	7.882	39.174	19.666	808	83.768	14.980	13.420	41.466	91.853
Février	17.738	9.497	42.608	13.472	53.703	38.862	720	32.104	8.073	9.560	44.236	110.406

¹ Les chiffres pour le mois de mars 1932 n'ont pas encore été publiés.

HONGRIE.

1. La première partie du présent document fait ressortir la régression du commerce hongrois entre le début de 1928 et la fin de 1931.

Si l'on compare ensuite le premier trimestre 1932 au premier trimestre 1931, en se bornant à examiner les chiffres indiquant la valeur des échanges, on constate que les importations sont réduites de 40% et les exportations de 45%. Le déficit de la balance commerciale a légèrement augmenté (12,8 contre 11,8 millions de pengö) et constitue environ 8% du volume total des échanges, tandis qu'il était seulement d'environ 4% pendant le premier trimestre 1931.

Pour se faire toutefois une idée aussi exacte que possible de l'état du commerce hongrois durant le premier trimestre 1932, il faut le comparer avec la période correspondante de la dernière année qui peut être considérée comme normale, à savoir: le premier trimestre 1929.

Or, par rapport au premier trimestre 1929, les importations hongroises ont diminué de 170.655.000 pengö, soit de 67%, et les exportations de 117.163.000 pengö, soit de 62%. Depuis le début de 1929, la valeur globale du commerce extérieur hongrois a donc diminué de plus de trois cinquièmes.

En ce qui concerne les répercussions que la baisse des prix a exercées sur le volume du commerce extérieur, la situation de la Hongrie diffère également de celle de l'Autriche. Les importations de la Hongrie se composent, pour moitié à peu près de produits fabriqués, tandis que la majeure partie de ses exportations (les quatre cinquièmes) consistent en produits alimentaires et en matières brutes ou simplement préparées. Comme les prix de ces derniers groupes de marchandises ont beaucoup plus diminué depuis 1929 que ceux des produits fabriqués, la chute des prix a produit un effet bien plus considérable sur les exportations que sur les importations, dont deux cinquièmes seulement consistent en matières premières ou simplement préparées¹.

2. Les exportations de la Hongrie vers les pays danubiens considérés dans le tableau ci-annexé, ont diminué, entre le premier trimestre 1931 et le premier trimestre 1932, vers la Yougoslavie, de 56%; vers la Roumanie, de 39%. Sur le marché tchécoslovaque, les exportations hongroises se sont réduites de 27% et sur le marché autrichien de 25%.

Par rapport au premier trimestre 1929, le recul des exportations hongroises est tout particulièrement grand vis-à-vis de la Tchécoslovaquie (88 %), ce qui est dû à l'absence d'un règlement contractuel des relations commerciales avec ce pays.

Quant aux autres grands clients de la Hongrie, la valeur de leurs achats du premier trimestre de 1932 comparés à ceux de la période correspondante de 1931 est inférieure, pour la Pologne de 74%, pour la Suisse de 65%, et pour la Grande-Bretagne de 63%. Le recul de la valeur des exportations hongroises vers l'Allemagne et vers l'Italie est également très fort: 56% et 48%, tandis que vis-à-vis de la France, la situation commerciale de la Hongrie est un peu moins défavorable, le recul n'étant que de 41%.

Pendant le premier trimestre 1932, 52 % des exportations hongroises ont été dirigées vers les pays danubiens, contre 42 % pendant la période correspondante de 1931; le commerce hongrois a donc moins souffert dans les débouchés danubiens que sur les autres marchés.

3. Le rôle des pays danubiens comme fournisseurs de la Hongrie a également subi, pendant les trois premiers mois de 1932, des changements assez considérables par rapport à la période correspondante de l'année précédente. Ainsi, la valeur des importations hongroises provenant de la Yougoslavie a diminué de 49%, celles provenant de la Tchécoslovaquie de 38%, celles de la Roumanie de 35 % et celles de l'Autriche de 22 %. En ce qui concerne les autres fournisseurs de la Hongrie, les importations allemandes et françaises accusent un recul de 51 % et les importations britanniques et italiennes un recul de 42 %. La Pologne a même vu diminuer ses importations en Hongrie de 71 %, tandis que la Suisse enregistre une augmentation de ses envois en Hongrie de 23 %.

4. Pendant le premier trimestre 1931, la balance du commerce extérieur de la Hongrie a été active vis-à-vis de l'Autriche, de la Yougoslavie, de la Suisse, de l'Italie, de la France et de la Grande-Bretagne, et passive vis-à-vis de la Tchécoslovaquie, de la Roumanie, de l'Allemagne et de la Pologne. Pendant la période correspondante de l'année 1932, la balance commerciale hongroise est aussi devenue passive vis-à-vis de la Yougoslavie, de la Suisse, de l'Italie et de la Grande-Bretagne. Elle est donc restée active seulement à l'égard de l'Autriche et de la France.

En général, la situation commerciale de la Hongrie pendant le premier trimestre de 1932, comparée à celle du premier trimestre de l'année 1931, a empiré, envers les pays vis-à-vis desquels sa balance commerciale est devenue passive, et en outre envers l'Autriche. Elle s'est par contre améliorée à l'égard de la Tchécoslovaquie, de la Roumanie, de l'Allemagne, de la France et de la Pologne.

¹ Il aurait été intéressant d'indiquer, — ainsi qu'on l'a fait pour l'Autriche et la Tchécoslovaquie, — dans quelle mesure les quantités importées et exportées par la Hongrie ont varié, pendant le premier trimestre 1932, par rapport au premier trimestre 1929. Cependant, étant donné que les statistiques hongroises fournissent, pour certains produits, les données en quintaux métriques, pour d'autres en pièces ou en têtes et pour d'autres encore en paires et en mètres courants, une telle comparaison aurait été assez difficile, notamment si l'on voulait éviter de trop entrer dans les détails.

Hongrie. — DÉVELOPPEMENT DU COMMERCE EXTÉRIEUR PENDANT LES TROIS PREMIERS MOIS
DES ANNÉES 1929 A 1932.

(En milliers de pengő.)

	Total général		Autriche		Roumanie		Tchécoslovaquie		Yougoslavie		Allemagne	
	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.
1929.	1.063.697	1.038.540	140.092	315.552	96.146	47.067	228.692	170.097	53.890	61.285	212.515	121.197
1 ^{er} trimestre	255.684	189.362	38.269	56.181	19.785	10.893	54.284	32.337	10.762	11.873	48.721	22.987
1930.	823.348	911.666	94.825	256.004	72.908	29.430	172.918	153.237	42.043	51.810	174.975	94.124
1 ^{er} trimestre	198.022	218.369	24.361	65.792	18.913	7.807	42.734	37.067	9.979	11.185	37.932	25.546
1931.	549.583	567.120	69.454	170.880	71.205	20.138	50.111	24.196	39.784	32.628	132.616	68.371
1 ^{er} trimestre	142.210	130.443	16.157	36.454	16.156	3.782	14.852	5.459	8.860	9.291	34.271	19.784
1932.												
1 ^{er} trimestre	85.029	72.199	12.640	27.526	10.511	2.304	9.106	3.967	4.483	4.055	16.882	8.650

	France		Grande-Bretagne		Italie		Pologne		Suisse		Autres pays	
	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.	Imp.	Exp.
1929.	24.757	12.935	30.005	37.159	46.872	71.525	50.922	17.434	28.058	41.799	151.748	142.490
1 ^{er} trimestre	5.318	1.080	8.245	4.451	12.585	14.011	10.567	4.745	11.306	6.091	35.842	24.713
1930.	23.304	16.210	34.226	51.530	41.397	117.264	29.797	11.547	18.825	36.939	118.130	93.571
1 ^{er} trimestre	4.782	1.885	6.262	8.789	10.200	10.867	6.962	3.074	4.627	7.854	31.270	38.503
1931.	17.265	28.349	20.592	55.373	31.742	57.316	25.085	5.777	12.657	37.532	79.072	66.560
1 ^{er} trimestre	4.931	5.592	6.419	9.386	10.136	10.867	6.394	1.749	3.301	10.960	20.733	17.119
1932.												
1 ^{er} trimestre	2.432	3.273	3.711	3.431	5.891	5.606	1.846	469	4.072	3.838	13.455	9.080

TCHÉCOSLOVAQUIE

1. La première partie du présent document fait ressortir la régression du commerce tchécoslovaque entre le début de 1928 et la fin de 1931.

Si l'on compare ensuite le premier trimestre 1932 au premier trimestre 1931, on constate que la valeur des importations a diminué d'un quart et celle des exportations de deux cinquièmes (même évolution qu'en Autriche). L'actif de la balance du commerce a diminué (96 millions de couronnes contre 477 millions) et ne constitue plus actuellement que le 5% du total des échanges alors qu'il était de 8% pendant le premier trimestre 1931.

Pour se faire toutefois une idée aussi exacte que possible de l'état du commerce tchécoslovaque durant le premier trimestre 1932, il faut le comparer avec la période correspondante de la dernière année qui peut être considérée comme normale, à savoir le premier trimestre 1929.

Or, par rapport au premier trimestre 1929, les importations tchécoslovaques ont diminué de 2.718 millions de couronnes tchécoslovaques, soit d'à peu près 59%, et les exportations de 2.642, soit également d'environ 59%. Depuis le début de 1929, la valeur globale du commerce extérieur tchécoslovaque a donc diminué de près de trois cinquièmes.

Comme pour l'Autriche, la diminution de la valeur des échanges tchécoslovaques n'est pas due seulement à la baisse des prix des marchandises importées et exportées, mais elle correspond à une véritable perte de débouchés, d'une part, et à la restriction des achats effectués à l'étranger, d'autre part. Ici également, les importations, qui se composent pour 70 % de matières brutes ou simplement préparées et d'objets de consommation, ont été plus fortement atteintes par la chute des prix que les exportations, dont près de 70 % consistent en produits fabriqués.

Le fait que les importations ont fléchi d'une manière moins sensible que les exportations apparaît clairement si l'on compare les quantités. Ainsi, les importations ont diminué, entre 1929 et 1931, de 9,9 millions à 8,4 millions de tonnes et de 2,2 millions à 1,1 million de pièces¹, tandis que les exportations ont diminué de 13,1 millions à 8,7 millions de tonnes et de 14,5 millions à 6,9 millions de pièces. La baisse relativement moins forte de l'importation s'explique par la nature des marchandises importées.

2. En ce qui concerne les exportations tchécoslovaques dirigées vers les pays danubiens dans le premier trimestre 1932, elles ont diminué, par rapport au premier trimestre 1931, d'une manière très considérable (pour la Yougoslavie, de 58 %; pour la Hongrie, de 41 %; pour l'Autriche, de 30 %, et pour la Roumanie, de 28 %).

Par rapport au premier trimestre 1929, le recul des exportations tchécoslovaques est tout particulièrement grand vis-à-vis de la Hongrie (83 %), ce qui est dû à l'absence d'un règlement contractuel des relations commerciales avec ce pays.

Quant aux autres grands débouchés de la Tchécoslovaquie, considérés pour les premiers trimestres 1931 et 1932 c'est surtout sur le marché britannique que les exportateurs tchécoslovaques ont perdu le plus de terrain (recul des exportations: 65 %). Le recul des exportations tchécoslovaques vers la Pologne (48 %), vers l'Italie (43 %) et vers l'Allemagne (40 %) est également très considérable. Les exportations vers la Suisse ont souffert beaucoup moins (recul: 26 %), et les exportations vers la France sont restées presque les mêmes (recul de 5 % seulement).

Pendant les trois premiers mois de 1932, la Tchécoslovaquie a placé 28 % de toutes ses exportations dans les autres pays danubiens, contre 27 % dans la période correspondante de l'année précédente. L'importance relative des débouchés danubiens pour les exportations tchécoslovaques a donc légèrement augmenté.

En ce qui concerne les importations provenant des pays danubiens, celles de l'Autriche et de la Hongrie ont diminué, du premier trimestre 1931 au premier trimestre 1932, d'une façon considérable (respectivement de 37 % et de 31 %), tandis que les importations de la Roumanie ont augmenté de 37 % et celles de la Yougoslavie de 8 %.

Les importations provenant des autres pays considérés ici ont toutes subi une forte diminution (Allemagne 24 %, France 31 %, Italie 46 %, Pologne 24 %, Suisse 32 %), excepté les importations provenant de la Grande-Bretagne, dont le recul n'est que de 8 %.

Dans les trois premiers mois de 1932, les importations de la Tchécoslovaquie n'ont montré aucune reprise saisonnière, contrairement aux années précédentes.

3. Pendant le premier trimestre 1931, la Tchécoslovaquie a eu une balance commerciale active avec tous les pays considérés, excepté avec l'Allemagne, la Pologne, l'Italie et la France. Pour les trois premiers mois de 1932, la situation est la même, sauf à l'égard de la France (dont la balance est devenue déficitaire vis-à-vis de la Tchécoslovaquie) et la Roumanie, dont la balance est devenue active.

En général, la situation commerciale de la Tchécoslovaquie a empiré pendant le premier trimestre 1932, en ce qui concerne tous les pays considérés, à l'exception de la France (voir ci-dessus) et de l'Italie, vis-à-vis de laquelle le déficit de la balance commerciale a fortement diminué.

¹ Les statistiques tchécoslovaques fournissent, pour certains produits, les données en tonnes, pour d'autres, en pièces.

Geneva, June 9th, 1932.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

ECONOMIC COMMITTEE

**REPORT TO THE COUNCIL
OF THE WORK OF THE THIRTY-EIGHTH SESSION.**

Held at Geneva from June 2nd to 4th, 1932.

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The following members of the Committee were present:

- | | |
|--|--|
| M. R. SCHÜLLER (<i>Chairman</i>). | M. L. IMHOFF (replacing M. Trendelenburg). |
| M. W. STUCKI (<i>Vice-Chairman</i>). | M. K. R. MENON (replacing M. Lindsay). |
| M. C. BREBBIA. | M. T. PEARSON (replacing M. Eastman). |
| M. A. DI NOLA. | M. R. J. SHACKLE (replacing Sir F. W. Leith-Ross). |
| M. F. DOLEZAL. | M. S. SHIBUSAWA (replacing M. Ito). |
| M. P. ELBEL. | M. P. WIJCKMAN (replacing M. Lundvik). |
| M. F. VAN LANGENHOVE. | |
| M. F. PEROUTKA. | |
| M. M. TODOROVIC. | |

The following were also present:

- | | |
|----------------|--------------------------|
| M. E. NECULCEA | } Corresponding Members. |
| M. A. DE NICKL | |

I. FURTHER AGGRAVATION OF THE POSITION OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE.

1. The effects of the weakening of credit and monetary difficulties began to be felt during the summer of 1931. In January 1932, when the Economic Committee held its last session, it was already able to point to the harm which these two causes, aggravated by the large number of restrictions imposed as the outcome of those causes, had inflicted on international trade, which had already been subjected to a heavy strain by the depression which had been dragging on for two years.

Barely four months have elapsed since the last report of the Committee, and already the fears which it expressed at that time have been confirmed and even exceeded by events.

The value of international trade to-day is only one-half, or, perhaps, less than half, what it was in the first quarter of 1929.¹ During the same period, the number of wholly unemployed persons has more than doubled. According to the figures of the International Labour Office, from 20 to 25 million persons are now without work. The situation is growing worse from day to day and the world is awaiting with dread what the morrow will bring forth.

Yet there is not a single country in the world and certainly not one in Europe which has not applied every means in its power and which experience suggests to prevent its national economy from being affected by the general depression. On the contrary, the force of propagation inherent in the direct and indirect measures of defence and restriction has caused them to multiply *ad infinitum*, and it is no longer possible to keep count of them. New ones are being invented daily in every country and if their curative value is more than doubtful their general effect is only too certain. To borrow the vigorous expression used by the Financial Committee it amounts to "the strangulation of international trade".

Even more definitely than in January, the Economic Committee has the impression that the individual actions of States—necessarily limited to defence and inevitably counteracted by other States—superimposed one on the other only aggravate the situation.

These measures are comprehensible, perhaps even inevitable, from the national point of view, but taken as a whole they are disastrous.

No one is still under the illusion that it is possible for a country to improve its economic situation simply by means of the unilateral measures which it considers indispensable. The figures are there to show that even the defence of the balance of payments, which is the legitimate concern of each country, is only achieved in a small measure and at the cost of economic depression and a lowering of the standard of living.

Imports can certainly be reduced by means of increased duties, surtaxes, prohibitions, quotas, restrictions on foreign exchange—even so there is a limit which must not be exceeded—but this reduction is inevitably accompanied by a contraction of exports.

If, as has often been argued, goods which can no longer be exported were sold on the home market in place of those excluded, we should not be confronted with the progressive fall in purchasing power and the constant increase in unemployment.

2. The characteristic feature of these restrictive measures is that they naturally tend to multiply; each measure of this kind calls forth a corresponding counter-measure, and the piling up of these measures one upon the other ultimately leads to a still greater falling off in international trade.

¹ The Secretariat has submitted to the Committee a very instructive note on the development of the monthly foreign trade in the principal countries (E.780). An extract from this note will be found in Appendix 2. It will be seen that between January 1930 and January 1932 the foreign trade in the principal countries declined to the extent indicated in the following table:

<i>Imports</i>		<i>Set-back (percentage).</i>		<i>Exports</i>	
Switzerland	21	Brazil	21	Brazil	21
Sweden	26	Argentina	31	Argentina	31
Austria	37	Sweden	34	Sweden	34
Japan	37	Belgium	40	Belgium	40
Uruguay	38	Roumania	42	Roumania	42
Great Britain	39	Italy	46	Italy	46
Brazil	44	Great Britain	47	Great Britain	47
Union of South Africa	47	Union of South Africa	48	Union of South Africa	48
Czechoslovakia	48	Germany	49	Germany	49
Belgium	50	Canada	49	Canada	49
France	51	Switzerland	50	Switzerland	50
Italy	52	France	51	France	51
Argentina	54	Japan	53	Japan	53
United States	58	Uruguay	53	Uruguay	53
Hungary	59	Austria	54	Austria	54
Yugoslavia	59	Poland	58	Poland	58
Canada	60	Chili	60	Chili	60
Roumania	61	Czechoslovakia	61	Czechoslovakia	61
Spain	62	United States	63	United States	63
Poland	63	Yugoslavia	65	Yugoslavia	65
Germany	66	Spain	70	Spain	70
Chili	83	Hungary	70	Hungary	70

The table reproduced in Appendix 1 shows the development of foreign trade in the principal European countries and certain overseas countries during the first four months of the years 1930 to 1932.

This situation is in a marked contrast with the position prior to the crisis, which was characterised by the existence of a large number of commercial treaties the object of which was to ensure a reasonable measure of security and stability in commercial relations between the various nations, and those relations were governed by the principle of most-favoured-nation treatment. At present, however, the conclusion of commercial treaties is becoming more and more rare. States are reluctant to regulate their commercial relations as a whole by means of treaties. In order to meet particularly critical situations, they are content to have recourse to all kinds of expedients which enable them to resume their freedom of action at any moment. At the present time, the majority of agreements tend to restrict rather than to increase reciprocal advantages and some even appear to sanction explicitly and in advance the reciprocal right of the parties to harm each other. Moreover, certain of the most recent agreements are based on reciprocity, whereas, until recently, the principle of the most-favoured-nation clause was, we might say, the basis of all commercial treaties. Even when advantageous treaties are still in force, the guarantees which they contain become illusory as a result of the unforeseen measures introduced to meet the crisis. What is the use of a consolidated duty if an exchange surtax is superimposed? What good is freedom of trade guaranteed by the treaty but actually abolished or reduced by prohibitions or quotas? What becomes of all the guarantees in the best treaty if buyers cannot obtain the foreign exchange necessary to pay for their purchases? Finally, what remains of this equality of treatment which the most-favoured-nation clause was designed to ensure?

The effects of such a state of affairs in a world where, thanks to technical progress, distances are tending to disappear, cannot be over-estimated. These effects are still greater in a continent such as Europe, where a large number of highly developed countries exchange on an average nearly three-quarters of their trade with each other. Each is beginning to notice with uneasiness that arbitrary action and disorder in international economic relations are tending to take the place of the security which commercial treaties had restored to some extent after the war. There is no country which, while making restrictions which it considers inevitable, fails to realise that they are a make-shift to be abandoned as soon as possible. Moreover it is to be feared that this policy acts as an inducement to profiteers who are always ready to take advantage of exceptional situations: the parties concerned besiege the authorities with their petitions and too often succeed in obtaining, under pretext of the national interest, unwarranted protection from which they alone benefit.

3. As the Economic Committee pointed out in its last report, the present situation of international trade is dominated, determined and explained almost entirely by those grave disturbances which, since July 1931, have been a feature of the monetary and financial situation. Since then, these difficulties have become much more acute. The settlement of financial questions without delay appears to be essential and also the establishment of international co-operation in regard to monetary questions. From the standpoint of the Committee, the efficacy of this co-operation must be gauged by its effects on international trade. In the Committee's view, the restrictions imposed on dealings in foreign exchange constitute an obstacle which is all the more formidable in that they are subject to frequent variations, and that, on this account, the trader is faced with unforeseen situations and deprived, even after the delivery of goods, of the payment which he has a right to expect. Finally, they often lead to discrimination between different categories of commodities and hence between different countries. Moreover, these monetary restrictions cause a great deal of harm by helping to vitiate and divert artificially the natural currents of trade: commodities which—in so far as they are not stopped by other obstacles—avoid markets which cannot pay or which can only do so with a depreciated currency, have a natural tendency to flow in vast quantities to the few countries which are still in a position to make their payments in full, and with a sound currency. The latter, afraid of being swamped and deprived of the benefit of their exports, take up a defensive attitude in their turn. They are thus swept into this restrictive movement and, notwithstanding the soundness of their currency, they feel the indirect effects of the monetary disturbances of the other countries.

In this connection, the Committee also finds that it appears to be very difficult for any country to put an end independently of other countries to the inconvenience which the control of exchange transactions imposes upon trade. Obviously certain States could only do so if the countries with which their principal trade is carried on decided upon a similar policy. For this reason the Committee hails with particular satisfaction the ideas which have recently been expressed in regard to international co-operation with a view to the settlement of monetary problems by an international agreement.

4. However, while awaiting this solution, existing commercial treaties should be maintained as far as possible, and their stipulations respected. It would even be desirable to conclude new ones, in accordance with the intention recently expressed by certain States.

Some of the difficulties resulting from measures of restriction could moreover be avoided if, before applying them, the countries concerned carefully weighed the consequences and took into account the repercussions which they might have in respect of third countries. It is desirable that, whenever possible, preliminary consultations should take place.

The regrettable consequences of the quota system might be mitigated if the latter were applied in moderation and with due regard for the interests of other countries; their sole purpose should be to avoid an abnormal increase in imports.

It should be remembered that commercial currents can always be modified and developed and that the charge can reasonably be laid against quotas that they are too rigid and arrest the expansion of trade.

The Economic Committee considers that, although in some cases exceptional conditions may necessitate the application of the quota system, it should be a purely temporary expedient. Pending its disappearance, it is in any case essential that it should be attenuated in every possible way.

Certain countries which have gone a long way in the matter of quotas, in the control of foreign exchange dealings or other forms of restriction, may feel that the time has not yet come for them to abandon these measures entirely, and may manifest a desire to effect the necessary transition step by step; but it would at the very least be desirable that they should not aggravate the present situation by continually adding new measures to those they have already introduced. A considerable pause in the application of the system would represent a relative progress and might make it easier to return to more normal economic principles.

It must be remembered that, if prosperity is to be restored, international trade must be resuscitated. That should be the fundamental idea of the Governments and the essential object of their efforts.

5. Following the doctrine defined in its report of June 18th, 1929 (document C.138.M.53. 1929.II), the Committee is unanimously of opinion that, notwithstanding the infringements to which the regime of the most-favoured-nation clause is now subjected, the grant of this regime in customs matters "ought to be the normal", and that its disappearance would lead to confusion and incalculable difficulties.

None the less, the Committee is bound to admit that in the present exceptional circumstances, pending the restoration of economic equilibrium, one way of saving the regime of the most-favoured-nation clause might be to agree to such exceptions as seem essential for the solution of particular difficulties. At the same time, there must be no entering into academic controversies about these exceptions without knowing exactly what one of the parties asks and what is the extent of the concessions that the other party would have to make. If exceptions to the clause seem necessary to the parties concerned, they must be submitted for the assent of third parties in a concrete and specific form. In that case, they will have much more chance of obtaining the consent of third countries.

6. In passing so severe a judgment as they have at the beginning of this report on the results of the policy at present followed by the majority of countries, the members of the Committee would not wish to give the Council the impression that they are indulging in criticism, which is always an easy thing to do, and are addressing insufficiently considered reproaches to those who bear the heavy burden of responsibility for the conduct of business in their own countries. Most of them are themselves responsible for bearing that burden in their own countries. Day after day, they are themselves led by the pressure of circumstances to apply those very measures which, when met together at Geneva to-day, they find to have such small advantages and such serious drawbacks.

The truth is that no country is to-day in a position to divert the trend of economic evolution to its own benefit by its own unaided efforts. Only concerted action, which for the moment is difficult to imagine but to which the Committee ardently looks forward, can restore international trade to its full volume and then only provided—and this is even truer now than in January when the Committee said it for the first time—that international relations enter upon a more peaceful era and that a lasting improvement can be effected in the financial position and the currency system.

Of this concerted action, the value of which was perhaps not fully realised by any country in more prosperous times (the tireless efforts of the League of Nations between 1927 and 1930 must not be forgotten), a few signs—uncertain and sporadic, it is true—are already to be seen upon the horizon and offer some hope of a possible improvement in the near future.

Although, as regards international political debts, the suspension of payments has not been followed by a final settlement, though everybody hopes that such a settlement will soon be reached and will serve the general interest, it is to be observed that, in regard to private debts, a series of arrangements is being made day by day through agreements between debtors and creditors.

In the industries particularly interested in export trade, movements are coming into being tending towards the conclusion of arrangements, and even Customs agreements, to facilitate trade for certain branches of production.

The Joint Committee which was recently appointed by the Council and is now sitting at Paris, the resolutions of the International Labour Conference urging the convocation of an Economic Conference, which are submitted by the Council to the Assembly; the Conference of Lausanne, which is to open in a few days, the conversations concerning the help to be given to the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, and, lastly, the step recently taken by the British Government, all seem to suggest that the need for international co-operation is beginning to be felt.

In the present grave situation, the worst possible thing would be to give way to despair and to persuade ourselves that we are powerless against the march of events.

The Economic Committee feels that a courageous policy, openly directed towards international co-operation and the co-ordination of efforts on an international basis is more necessary to-day than ever before.

II. EXAMINATION OF THE INTERNATIONAL POSITION OF CERTAIN BRANCHES OF PRODUCTION.

A. COAL.

The Committee has once more devoted its attention to the peculiarly critical position of the coal industry. This position is explained in detail in a recent publication.¹

As the outcome of a meeting held at Geneva in January 1932 by a Sub-Committee of Experts representing Governments', employers' and workers' interests, and consumers', the idea of an international Coal Agreement seemed well on the road to realisation. Such hopes, however, have been disappointed. The depression continues to weigh upon the coal industry; but it has not been possible to take any step in the direction of international agreement. Bitter commercial competition continues and protective or prohibitive measures have been intensified in many countries.

The Economic Committee considered whether, in these circumstances, the Sub-Committee of Experts should be convened. One of the chief producing countries thought that this would be of no avail at present, and the Committee accordingly decided to postpone consideration of the expediency of another meeting until its next session.

B. OTHER PRODUCTS.

In pursuance of the resolutions of the Assembly of 1931 relating to the study of a better organisation of certain branches of production and the trade in connection therewith, the Committee consulted qualified experts on: (a) hops, (b) timber, (c) motor vehicles.

From all these meetings it gained the impression that useful work was being done. The experts expressed their satisfaction at the opportunity which had been given them to exchange their views as to the best means of relieving the depression; they decided to continue the action undertaken at Geneva, and offered to keep the Committee apprised of any progress to which that action might lead. The Economic Committee has authorised its Bureau to consult any experts and make any enquiries which they may think desirable in regard to other branches of production.

(a) *Hops.*² — The experts pronounced in favour of the establishment of an International Hops Bureau which, in close contact with the International Institute of Agriculture, will study the problems connected with the production of hops and the hop trade. An already existing organisation—the Central European Hops Bureau—is to serve as a basis for the proposed organisation on genuinely international lines.

(b) *Timber.*³ — The experts consider that the regulation of exports might assist the recovery of the market. Those interested in the matter have decided to organise an international Conference in Vienna on June 9th on the basis of the principles established at Geneva, and all the countries interested are invited.

Most of the experts were of opinion that action should be taken with a view to the restriction of exports, which would indirectly lead to the reduction of fellings.

The Committee is also of opinion that an international Convention for the reduction of fellings cannot be contemplated in present circumstances. At the same time, it earnestly recommends the Governments to neglect no action that may put an end to the unreasonable exploitation of their "timber capital".

(c) *Motor Vehicles.*⁴ — The consultation of the experts has raised a series of problems which will be gone into more thoroughly by the permanent International Bureau of Motor Manufacturers. All the experts are members of this Bureau, which has its headquarters at Paris.

III. NATIONAL ECONOMIC COUNCILS.

The Second Commission of the last Assembly drew attention to the fact that it would be desirable to associate with the work of the League of Nations National Economic Councils, leaving it to the Council of the League to seek the most appropriate methods of realising this collaboration.

The Economic Committee, which was entrusted with the technical study in connection with this problem, considered that it would first be necessary to obtain as complete and exact information as possible on the existence, composition, character and functions of these National Economic Councils or other similar organisms in the different countries.

¹ *The Coal Problem*, document C.405.M.224.1932.II.B.

² See report of the delegation of the Economic Committee on the meeting of experts on hops (document C.515.M.254.1932.II.B).

³ See report of the delegation of the Economic Committee on the meeting of timber experts (document C.493.M.239.1932.II.B: *The Timber Problem*).

⁴ See Appendix 3. — Report of the Delegation of the Economic Committee on the Meeting of Experts on the Motor Industry.

The information obtained will, with the help of a competent person, be summarised and published shortly. The Committee hopes to be in a position to forward this documentation to the Governments in good time before the next meeting of the Assembly. It will be accompanied by the observations which the Economic Committee may wish to put forward to meet the preoccupations of the Second Commission of the last Assembly.

Appendix 1.

TABLE SHOWING THE DEVELOPMENT OF FOREIGN TRADE IN THE PRINCIPAL EUROPEAN COUNTRIES AND IN CERTAIN OVERSEAS COUNTRIES DURING THE FIRST FOUR MONTHS OF THE YEARS 1930 TO 1932.

Drawn up by the Secretariat on the basis of the *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics*, published by the League of Nations.

Unless otherwise stated, all figures are expressed in millions of monetary units.

	January to April 1930			January to April 1931			January to April 1932		
	Imp.	Exp.	Bal.	Imp.	Exp.	Bal.	Imp.	Exp.	Bal.
Germany (in Rm.)	4,060	3,959	— 101	2,598	3,057	+ 459	1,672	2,054	+ 382
Austria (in schillings)	723	620	— 103	718	436	— 282	520	260	— 260
Belgium ¹ (in Belg. francs)	8,521	6,776	— 1,745	6,305	5,903	— 402	4,602	4,114	— 488
United Kingdom (in pounds stg.)	335	211	— 124	256	136	— 120	226	127	— 99
Bulgaria (in leva)	1,529	2,140	+ 611	1,429	2,003	+ 574	1,173	1,181	+ 8
Denmark ¹ (in kroner)	411	377	— 34	340	318	— 22	298	278	— 20
Spain ¹ (in pesetas)	576	549	— 27	354	266	+ 88	244	195	+ 49
Estonia ^{1 2} (in Est. cour.)	26,121	20,883	+ 5,328	14,709	13,983	— 726	8,583	8,167	— 416
Finland ¹ (in markka)	954	844	— 110	661	671	+ 10	506	801	+ 295
France (in Fr. francs)	18,583	15,578	— 3,003	15,713	11,284	— 4,429	10,195	7,036	— 3,159
Greece (in drachmæ)	3,679	1,775	— 1,904	2,942	1,538	— 1,404	2,578	942	— 1,636
Hungary ¹ (in pengö)	198	220	+ 22	142	131	— 11	85	72	— 13
Italy (in lire)	4,505	4,135	— 370	3,084	3,176	+ 92	2,211	2,228	+ 17
Latvia ^{1 2} (in lats)	71,533	55,397	— 16,136	47,516	33,082	— 14,434	18,554	22,993	+ 4,389
Lithuania ^{1 2} (in litas)	71,585	107,034	+ 35,449	64,290	91,258	+ 26,968	34,563	67,632	+ 33,069
Norway (in kroner)	332	244	— 88	288	183	— 105	228	186	— 42
Netherlands (in gulden)	851	595	— 256	662	462	— 200	470	289	— 181
Poland (in zloty)	773	867	+ 94	538	640	+ 102	289	383	+ 94
Portugal (in escudos)	830	288	— 542	519	219	— 300	587	227	— 360
Roumania ³ (in lei)	4,357	3,626	— 731	2,961	2,696	— 265	1,745	2,219	+ 474
U.S.S.R. (in roubles)	326	257	— 69	296	213	— 83	—	—	—
Sweden (in crowns)	543	441	— 102	446	292	— 154	379	260	— 119
Switzerland (in gold francs)	874	624	— 250	736	483	— 253	617	298	— 319
Czechoslovakia (in crowns)	5,387	5,715	+ 328	3,604	4,249	+ 645	2,663	2,478	— 185
Yugoslavia ¹ (in dinars)	1,740	1,696	— 44	1,341	1,159	— 182	703	636	— 67
United States of America (in dol.)	1,211	1,437	+ 226	749	908	+ 159	522	586	+ 64
Canada (in dollars)	350	282	— 68	227	178	— 49	157	141	— 16
Argentina (in gold pesos)	267	251	— 16	216	222	+ 6	124	239	+ 115
Brazil ¹ (in milreis)	687	911	+ 224	479	760	+ 281	420	748	+ 328
Chili (in pesos)	512	506	— 6	377	404	+ 27	100	189	+ 89
Uruguay ^{1 2} (in pesos)	21,159	37,491	+ 16,332	19,935	25,012	+ 5,077	12,323	16,836	+ 4,513
British India (in rupees)	619	784	+ 165	419	471	+ 52	309	385	+ 76
Japan (in yen)	661	506	— 155	451	369	— 82	546	337	— 209
South Africa ^{1 2} (in £)	16,348	8,390	— 7,958	13,177	5,975	— 7,202	8,080	5,039	— 3,041
Australia ^{1 2} (in pounds sterling)	31,752	23,683	— 8,069	12,229	23,579	+ 11,350	9,965	27,057	+ 17,092

¹ First three months only of 1930, 1931 and 1932.

² Thousands of units.

³ First two months only of 1930, 1931 and 1932.

C. 516. M. 255. 1932. II. B.
Corrigendum.

Geneva, June 30th, 1932.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

ECONOMIC COMMITTEE.

Report to the Council on the work of the thirty-eighth session,
held at Geneva from June 2nd to 4th 1932.

Page 8, Chapter II, paragraph 2. (b),

The words "South Africa and" in the third line,
should be deleted.

The French text is correct

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Appendix 2.

THE PRESENT CONDITIONS OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE.

[Extract from Note by the Secretariat (document E.780) drawn up for the Economic Committee.]

CONTENTS.

- I. Introduction.
- II. Summary of the Situation.
 - 1. The Protectionist Policy pursued.
 - 2. Measures taken to supervise and regulate Foreign Trade.
 - 3. Attempts to react against the Fall of the Exchanges.
- III. Set-back of International Trade since 1928.

I. INTRODUCTION.

Since July 1931, *new conditions* of international trade have made their appearance, and this trade is now subject to restrictions resembling both in form and extent those which prevailed immediately after the armistice.

Up to that time, international trade followed the lines indicated by a commercial policy which, though increasingly protectionist, was based on normal commercial agreements embodying the most-favoured-nation clause.

Apart from the traditional exceptions, the world was living under the regime of what is commonly called "liberty of trading". This means that, as a general rule, States did not take any measures to prohibit imports or exports of any commodity or to fix beforehand the quantities which could be exchanged, but merely exerted an influence on trade—which in some cases was very considerable—by the classical means of Customs duties.

Since the succession of financial collapses and the suspension of credit which occurred during the summer of 1931, international trade has been subjected to a series of measures taken primarily under the pressure, whether direct or indirect, of financial and monetary factors.

In the first place, States in financial and monetary difficulties were obliged to introduce the control of foreign exchange, thus creating a first series of obstacles to international trade, which were non-existent before that time and which have the most serious repercussions. Individuals desirous of importing foreign goods can only do so to the extent to which the national bank supplies them with the necessary foreign exchange. The bank finds it more and more difficult to obtain this exchange, and this leads to a large-scale reduction in imports.

For the same reason, goods supplied cannot be paid for, which causes an accumulation of frozen commercial credits.

As the imports of one country are merely the sum of the exports coming to its territory from other countries, each country is directly affected by these measures.

With a view to satisfying their urgent need for foreign exchange which has risen in value, countries in financial and monetary difficulties endeavour to direct or increase their exports to countries with a sound currency, in which, moreover, higher prices prevail and to which there is thus an abnormal flow of foreign goods at prices which prevent the Customs duties from exercising their normal protective function, thus exposing national production to dangerous competition. Very soon foreign exchange control becomes inadequate and those countries have recourse to prohibitions or quotas.

Countries whose financial and monetary position has remained sound are then compelled in their turn to take defensive measures against excessive imports, and they regard those measures as all the more justified, since fresh restrictions are constantly being introduced in other countries, and ever-increasing quantities of foreign goods, which no longer find their natural outlet in their usual markets, flow towards their territory. These countries are also more anxious to ensure the equilibrium of their balance of payments, which is jeopardised partly by the decline in their exports and also by the drying up of revenue from their foreign investments.

To all these causes of disturbance there has been added the disequilibrium due to the abandonment of the gold standard by several important countries and the depreciation of their currency which has ensued.

The conception and application of these different measures vary considerably, but nearly everywhere there is a tendency to apply them as strictly as possible. It is true that the origin of these measures is to be found in the general causes mentioned above, but they have increased in number and severity, partly owing to the special interests which benefit therefrom and partly on account of the friction to which they give rise between different countries.

The Economic Committee has already, in its report of January 1932 (document C.74.M.39.1932.II), stated its opinion on the economic aspects of these various measures which have been taken by States.

For the purpose of the present note, it is sufficient to have drawn attention to the various new impediments to international trade introduced since the summer of 1931.

II. SUMMARY OF THE SITUATION.

The crisis in international trade has assumed a two-fold form affecting in a greater or lesser degree all branches of productive activity and destroying confidence. Not only have the *values* exchanged been considerably curtailed, but, as is very clearly shown by the general summary of world trade for 1930,¹ the *volume* of international trade has itself diminished, while far-reaching changes have also taken place in the distribution of the various categories of trade products and in the composition of those categories. In a word, the trade currents have not only fallen off in intensity, but are now different in character from what they were only a few years ago. The same groups of commodities are no longer being exchanged in the same relative proportions as before the crisis.

Coming on top of the slackening in the internal economic activities of the different countries this profound and progressive change in the character of international trade has confronted the Governments with a problem the complexity of which is increased by the fact that its terms are not fixed, but vary constantly.

1. *The Protectionist Policy pursued.*

Generally speaking, the insecurity of the situation has led to attention being chiefly concentrated on national markets, and has strengthened the movement to become "self-supporting". Since the beginning of 1930, practically every country has remoulded its Customs tariff on a more or less extensive scale, or has increased its import dues on particular products. In the last few months alone, for example, Belgium, Denmark, Estonia, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Sweden, Bolivia, Brazil, Siam and the Union of South Africa, have increased their import duties in some cases on important categories of goods, or even the whole of their tariffs. The most striking development of all, however, has been the adoption of a protectionist tariff by the United Kingdom.

2. *Measures taken to supervise and regulate Foreign Trade.*²

(a) *Control of Foreign Exchange.* — Under the burden of debts which, as a direct result of the collapse in prices, have become very heavy, and as a consequence of mass withdrawals of foreign capital, a number of debtor countries have been compelled—in order to prevent the flight of national capital to foreign countries, to maintain the exchange rate of their own currency, and generally to cope with a precarious financial situation—to take steps with a view to a more or less rigorous supervision and restriction of dealings in foreign exchange. These measures, which reduce the amount of foreign exchange available for importers of non-essential products, have largely contributed to accentuate or even to provoke the collapse of the import trade of the countries that have resorted to them, and have, in addition, created inevitable discrimination between the countries constituting the sources of supply. What is much worse, they have, in certain cases, made the settlement of commercial debts impossible, and have necessitated difficult negotiations.

The European countries which, up to now, have resorted to measures for the control of foreign exchange dealings are Austria, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Estonia, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Latvia, Norway,³ Roumania, Turkey and Yugoslavia.

(b) *Monetary Measures.* — The abandonment of the gold standard, which circumstances imposed during the last quarter of 1931 on the United Kingdom, Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden, Australia, Canada, India and Japan, and more recently in South Africa and Greece, has led to a fall in the exchange value of these countries' currencies on the foreign market, thereby creating a more or less marked disproportion between their internal and external purchasing power. This disproportion, which is calculated, at any rate in theory, to stimulate export trade, has not failed under present circumstances to lead to measures of retaliation on the part of a number of other countries, chiefly in the form of exchange surtaxes. The question arises whether the abandonment of the gold standard has had a stimulating effect on international trade, or whether, on the other hand, it has not disturbed the normal currents of trade, and has ended by restricting it.

¹ Volume I of the *Memorandum on International Trade and Balances of Payments in 1930*.

² A summary of those measures is annexed to document E.780, prepared by the Secretariat for the Economic Committee.

³ By a voluntary restriction introduced by the banks.

(c) *Commercial Measures.* — The measures for the direct regulation of trade that have most frequently been resorted to have been measures to establish *import quotas* or to institute import licences or permits. Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Norway, Poland, Roumania, Spain, Switzerland and Turkey are the chief countries in Europe which have introduced such measures. But, while these measures are applicable—in Belgium, Denmark, Germany and Roumania, for example—only to certain groups of goods, or—as in Italy—are strictly limited to goods specified as coming from particular countries, they have been continuously intensified in France, Estonia and other countries, and actually extend in Latvia and Turkey to the whole volume of imports.

Certain countries, such as Estonia and Persia, have preferred the system of import monopolies to the system of import quotas or permits, while others, such as Spain, Portugal and Colombia, have rigidly prohibited the importation of particular products.

A number of countries have not restricted these regulative measures to the import trade, but have adopted a system of permits for the *export* of particular products (as in Denmark and Spain) or for all exports (as in New Zealand).

3. *Attempts to react against the Fall of the Exchanges.*

With a view to stemming to a certain extent the combined effects of the economic crisis and the measures for the direct and indirect regulation of international trade, certain countries have concluded agreements for the *exchange of specified products on a basis of barter*. Agreements of this kind have been concluded between Germany and Hungary, Austria and Roumania, Bulgaria and Greece, Bulgaria and Switzerland, France and Latvia, Norway and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Poland and Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, Estonia and Yugoslavia.

Other countries have resorted to *compensation or clearing agreements*, which, by avoiding direct payment for the goods exchanged, were designed to render possible the continuation of trade between the contracting parties. Austria and Hungary, in particular, have had recourse to this method, Austria having concluded agreements with France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Switzerland and Yugoslavia; and Hungary with Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Italy and Switzerland. France has signed two agreements of this kind with Estonia and Latvia, and Switzerland has signed an agreement with Yugoslavia.

Up to the present, however, these partial efforts do not appear to have yielded very convincing results; and, under the influence of the general economic crisis and the measures of control which are everywhere being multiplied, the trade of the world is becoming weaker and weaker, as will be shown by the following figures.

III. SET-BACK OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE SINCE 1928.

The aggregate value ¹ of the foreign trade of the principal countries, expressed in millions of dollars, was:

	Imports	Exports	Difference ²
In 1928	30,420	28,071	— 2,349
In 1929	31,198	28,487	— 2,711
In 1930	25,370	22,825	— 2,545
In 1931	18,258	16,221	— 2,037

The margin between the figures of 1929 and 1931 expressed as a percentage is 41.5 on imports and 43.1 on exports.

It is, however, much larger if the figures of the total trade for the months of *January and February* in the years 1929 and 1932 are set side by side.

	Imports			Exports		
	1929	1932	Difference	1929	1932	Difference
January	2,740	1,101	—1,639	2,415	957	—1,458
February	2,380	1,114	—1,266	2,206	1,006	—1,200

Expressed as a percentage, the set-back is as follows:

	On imports	On exports
January	59.8	60.4
February	53.2	54.4

Down to January 1930, the aggregate value of trade was more or less maintained, but, from

¹ See also the League of Nations *Memorandum on International Trade and Balances of Payments in 1930*, Vol. I, "Review of World Trade in 1930".

These figures relate to the foreign trade of twenty-five European countries (representing 99 per cent of European trade), two North-American countries (the United States of America and Canada, likewise representing 99 per cent of North-American trade), and eighteen other countries (representing 61 per cent of the balance of the world's foreign trade). They are taken from information collected for the preparation of the graphs on page 9 of the *Memorandum* referred to.

² The difference represents (a) the margin between the c.i.f. price of goods imported and the f.o.b. price of goods exported, and (b) the difference between the export trade to countries not included in the calculations and the import trade from such countries.

the following month onwards, the set-back began, gathering force in the second half of 1930 and throughout 1931. It naturally assumes different aspects in different countries.¹

The following percentage, figures give very suggestive indications of the falling-off of the foreign trade of a number of countries between January 1930 and January 1932:

Imports		Exports	
Switzerland	21	Brazil	21
Sweden	26	Argentina	31
Austria	37	Sweden	34
Japan	37	Belgium	40
United Kingdom	39	Roumania	42
Brazil	44	Italy	46
Union of South Africa	47	United Kingdom	47
Czechoslovakia	48	Union of South Africa	48
Belgium	50	Germany	49
France	51	Canada	49
Italy	52	Switzerland	50
Argentina	54	France	51
United States of America	58	Japan	53
Hungary	59	Austria	54
Yugoslavia	59	Poland	58
Canada	60	Czechoslovakia	61
Roumania	61	United States of America	63
Spain	62	Yugoslavia	65
Poland	63	Spain	70
Germany	66	Hungary	70 ²

These figures show the disastrous effects of the economic depression and the measures taken for the control of international trade. They relate, it is true, only to values. As they do not take into account the fall in prices during the years covered by the figures, which, for a large number of commodities, is considerable, they show a larger falling-off than that which results from a comparison of the *volume* of trade.³

Neither the conception of value nor of quantity, taken separately, can convey any idea of the real extent of the phenomenon of the etiolation of economic life. While the favourable or adverse balance of the *values exchanged* is an element of very great importance in the balance of payments, the falling-off in the *quantities exchanged* has an even more direct bearing on the unemployment figures and on means of transport which remain idle.

It should also be noted that the fall in prices affects the different categories of products which form the object of trade in very different ways, being, in general, more serious in the case of raw materials and foodstuffs than in the case of manufactured products. Consequently, the factor of prices operates differently according to the economic structure of the country considered, and no accurate estimate of the trade set-back in any one case can be made without a qualitative examination of foreign trade carried out in detail for the various countries.

¹ Document E. 778, prepared by the Secretariat for the Economic Committee, contains a summary by countries of the monthly foreign trade from the beginning of 1930, expressed in absolute figures (millions of units of the currency of each country), and a comparison showing in percentages the set-back in the values of trade for the different months of 1930 and 1931 and, as far as possible, in 1932.

² These figures are taken from document E.778 mentioned above.

³ There are even countries whose exports have increased in quantity while decreasing in value—*e.g.*, certain agricultural countries. There are also certain countries which show increases in the value of their foreign trade—*e.g.*, Australia.

Appendix 3.

REPORT BY THE DELEGATION OF THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE IN PURSUANCE OF THE MEETING OF EXPERTS ON AUTOMOBILES. (May 30th, 1932.)

The delegation appointed by the Economic Committee to hear the experts on the motor industry has the honour to communicate to it the results of that meeting, held at Geneva on May 30th, 1932.

After taking cognisance of the present report, the Committee will be called upon to decide whether and in what form it will submit to the Council a report on the question of motor vehicles.

A.

1. At the request of M. Di Nola (Italy), the Committee had decided, at its session of January 1932, to hear some experts particularly well informed on the question of motor vehicles. Experts from Belgium, the United Kingdom, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany and Italy met at Geneva on May 30th.¹

An American expert had also been invited, but was unable to accept the invitation.

Their terms of reference were (1) to examine the world situation in regard to the production of and trade in motor vehicles; (2) to examine what international measures could be adopted to improve the situation.

2. The material prepared by the Secretariat, which made use in particular of information and statistics supplied by various experts and by the Bureau Permanent International des Constructeurs d'Automobiles of Paris, consisted of a note on the situation in regard to motor-car production, trade and traffic in the various countries from 1929 onwards. In addition, two notes were prepared, showing the Customs duties at present levied on motor vehicles imported into the principal producing and importing countries of Europe, whether autonomous or consolidated duties.

On the basis of these notes, the experts proceeded to examine the situation as it exists in the producing countries and in the purely importing countries.

3. The motor-car industry throughout the world is at present undergoing a serious depression. Naturally, countries in which the production of motor vehicles plays a very important part and motor traffic is highly developed feel the effects of this crisis more severely than others.

Among these countries must be mentioned, in the first place, the United States of America, which is the greatest world centre for the production of motor vehicles. In point of fact, it produced in 1930 more than four-fifths of the world output. The total American production (United States and Canada) amounted in 1929 to 90 per cent of the world production, but fell to 85 per cent in 1930.

The world production of motor-cars and motor-lorries decreased from 6 million vehicles in 1929 to 4 million in 1930, or, more explicitly, it dropped by 34.6 per cent. During that period, production fell off by 37.6 per cent in the United States and Canada, 10 in France, 26.8 in Germany and 20 in Italy.

In 1931, world production again fell by 25 per cent, as compared with 1930. The production of motor vehicles in the United States and Canada was reduced by a further 30 per cent. This new decrease in production, as compared with 1930, amounted to 21.3 per cent in France, 19 in Germany and 37.5 in Italy.

There was a slight falling-off in production in the United Kingdom in 1930 (1 per cent), but, in 1931, the decrease was more marked (4.3 per cent). Even so, those figures give evidence of a strong resistance on the part of this industry to the crisis.

4. According to statistics supplied by the National Automobile Chamber of Commerce, motor exports from the United States have fallen off by 44 per cent in 1931 as compared with the previous year. This decrease in exports is general, and varied in 1931 from 15 to 44 per cent, the only exception being Germany. In that country, the export figures for 1931 in respect of individual units had almost doubled, since the previous year, and the German exports, which in 1929 and 1930 represented about 6 per cent of the production of the country, rose to 14.7 per cent

¹ List of experts:

M. C. SCHIPPERT (Germany), Director of the Daimler-Benz Company, Stuttgart-Untertuerkheim;

M. P. PLASMAN (Belgium), Manager of the Minerva-Motors, Brussels;

M. Alexis DUCHON (France), Membre du Comité des Arts et Manufactures, Boulogne s/Seine;

Mr. B. H. GLADSTONE (United Kingdom), Society of Motor Manufacturers, London;

Comm. Dott. G. ACUTIS (Italy), Chairman of the National Fascist Industrial Automobile Association, Turin;

M. Tomáš HERAIN (Czechoslovakia), Secretary of the Ceskomoravska Kolben-Danek Undertakings, Prague-Karlin;

M. M. R. DE NERCY, Secretary-General of the Bureau Permanent International des Constructeurs d'Automobiles, Paris.

in 1931. The increase in value is, however, much smaller than the increase in number, owing to the notable fall in prices and the increase in the sale of small cars, which has reduced the average value of the touring cars exported by nearly 50 per cent as compared with 1930.

5. The importation of motor-cars into the European countries (the United States import only a very few high-class cars) fell off in 1930 as compared with the previous year from 3 to 70 per cent, and in 1931 from 8 to 84 per cent as compared with 1930. Only the Netherlands and Switzerland increased their imports in 1931 by 1.3 and 8.5 per cent respectively. Switzerland had, however, reduced its imports by 17.8 per cent in 1930 and Italy, the only country showing an increase of motor imports in 1930 as compared with 1929 (28 per cent), had reduced her imports in 1931 in the high proportion of 83.8 per cent.

It is worth mentioning that the imports of motor vehicles in the two chief importing and non-producing countries of Europe, Spain and Sweden, decreased in 1930 by 33.8 and 26.8 per cent respectively, and in 1931 by 60.1 and 8.3 per cent respectively, as compared with the preceding year.

6. According to American statistics, there were about 35,700,000 motor-vehicles in circulation throughout the world in 1931. The same statistics show, however, that the total world circulation has fallen by about 102,600 units. In 1930, all countries still showed an increase in motor traffic, rising from 850 units in Sweden to 178,000 in France, which latter increase was greater even than that in the United States (126,000 units). In 1931, however, in spite of the enormous increase of 194,600 units in France, nearly 50 per cent of the countries experienced a falling-off in traffic, which was most pronounced in the United States (558,800 cars), the Argentine (42,000 cars) and Canada (26,800 cars).

It is estimated everywhere that the decrease in production and sales in 1932, judging from the results obtained during the recent months, will probably reach a figure of about 40 per cent, except in the United Kingdom, where, on the contrary, the market appears to have shown a certain liveliness in the first few months of this year.

As regards the situation of the motor industry, the figures relating to the decrease in output do not in themselves give a precise idea of the prevailing depression.

It would be necessary to know what sales have actually taken place and what percentages of the annual production consequently represent unsold stocks. Unfortunately there are no figures on this point. Moreover, the cars registered show that the sale of second-hand cars is increasing considerably.

7. In general, the present situation of the automobile market may be described as follows:

In 1931, we find a new general decrease in production amounting in certain countries to as much as 37.5 per cent and a general falling-off in exports, except in Germany, of from 15 to 44 per cent, and a general falling-off in imports, varying from 8 to 84 per cent.

The traffic figures dropped in many countries in 1931 and especially in the United States and Canada.

8. The slump in the motor business is attributed to almost identical causes in the various countries: the financial effects of the economic crisis, resulting in a decrease of the purchasing power of the population and a failure to balance the national budgets.

The drop in the purchasing power of the public is reflected in the proportionate decrease in traffic, the increase in the sale of second-hand cars, and the increase in the number of low-powered cars. For instance, in 1931, the sale of two-litre cars and under increased in Germany to 65 per cent of the sales in the home market, the proportion in 1930 being only 52 per cent and in 1929 46 per cent.

The market for industrial vehicles has, however, been well maintained, which proves that at present customers buy only what is strictly necessary and give due consideration to purchase prices and the cost of upkeep.

Failure to balance budgets is making the public authorities increase the burden of taxation in the search for new sources of revenue. Additional taxation is imposed on the users of cars—for instance, the increased duty on fuel, the tax on motor-transport services, etc. Moreover, in nearly all countries, the situation is becoming more serious as a result of the campaign by the railways against the competition of motor transport.

B.

The experts are unanimously of opinion that the problems of taxation and Customs protection are of primary importance from the point of view of remedying the present situation and restoring a certain amount of prosperity to the motor industry.

1. The industry complains that, without reason and contrary to the actual facts, the motor-car is regarded as a luxury, or only of minor utility, and is exploited by the revenue departments of most countries by means of the taxation of vehicles and petrol, and high import duties. Motor vehicles should, on the contrary, be considered as valuable tools, as articles of prime necessity for production and trade and economic life in general. Reference was made to the taxation of petrol in Germany which would involve, in comparison with the world price of 4 and 5 pfennigs per litre, a cost to the consumer of 38 to 40 pfennigs, 19 per cent of which is represented by import

duties and the compulsory mixing of alcohol. In Italy, it is alleged that 60 per cent of the cost price of petrol represents taxation.

2. The motor industry further believes itself to be threatened by the railway campaign against the competition of lorries as a means of transport. The budgetary deficit of many State railways leads the State to impose very heavy taxation on lorries, in order to raise the price of this means of transport and thus to reduce competition.

The experts consider that the extent of the losses of the railways due to the competition of motor vehicles are exaggerated. Estimates based on the number of lorries in use prove, in the experts' opinion, that the possible loss is probably infinitesimal in comparison with railway receipts, and, further, that transport by lorry has led to increased traffic of a kind which does not affect the interests of the railways.

The experts, who attribute the development of transport by lorry to its great elasticity in comparison with the railways, and to the fact that the lorry carries the goods direct to their destination without transshipment, are of opinion that the interests of the railway companies and of the motor-transport undertakings should not be impossible to reconcile. In particular, they refer to the subsidiary railway lines which carry goods to the main lines. These subsidiary lines are in their view not very remunerative, when they are not actually costly, and should be replaced by motor-transport undertakings, which could be operated more rationally.

It was pointed out that the tendency in certain countries to increase the taxation on motor transport, to require lorries to be licensed, or to set up monopolies for this form of transport has already done great harm to the motor trade. Those concerned hesitate to purchase lorries on account of the uncertainty of the situation.

3. At a certain stage in the discussion, the experts thought it advisable to summarise their views in a draft resolution.¹ This led to a detailed discussion of the problem of the import duties imposed on the motor trade.

The experts unanimously recommend that Customs barriers should be lowered in countries which are not producers of motor vehicles, but they were not altogether agreed as to the reduction of import duties in countries which are themselves producers.

The reason is that the conditions of production, and consequently cost price, differ in all European producing countries, the difference between the conditions of production in Europe on the one hand and the United States and Canada on the other being particularly marked.

The experts attribute the favourable position of American and Canadian production less to the cost price of raw material and to labour conditions in these countries than to the number of vehicles manufactured by mass methods of production in the large factories. At the present time, America and Canada produce about 80 per cent of the total world production, 87 to 90 per cent of which is sold chiefly on the home market, unhampered by the Customs barriers that interfere with trade in other parts of the world. The exports overseas of these two countries were, however, in 1931, four times greater than the total exports of the six greatest motor-producing countries in Europe. These figures are a very striking proof of the preponderance of the American industry—which is closely connected with the Canadian industry—over the European industry, and the advantage this represents, from the point of view of conditions of production.

The European producers, on the contrary—even in the United Kingdom, where production enjoys the advantage of a large home market and of the Empire market—are faced with the necessity of keeping their output of vehicles within certain limits owing to the division of the European

¹ The experts convened for a preliminary consultation regarding the motor industry express the unanimous opinion that the step taken by the League of Nations is extremely opportune in the present circumstances.

Anxious to safeguard an industry which has reached a high degree of technical development, which employs skilled labour and represents a considerable amount of capital, while not ruling out the possibility of international agreements in a future which for the moment it is not possible to foresee, the experts are convinced that systematic action based on information collected and studied by a competent organisation might very usefully enlighten the Governments and public opinion as to the best ways and means of ensuring the prosperity of this industry.

The world situation of the motor industry shows that its development is hampered by all kinds of measures which without reason cause the motor vehicle to be regarded as of minor utility, and its acquisition and use as constituting luxury expenditure, whereas in reality the motor vehicle is essential for the work of mankind.

The experts draw the League's attention to the great importance of considering the automobile as a means of locomotion, the elasticity and high degree of efficiency of which make it particularly well adapted to facilitate the exchange of goods and ideas between the nations. The motor vehicle can be most valuable in making the world's resources available, both for production and conversion.

It is therefore highly desirable, in view of the undoubted value of the motor vehicle to world economy, that no fiscal or administrative obstacles should be placed in the way of the production of motor vehicles or their use for public or private purposes.

The lowering of Customs barriers on entry into countries which do not require to safeguard a population employed in the motor industry is also to be recommended. It is further important that normal trade conditions should be restored as soon as possible.

This can only result in affording countries greater facilities for acquiring and improving the means of transport necessary to their development.

The experts consider that the League of Nations could very usefully help to solve the difficulties of the motor industry by inviting the Permanent International Bureau to make a thorough technical study of the present situation and of the most suitable remedies.

market into small areas and to the small absorption capacity of their own national markets. With regard to Customs tariffs, therefore, the only system likely to lead to lasting improvement would appear to be one which, while offering greater facilities to the motor industry by lowering barriers, introduced suitable measures to neutralise the profound difference between the various groups of producers to which we have just referred. The experts realise, however, that the United States, having concluded commercial treaties with European States, enjoy the benefits of the most-favoured-nation clause and that the American industry is apparently not prepared to abandon the advantages derived therefrom. Further, the experts, who consider the motor vehicle as an important means of locomotion and as a prime necessity, cannot recommend the introduction of excessive Customs barriers which would raise the cost of this form of transport.

Apart from the problem of American competition, however, the experts were unable to express a more definite opinion as to the effects on the conditions of their industry of the total abolition of all Customs protection in the various motor-producing countries of Europe. The experts intend to make a close study of this problem before expressing an opinion, from the point of view of their national industry, as to the advisability of creating a free European market for the motor trade.

Mention was also made of the possibility—in theory, at any rate—of the motor industries of the several countries regulating the volume of their exports by a private agreement, particularly in so far as the markets of the large European motor-importing countries are concerned. These countries could also themselves take steps to regulate their imports. Obviously, however, it is in the interests of those importing countries which do not manufacture automobiles to obtain the best goods at the lowest possible prices.

The experts propose in their resolution to make a thorough study of the questions, availing themselves of the means at the disposal of and the experience gained by the Permanent International Bureau of Automobile Producers at Paris.

4. In conclusion, the experts discussed the problem of opening up and exploiting those countries in which motor traffic is as yet very little developed or non-existent. To develop the road system and to furnish rolling-stock at lower prices, at any rate for a certain period, would appear to be the most appropriate means to this end. But the difficult problem of finance and credit immediately arises. Nevertheless, the experts desire to emphasise that the countries whose motor traffic is least developed cannot expect to improve their industry and trade so long as they continue to regard the motor-car as a luxury and its acquisition and use as representing sumptuary expenditure which can legitimately be subjected to heavy taxation, thus depriving themselves of equipment essential to the development of their national economy.

5. Finally, the delegation considers that this first meeting—which clearly only represents a preliminary step to clear the ground—has been useful, although the absence of American experts is greatly to be regretted.

The experts expressed their intention of keeping the Economic Committee informed of the progress of their joint studies, beginning with the factors and views brought to light during the present session.

The Economic Committee should continue to follow the development of this problem and, if necessary, should organise subsequent meetings.

Section of Economic Relations

REVIEW

OF THE

**NEW LEGISLATION CONCERNING
ECONOMIC AGREEMENTS (CARTELS, etc.)
IN GERMANY AND HUNGARY**

Prepared for the Economic Committee

by

Dr. Siegfried TSCHIRSCHKY

League of Nations

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NOTE BY THE SECRETARIAT.

At the end of April 1930, the Economic and Financial Section published a *Review of the Legal Aspects of Industrial Agreements*, prepared for the Economic Committee by M. Henri DECUGIS (France), Mr. Robert E. OLDS (United States of America), and Dr. Siegfried TSCHERSCHKY (Germany)—document E.529(I). The experts' general review was accompanied by special reviews of the legal position regarding industrial agreements in the principal countries.

During the second half of 1930, the legal provisions in force in *Germany*, and already analysed by Dr. Tschierschky in his report on this country appended to document E.529(I), were supplemented, owing to the prevailing economic distress, by a series of new provisions marking the most recent evolution in the relations between the State and economic agreements and the forms of its intervention. The chief object of these new provisions is to supervise and influence the policy of prices being fixed by industrial organisations. They strengthen Government control and provide for a large measure of intervention in private economic organisation, and also for the establishment of new compulsory cartels under State supervision.

Later, towards the end of 1931, as the economic situation was growing steadily worse, the German Government was forced to introduce further considerable restrictions upon economic freedom. These measures are designed to bring about a general reduction in the level of prices in all the important branches of economic life.

The legal position regarding economic agreements in *Hungary* prior to the promulgation of the new Law of October 15th, 1931, was explained by Dr. Tschierschky in a separate review also appended to document E.529(I).

The new Hungarian Law is to a large extent based on the fundamental principles of the German Decree on cartels of November 2nd, 1923, and constitutes one of the most up-to-date laws on the subject of economic agreements.

Dr. Tschierschky's new reviews represent the most recent contribution by a well-informed expert to the work of the Economic Committee on the general aspects of economic agreements.

The translation of the original German text has been made by the Secretariat.

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I. THE NEW GERMAN CARTEL LEGISLATION.

A. THE EMERGENCY DECREES (NOTVERORDNUNGEN) OF 1930 AND THE DECREE REGARDING THE COMPULSORY PRICES FOR GOODS BEARING A STANDARD MARK OF 1931.

I. PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS.

1. The official supervision of cartels, and to a smaller extent also of trusts, was introduced by the Cartel Decree of November 2nd, 1923. I gave full details of this Decree in the memorandum of the Economic and Financial Section entitled *Review of the Legal Aspects of Industrial Agreements*.¹ In the meantime, the Government of the Reich, under pressure of the economic crisis, thought it necessary to issue the following further decrees on this subject :

(1) Decree of the President of the Reich of July 26th, 1930, for removing financial, economic and social distress (*Reichsgesetzblatt* 1930, I, page 328). The part in question is the fifth chapter — "Prevention of Uneconomic Price Agreements". This Decree has become generally known as the "*Kartell-Notverordnung*" (Cartel Emergency Decree).

(2) In virtue of this Decree, an "Executory Decree regarding the Cancellation and Prohibition of Compulsory Prices" was issued on August 30th, 1930 (*Deutscher Reichsanzeiger*, No. 205, of September 3rd, 1930).

(3) On the same basis, the Decree regarding compulsory prices for goods bearing a standard mark was issued on January 16th, 1931 (*Deutscher Reichsanzeiger*, No. 14, of January 17th, 1931).

(4) Lastly, a second Emergency Decree was issued by the President of the Reich on December 1st, 1930, "to safeguard trade and finance" (*Reichsgesetzblatt* 1930, I, page 517).

Only the first of these four Decrees is of *general* importance; it supplements and extends or replaces the basic Decree of 1923, which still remains in force. The three other Decrees deal with *special subjects*. The Decree mentioned under No. 3 refers solely to the price policy respecting so-called marked goods, and that only respecting a restricted part of such goods. The Decree mentioned under No. 4 differs essentially from the measures hitherto mentioned, as it recognises the cartel idea by creating new compulsory cartels.

¹ Review prepared for the Economic Committee by M. Henri Decugis, Mr. Robert E. Olds and Dr. Siegfried Tschierschky: Geneva 1930 (document E.529(1), page 50).

2. It is unnecessary to go into the *economic and political origin* of these new Decrees. The Government itself, in its memorandum on the issue of the basic Decree mentioned in No. 1—*i.e.*, the Cartel Emergency Decree—stated that it was based on the necessity for a more rapid and complete adaptation of the prices fixed by the organisations to the general reduction in prices which had been rendered necessary by the severe economic depression. The administrative measures taken by Decrees Nos. 1 to 3, therefore, in opposition to the much wider legal and political scope of the Cartel Decree of 1923, are restricted to supervising and influencing price policy. In examining the various decrees, reference will be made to their special economic basis in so far as this is necessary for their comprehension.

3. The following remarks may be made on Decrees Nos. 1 to 3 *from the point of view of public law.*

The basic Emergency Decree of July 26th, 1930 (No. 1), is based on Article 48 of the German Constitution, which, under special internal political conditions, entitles the President of the Reich to apply special measures and even to suspend certain so-called fundamental rights. Such measures are not laws issued in the ordinary course of legislation but extraordinary decrees which may be annulled at the request of the Reichstag.¹ This Emergency Decree *should not be regarded as constituting a legal reform* of the Cartel Decree of 1923, such as was demanded in particular by the Congress of German jurists held in 1928 at Salzburg,² which made concrete proposals on the subject. On the other hand, the Emergency Decree, like the two other special decrees legally based on it, must be regarded in the first place as a temporary measure, which does not affect the validity of the Cartel Decree of 1923. The latter is still in force, and the new decrees, in many cases, expressly refer to it. The authorities in question have therefore now, in many cases, the choice between measures based on this law and on the new decrees. The decrees under discussion, however, in some cases extend the administrative powers which, in some respects, considerably exceed the supervision provided for by the Cartel Decree of 1923. Reference will be made to this subject later.

The Emergency Decree of July 26th, 1930, also differs legally very considerably from the Cartel Decree of 1923, in that it grants *exclusively to the Government of the Reich* the possibility of delegating powers to the *Governments of the States*; it does so without providing for any legal guarantee such as the re-examination of decisions by a Court, while the Cartel Decree of 1923 for the most part merely entitled the administration to make applications and transferred all material decisions to an independent administrative court—*i.e.*, the Cartel Court. On the other hand, the extent of the Government's powers has been considerably restricted, as compared with the Cartel Decree of 1923, by the fact that these Decrees only refer to the *prevention of uneconomic price agreements* and to individual measures such as the "informal embargo" (*formlose Sperre*) for the purpose of imposing such price agreements, to which mention is made below.

Decree No. 4, which does not come into this category, is discussed in a special chapter.

I may mention that the following comments on each Decree are confined to the necessary explanations on legal and economic points; only in important cases of principle are conflicting opinions mentioned regarding the interpretation of certain provisions, while I have entirely refrained from giving my own personal opinions.

¹ In dealing with this Emergency Decree, the Reichstag, however, did not utilise this right.
² See page 66 of the above-mentioned report of the Economic and Financial Section.

II. DECREE FOR THE PREVENTION OF UNECONOMIC PRICE AGREEMENTS OF JULY 26th, 1930
(CARTEL EMERGENCY DECREE). (For text, see *Annex A.*)

I. *The Legal and Economic Position.*

The Decree covers in its basic Section 1, not only the price and sale policy of *cartels* within the meaning of the by no means unimpeachable definition contained in Section 1 of the Cartel Decree, but also of *capitalist organisations* and even of individual undertakings (in particular Section 1, paragraph 1(b) and paragraph 2). In addition, the categories of organisations covered have been considerably extended by Section 1, paragraph 1(c). This paragraph covers agreements and decisions the *result* of which, consciously or unconsciously aimed at, is to regulate prices or business terms in an objectionable manner (acts of evasion). In addition, verbal agreements are expressly referred to, and even mere recommendations—somewhat after the manner of the famous understandings at the “Gary dinners”—which are intended, by the method of their execution and by the application of economic or social pressure on reluctant parties, to impose price regulations or particular terms of business. In particular, organisations similar to the well-known American “open price” unions would be affected. In accordance with the Cartel Decree (Section 1), on the other hand, all such agreements are legally null and void unless they are in writing. This formal provision, which also extends to decisions, aims at making the cartels and the individual measures of their policy amenable to official control. The Emergency Cartel Decree, on the other hand, refers in Section 1, paragraph 1(c), merely to a perceptible *economic result* without regard to the economic or legal method employed. For instance, cartels and similar organisations which do not themselves pursue a price policy, such as the cartels which merely make calculations or fix quotas, therefore also come under the Emergency Decree if they exercise an undesirable effect on prices. The Decree also covers the *verbal threat* of disadvantages to be imposed on a reluctant customer—*i.e.*, an “informal” embargo (against which the Cartel Decree was powerless on account of the absence of a written agreement)—if it “restricts freedom of action in a manner not justified by national economy” (individual subjective effect), or “affects the economy of production or trading in goods or services” (general objective effect). Unlike Reinhold Wolff,¹ I should not regard the decision of an employers’ association to bring about a cost agreement, and thereby also a price agreement, among the members by means of a general regulation of wages as coming under this Cartel Emergency Decree, since wage questions in the widest sense are not covered by this Decree.

There is no doubt that the wider legal scope of the Emergency Cartel Decree gives it a very extensive influence over the practical price policy of the organisations; its practical importance should, however, not be over-estimated, especially in view of the absence of an *obligation to contract*, which would necessarily be its corollary. The provision in Section 1, paragraph 2, regarding the *right of withdrawal* from agreements involving such disadvantages cannot help the customer—*i.e.*, a purchaser of goods or services—if, for instance, he may thereby be cut off from his natural sources of supply.

Section 1, paragraph 1(b), on the other hand, extends the powers of official supervision in a decisive manner. It covers the various kinds of price regulations and terms of business, including the provisions of individual purchase contracts, or, in particular,

¹ *Die Kartell-Notverordnung mit Ausführungsverordnung*; Berlin 1930, page 41.

express provisions of the so-called counter-bond agreement which imposes on one party, usually the purchaser, a definite *price policy for re-sale*. This includes both cartel obligations and individual obligations, the former usually taking the form of reciprocal agreements with purchasing cartels. The most important of the latter kind are the so-called "*price stipulations for re-sale*", by which definite retail prices are imposed by the manufacturers of marked goods on retail trade, a selling system which in many countries has obtained an importance that is growing with the increase in the production of such goods. In the United States and certain other countries, this system is forbidden as being contrary to freedom of trade, and as leading generally, at any rate over long periods, to an increase in the average prices of goods intended for mass consumption, or, at least, for important cultural needs. This subject is specially regulated by the decree regarding compulsory prices for goods bearing a standard mark referred to below in IV.

In legal publications, it is an open question whether such regulations regarding the maintenance of fixed retail prices imposed by a manufacturer regularly and uniformly on all his customers—it is precisely on this uniformity, without any exception, that the Reich court insists in its judgments in actions brought for undercutting these fixed prices—are governed by the Cartel Decree of 1923 with all the consequences resulting therefrom—that is to say, the application of Section 1 (the necessity for a valid contract to be in writing), Section 8 (withdrawal without notice for important reasons), Section 9 (preventive censorship in the exercise of compulsion by the organisation), and Section 4 (invalidity of and withdrawal from such agreements).

The prevailing opinion is opposed to this interpretation on the grounds that these agreements do not organically link together the purchasers into a combine as would be required for cartel agreements under German civil law; they are merely individual agreements, though of identical contents, with the various purchasers. The latter are placed by these agreements in the same relationship to the common supplier, but are *not bound to each other*. As in the case of cartels, the system is, in fact, one consisting of measures influencing the market—namely, price regulation—since the supplier automatically assumes the obligation of according the same treatment in respect of prices to his customers, who, however, remain entirely independent of each other and have no common organisation enabling them to exercise any influence on the kind of agreement imposed on them.

According to the opposite opinion, the mere fact of the individual counter-bond agreement concluded between the manufacturer and the consumer constitutes a cartel agreement within the meaning of Section 1 of the Cartel Decree, since this is equivalent to an agreement on "price fixing" and "prices to be demanded", and both contracting parties thereby aim at a common object. According to this view also, the necessary uniformity of these counter-bond agreements (referred to above) also partakes of the character of a cartel while, inversely, the same conclusion is supported by the fact that the individual customer, not only may, but, for reasons of competition, must bind himself, since all his competitors are at the same time subject to the same agreement; this constitutes the importance of "uninterruptedness" (*Lückenlosigkeit*) from the legal point of view of competition and, at the same time, the necessary combination which the character of a cartel requires.

The question has now been practically decided in the sense of the former view, or rather has lost its importance, since according to Section 1, paragraph 3, of the Emergency Decree such agreements are expressly regarded as agreements within the meaning of Section 1 of the Cartel Decree of 1923. Paragraph 3 includes all such price agreements, provided several of them are concluded and they thereby exercise an effect on the fixing of prices. The legal difference between this provision and that of Section 1, paragraph 1(b) which, as stated above, deals with price agreements that are, in practice,

of the same kind, is that the latter provision may prevent *new agreements* of this kind from being concluded, while, according to paragraph 3, in conjunction with Section 1, paragraph 1(a), *already existing agreements* of this kind may be declared void or it may be prohibited to put them into effect in a certain manner.

This, however, raises the further question whether this provision only applies to this Emergency Decree of July 26th, 1930, and consequently, in view of the fact that this Decree comes under public law, is to be regarded merely as a special regulation which is subject to cancellation—that is to say, as an *exceptional extension* of the organised price agreements which are subject to official supervision—or whether it is intended to introduce a *fundamental—i.e., permanent—extension* of the agreements covered by Section 1 of the Cartel Decree of 1923 and to give a more extensive authentic interpretation to that Decree. The importance of this question, in principle, is evident from the above legal consequences. The above-mentioned protective provisions of the Cartel Decree would also be applied to such agreements. It is, however, impossible to go into this question here.

It can, however, be concluded that the Emergency Decree considerably widens the circle of the price and trading agreements subject to official supervision. Section 10 of the Cartel Decree, which, *inter alia*, subjects to supervision the terms of business of *individual undertakings possessing a powerful economic position* would, in itself, also be applicable to such restrictions of individual liberty in the matter of prices, only, however, if it is proved that they endanger the economic system as a whole or the well-being of the community. The provision in question is, however, based on more simple conditions, since, like the whole of Section 1 of the Emergency Decree, which forms the material basis, it does not require that the entire economic system should be endangered but merely that the above-mentioned injury should be done to production and trade or that only individual economic freedom of action should be restricted in a manner not justified by national economy. Thereby it considerably extends the possibilities of intervention on the part of the administration.

2. Powers of the Administration.

(a) Preliminary Conditions.

The Emergency Decree is intended to combat only *abuses* committed by cartels, capitalist organisations (“*Konzerne*”, trusts) and certain other private organisations by means of price regulation and terms of business; its effects are, however, exercised within considerably narrower limits than those of the Cartel Decree of 1923, as it is confined to *price-fixing methods and prices to be demanded* by which “*the economy of production or the trading in goods or services is affected or economic freedom of action (i.e., of each economic unit) is restricted in a manner unjustified by national economy*”. This latter condition, which presupposes subjective damage, differs from Section 8 of the Cartel Decree of 1923, which provides for withdrawal without notice, and Section 9 of the same Decree, which grants protection against compulsion on the part of an organisation (embargo), in not being fulfilled by the existence of purely *subjective individual damage*; it goes further and requires that the damage must be unjustified by national economy. This must be interpreted to mean that it does not refer merely to *individual cases*, but that the damage caused in individual cases by a *private economic system* must be objectionable from a general economic point of view.

The *first* provision—*i.e.*, “if the economy of production or the trading in goods and services is affected”—is narrower than the conditions mentioned in the Cartel Decree of 1923, which refers to danger to the “economic system as a whole or the well-being of

the community"; it therefore allows of a wider application, unless it is found desirable or necessary to interpret it in conjunction with the wording of Section 1, paragraph 1, last sentence, to mean that, in this case also, action shall only be taken if production and trade are "restricted in a manner unjustified by national economy". In this case, the economic condition required would correspond to the idea of a danger to "the economic system as a whole". On this point also, opinions are divided. As, however, in economic questions of this kind, isolated cases of purely individual disadvantages are not, in principle, to be considered as sufficient grounds for administrative intervention, the second more general interpretation is no doubt closer to the object of this Decree, and would also reduce its field of application.

The competent authorities have absolute power to decide whether the conditions demand intervention in definite cases. In pending civil cases, as in the case of the exercise of the right of withdrawal under Section 1, paragraph 2, the ordinary courts can, however, investigate whether the steps taken are within the competence of the authorities.

From this point of view importance should be attached to Section 3 of the Emergency Decree, under which the authorities, before ordering any measure, should hear the economic circles concerned and request the "provisional Economic Council of the Reich to give an opinion". This is only an instruction and not a stipulation. It is in accordance with the object of Article 11 of the Decree¹ of May 4th, 1920, regarding the "provisional" Economic Council of the Reich, under which this economic parliament received extensive powers of advisory co-operation in the shaping of economic and social policy. The Government, which, when applying the Emergency Decree, has up to the present regularly consulted this body, thereby obtains not only expert advice but most valuable support as against public opinion. Moreover, the Civil Courts and the President of the Cartel Court (the latter when investigating whether the conditions for imposing a penalty under Section 5 of the Emergency Decree obtain) cannot ignore the fact that a Government measure is approved by the Economic Council of the Reich. They are, however, not bound by this fact, since the Government of the Reich can decide freely, in spite of such an opinion; it can come to a contrary decision and bear the entire responsibility.

No provision is made as to the form and method of consulting the economic circles concerned. As a rule, the parties directly concerned—i.e., the cartel and its most important customers—will be heard. As, however, all industrial and commercial circles principally concerned have an economic organisation and possess influence in the Economic Council of the Reich through qualified representatives, the Government will usually have no difficulty in arranging for the consultation which it is entitled to institute. With the exception of Section 14, which enables the Minister of National Economy of the Reich, in the first place, to bring a case before the *Cartel Conciliation Offices* that have been established by the central organisations of the main economic groups (industry, wholesale and retail trade and co-operative societies) and are engaged mainly in settling disputes, the Cartel Decree does not provide for such consultations, but close relations between the authority in question and the cartels have, nevertheless, been established, with good practical results.

The publication in the *Reichsanzeiger* establishes the date of measures taken in accordance with the Emergency Decree and puts them into effect in the sense of Section 3, paragraph 2.

¹ This Decree had become necessary, as this body could not be constituted in the manner laid down in Article 165 of the Constitution of the Reich on account of the lack of professional basis.

(b) *The Authorities entitled to intervene.*

1. In principle, the Government of the Reich is entrusted with the execution of the Emergency Decree by Section 1, paragraph 1, and Section 4. According to the usual practice, this authorisation involves the delegation of rights to the competent Ministers—in the present case, which refers exclusively to intervention in commercial freedom, to the Minister of National Economy and the Minister of Food and Agriculture of the Reich. Only in case of a dispute regarding competence or a failure to reach a decision thereon in a matter falling within the competence of both Ministers would a decision be taken by the entire Cabinet under Article 57 of the Constitution of the Reich.

2. Section 15 of the Cartel Decree of 1923 gave the *Governments of the States* an influence over the exercise of supervision in view of the fact that a number of the organisations in question—although in practice only a restricted number—are exclusively or mainly of local importance, so that the competent States' Governments are entitled, in the first place, to give a judgment. Allowance is also made by the Emergency Decree, Section 4, for that independence of the authorities of the several States, which is politically justified in a *Bundesstaat* and which is, moreover, expressly provided for in Articles 14 and 15 of the Constitution of the Reich.

If the influencing of the market is locally restricted, the application of the Emergency Decree is entrusted to the States' Governments acting in agreement, however, with the Government of the Reich.¹ The necessity for a uniform administrative policy is self-evident, especially in respect of such a difficult economic problem which requires uniform execution throughout the territory of the Reich. According to the text of Section 4, paragraph 1, the Government of the State can *claim* such a delegation of powers and can entrust a department with this task with the consent of the Government of the Reich.

The Emergency Decree includes the further case of interests being involved which extend to several German States. In this case, the Government of the Reich may, in agreement with the States' Governments concerned, decide on the authority to be entrusted with the execution of the Decree. In this case, however, unlike that mentioned above, the Government of the Reich is *not obliged* to delegate its powers, even if the States concerned have agreed among themselves. The object of this provision is to maintain uniformity of execution for a particular part of the territory of the Reich independent of its political structure.

Under Article 15, paragraph 2, of the Constitution of the Reich, the Government of the Reich is further entitled in special cases to send representatives to the delegated authorities of the States. In view of the right of supervision conferred by the same article it can, however, greatly influence the methods of execution.

(c) *Methods of Intervention by the Administration.*

The provisions in question are contained in Sections 1 and 2 of the Emergency Decree, which refer to two fundamentally different kinds of intervention.

While the provisions of Section 1 regarding nullity, withdrawal and prohibition *directly* prevent the application of private economic market policy of the kinds mentioned in that Section, the reduction or cancellation of import duties provided for in Section 2 exercise merely an *indirect* effect by facilitating foreign competition.

¹ Up to the present, Prussia and Württemberg have each availed themselves of this right on one occasion by prohibiting price agreements.

1. *Nullity of Cartel Agreements and Decisions.*—According to Section 1, paragraphs 1(a) and 3, agreements existing under the conditions therein mentioned and decisions which have already been put into execution may be rendered ineffective by being declared null and void. This provision is moulded on Section 4 of the Cartel Decree, with the essential difference, however, that the Emergency Decree gives the Government of the Reich a direct autonomous right to issue such orders, while, under the previous Decree, it was merely entitled to *apply* to the Cartel Court, which had to decide regarding nullity. In such cases, the Government of the Reich has now two possibilities of taking action.

In accordance with Section 3, paragraph 2, of the Emergency Decree, the declaration of nullity comes into *effect* on the date of publication in the *Reichsanzeiger*.

In principle, agreements and decisions are declared null and void only in so far as this is necessary in order to prevent production or trade from becoming uneconomic or freedom of trade from becoming restricted in the sense of the last phrase of Section 1, paragraph 1. Consequently, *agreements* may be declared to be *partly* void. *Decisions* will, as a rule, be declared entirely void, since they contain a concrete measure of market policy. The declaration of nullity can only produce effect *ex nunc*, as otherwise an impossible economic position would arise, and the ordinary courts must decide on the *consequences* of this measure in respect of any part of the agreement which is not invalidated and also on any other consequences under civil law. For this purpose, as already mentioned, the courts are entitled to re-examine the legality of the administrative measure.

In accordance with Section 1, paragraphs 1(a) and 3, the declaration of nullity can only refer to a *concrete* method of fixing or demanding prices. The firms concerned must therefore remain free at any time to put into effect fresh agreements or decisions which do not contain the objectionable measures. Section 1, paragraph 1(c), provides protection against attempts at evasion.

2. In accordance with Section 1, paragraph 1(a), the declaration of nullity may be replaced by the *prohibition of a certain method of executing agreements and decisions*. Such prohibition also takes effect from the date of publication in the *Reichsanzeiger*.

This milder form of intervention must always be applied by the administration in view of its general powers, not in order to *combat a defective price-fixing system in principle*, but only certain specific effects. This method was already provided for in Section 4 of the Cartel Decree of 1923. In practice, it will lead to negotiations with the interested parties, as in the case of the "Trade practice conferences of the Federal Trade Commission" in Washington.

In accordance with Section 1, paragraph 1(b), prohibition may also refer to *terms of business* and *methods of fixing prices* which *de jure* or *de facto* (economically) bind re-salers or other third parties in the above-mentioned manner. It is consequently possible to prohibit, not only agreements containing such restrictions (legal restriction), but also *unilateral measures* which have the same economic effect. It is, however, obvious from the intention of the Emergency Decree that such a measure may not be applied in the case of merely *individual* transactions, but that there must be an intention to influence the market *systematically*—that is to say, to extend, in principle, the conditions or methods of price-fixing to a considerable number of transactions of the kind in question. On the other hand, not only cartels, but also individual undertakings such as *Konzerne* and trusts are thereby included. This measure has consequently not only a different but also an essentially more specialised sphere of action than Section 10 of the Cartel Decree. *Third parties* bound by agreements under civil law may obtain protection under Section 1, paragraph 2, in virtue of the provision that they are entitled to withdraw from such agreements, naturally provided the latter have not already been carried out.

Lastly, *prohibition* may also apply to the acts of evasion mentioned in Section 1, paragraph 1(c). Their importance has been explained above. It is, however, difficult in practice to define the nature and extent of the "acts" coming under this provision, especially as it will frequently be impossible to establish the necessary causal connection in this particular field. The difficulty of establishing economic facts with sufficient accuracy, together with the natural desire of private business to avoid burdensome restrictions, is, however, sufficient justification for such supplementary provisions.

3. A third method of official intervention is provided for in the Emergency Decree, Section 1, paragraph 2, by the above-mentioned provision regarding *withdrawal* from agreements concluded under the conditions objected to in paragraph 1. The agreements in question are such as are concluded by members of the organisations mentioned in Section 1, paragraph 1, or by these organisations themselves with *third parties*—i.e., their customers—as referred to above under 2. This does not include agreements by which the parties are formed into an organisation, or agreements in accordance with Section 1, paragraph 3. These can only be combated in accordance with paragraph 1(a). The right of withdrawal cannot be waived, and can therefore not be precluded by private agreement. It can, however, only be exercised within a time-limit announced for each case in the publication of the order under Section 3, paragraph 2. At the end of this period, the right lapses. The right of withdrawal does not necessarily refer to the entire agreement; but, in accordance with the restriction contained in the Cartel Decree, Section 10, paragraph 1, sentence 2, may extend only to the withdrawal from the objectionable terms of business or method of price-fixing. Consequently, it is, for instance, not permitted to withdraw from a successive delivery contract as a whole, but only from objectionable accessory conditions such as the obligation to maintain certain re-sale prices (Section 1, paragraph 1(b)). This restriction is of particular importance as, contrary to the provisions of Section 10 of the Cartel Decree of 1923, in this case *both* parties have the right of withdrawal, while Section 10 only granted this right to the *injured* parties.

Parts of agreements which have already been carried out are in any case unaffected. As in the case of the Cartel Decree, Section 10, disputes regarding the admissibility and extent of the right of withdrawal must be decided by the ordinary courts, which must apply Sections 346 to 356 of the German Civil Code.

4. *Customs Measures*.—The power of reducing or cancelling import duties in accordance with the Emergency Decree, Section 2, gives the Government of the Reich a means of defence which has for many years been recommended by technical publications on the subject and by political practice as a method of combating the excessive growth of monopolistic market policy.

The power thus conferred on the Government of the Reich is merely an application of the right of taking such Customs measures in case of urgent economic necessity, which was provided for by the Law on Customs Modifications of August 17th, 1925; in that case, however, the right was only granted subject to the consent of the Reichsrat (which represents the several States in legislation and administration), and of a Reichstag Commission. So far, such measures are provided for only in very few countries. This measure again gives the Government of the Reich autonomous power in pursuance of the principle on which the Emergency Decree is based, and corresponds essentially with the Combines Investigation Law of 1923 in Canada and similar measures in Australia.

This measure provides the Government of the Reich with a second instrument for attaining the objects pursued by the Emergency Decree. Contrary to the forms of intervention provided for in Section 1 of that Decree, it may be concluded from the nature of this measure that both measures can hardly be applied *at the same time*. The Government has rather a choice of methods, and the one provided for in Section 2 can, as a rule,

only be applied in quite exceptional cases, as it necessarily has a much wider general effect. This conclusion is based on the following reasons :

The question whether this right only applies to autonomous duties or also to duties fixed by commercial agreements with third States is left open. Any unconditional most-favoured-nation clauses in the treaties must in any case be observed and all participating States are entitled to benefit by the reductions in Customs duties in such cases. This clause as a rule reads as follows :

“The Contracting Parties guarantee each other most-favoured-nation rights and treatment for imports. . . . Each of the Contracting Parties consequently undertakes to grant to the other Party without compensating return and immediately all privileges and favours which it has granted or may hereafter grant to a third State, especially in respect of the amount of, the security for, and the levying of Customs duties. . . .”

As conventional Customs tariffs and most-favoured-nation treatment are usually intended merely to protect the parties against increases in duties or unfavourable Customs differentiations, it is unlikely that the application of this measure will give rise to any international difficulties.

The cancellation of the measure—that is to say, the reintroduction of the previous Customs duties, which is at any time possible—*must* take place at the request of the Reichstag, and will re-establish the original international *status quo*.

It is not clear from the text and meaning of Section 2 itself whether this measure also involves the admission or extension of temporary import free of duty (*Zollfreier Veredelungsverkehr*). As this measure is a minor one and its effect—only, however, in really appropriate cases—can be more accurately estimated than the general reduction or annulment of duties, the application of this Customs measure may be regarded as covered by Section 2. The application of this measure has always been strongly recommended in publications on the subject as a suitable means of combating especially any unhealthy price policy adopted by semi-manufactured goods industries which is likely to hamper exports.

(d) *Penal Measures.*

The *penalty* provided for by Section 5 of the Emergency Decree for infringement of measures issued in virtue of this Decree is a fine of an unlimited amount. In this respect it is similar to the penalty provided for by Section 17 of the Cartel Decree of 1923. It can only be imposed on the application of the competent supreme authority of the Reich or of the State. The application is to be addressed to the President of the Cartel Court; the latter, or his representative, is responsible for the imposition of the penalty. In character it is a compulsory measure intended to enforce compliance with the decrees of the State and also to punish open resistance. It is therefore imposed by a jurisdiction which, as already mentioned, thereby obtains a certain right of re-examination. The penalty is imposed on any party infringing the law. It may therefore be imposed on physical persons, individual firms and cartels *qua* corporations; in the last-mentioned case, however, as a rule it is only imposed on the responsible organs, with regard to which the statutes, in conjunction with the provisions of civil law and the companies' law, must be consulted in each individual case.

III. EXECUTORY DECREE REGARDING THE CANCELLATION AND PROHIBITION
OF COMPULSORY PRICES, ISSUED ON AUGUST 30TH, 1930.

(For text, see *Annex B.*)

Preliminary Observation.

This Decree, in accordance with the preamble, is based on Section 1 of the Emergency Decree. It is the first special decree for putting the Emergency Decree into effect (a second one being the Price of Marked Goods Decree dealt with in the following chapter);

it refers to a very definite kind of cartel policy, which may perhaps be best described as an extension of the cartel agreement to outside goods or services—*i.e.*, such as are not supplied by the cartel members themselves. It consequently deals with an extension of the cartel power to outside goods or outside services by binding a further economic category—namely, the purchaser. It may also cover counterbond agreements (*Reversverträge*) made by individual suppliers with their customers, and also mere business terms, always provided that they are intended to exercise compulsion in respect of prices on resale; lastly, as in the case of the Emergency Decree, it covers all acts of evasion.

These extensions are intended to give the organisations an increased protection against the evasion of fixed prices for cartel goods or services. This may be explained by the following concrete examples :

(a) On the occasion of the publication of the Emergency Decree, it was stated in the Press that the linoleum industry organisation, not only prescribed the prices at which its dealers should resell linoleum, but also fixed the prices for brass rods, cardboard and mouldings, which, though generally used with the linoleum, are obtained from quite different suppliers.

(b) A cartel or a monopolistic individual undertaking (" *Konzern* "), producing only semi-manufactured goods, obliges its customers who work them up into manufactured goods to maintain fixed minimum prices for such goods, possibly in order to increase the paying capacity of its customers or to secure a special reputation for the quality of the semi-manufactured goods as against competing goods.

(c) A cartel for manufactured goods for household use has members who instal these goods themselves, and other members who deliver the goods to a competent workman for installation for his own account. In order to protect the cartel prices, the work of installation—*i.e.*, an outside service—is subjected to a fixed price, since otherwise the firms installing the articles themselves would be enabled by undercutting the prices of these services to compete indirectly in price.

On the other hand, if the purchasers of marked goods are bound to maintain fixed prices for the suppliers' *own* goods, such an obligation does not come under this Decree.

Ad Section 1.—These *vertical* obligations must be *legal obligations regarding the fixing of prices—i.e.*, either agreements or terms of business. They must be imposed on the purchaser—*i.e.*, the wholesale or retail trader, or the firm working up the goods for sale to third parties, in fact on all firms representing a further stage in the economic process and reselling the goods.

Agreements binding the parties in such a manner are void (Section 1, paragraph 1), and such terms of business are prohibited (Section 1, paragraph 2). The Decree therefore constitutes a *general prohibition* of such legal and economic restrictions. In this case also, the nullity may be only partial. The terms of business are particularly emphasised, although they must be regarded as already covered by Section 1, paragraph 1, since they form a part of each purchase contract.

Ad Section 2.—This is a general protective clause against all attempts to evade the object of Section 1 and is similar to Section 1, paragraph 1(c), of the Emergency Decree.

Ad Section 3.—As such agreements are in any case null and void, in accordance with Section 1, the right of withdrawal granted by Section 1, paragraph 2, of the Emergency Decree can only refer to agreements between the re-salers and *their* customers. Notice of withdrawal must be given within one month. Disputes arising out of the exercise of this right are decided by the ordinary courts.

Ad Section 4.—As this is a concrete executory provision, it may be cancelled independently of the Emergency Decree.

IV. DECREE REGARDING THE COMPULSORY PRICES FOR GOODS BEARING A STANDARD MARK, DATED JANUARY 16TH, 1931, AND THE NOTICE ATTACHED THERETO OF THE SAME DATE. (For text, see *Annex C.*)

Preliminary Observations.

This Decree is also based on Section 1 of the Emergency Decree.

In accordance with the view which has recently become generally accepted, the definition contained in Section 1 of the kinds of goods covered by this Decree does *not* regard *uniformity of the re-sale price* as their *essential* characteristic. In fact, there are many marked goods in Germany which are not subject to price regulation by the manufacturers. Hitherto, legislation in Germany and in almost all European countries has extensively protected this price system, especially with a view to combating unfair competition. On the other hand, this system is, in principle, prohibited in the United States and in countries which have adopted English law (except Great Britain herself), such as Canada and New Zealand, in which the fundamental idea of preventing any restriction of trade is still strictly interpreted.

The Government of the Reich, in issuing this Decree and notice, has followed the advice obtained from the Economic Council of the Reich under Section 3, paragraph 1, of the Emergency Decree. The majority of this body, in accordance with its opinion of August 15th, 1930,¹ demanded the cancellation of such fixed prices for foodstuffs and luxuries. In its final conclusions of November 15th, 1930,² this body requests the Government to endeavour to reduce the prices of marked goods, especially foodstuffs and other articles of daily consumption (Lebens- und Genussmittel). It recommended, in the first place, that negotiations should be conducted with the manufacturers and traders. If this method failed, a general cancellation of the price agreements for those marked goods was proposed. The Emergency Decree adopted these principles in its essentials.

Its validity is questioned on the ground that it does not define its object sufficiently accurately; it would, however, appear to be valid, as all its material provisions contain a clear definition of the economic facts in question. It is, in addition, made much more accurate than, for instance, the Executory Decree of August 30th, 1930, by the categories of goods mentioned in the notice attached to the Decree. Moreover, such intervention in business matters by means of decrees and enactments can only refer to *categories* of goods, as any exact enumeration is impracticable on account of the instability of economic conditions.

Ad *Section 1*.—Section 1 first of all gives a general definition of marked goods as they appear in daily commerce. But of the totality of these, only a part is covered by the Decree—namely :

1. Foodstuffs;
2. Goods to which the Marked Goods Decree shall apply after official notice to this effect has been published.

The *carte blanche* granted in the latter provision is based on the conditions for the application of the Marked Goods Decree contained in Section 2.

Twelve types of goods were specified in the notice which was published at the same time. No further notices have been issued since.

Ad *Section 2*.—Price-fixing of marked goods implies agreements within the meaning of Section 1, paragraph 1(a) and paragraph 3 of the Emergency Decree. They are *declared*

¹ Printed in *Kartell-Rundschau* 1930, page 605 *et seq.*

² Printed in *Kartell-Rundschau* 1930, page 739 *et seq.*

null and void unless the prices they fix are reduced as prescribed, or if these agreements contain clauses prohibiting the re-saler from continuing to grant, in addition to the reduction in prices, discounts (rebates, etc.) hitherto in force. At the suggestion of the Reich Economic Council, July 30th, 1930, was fixed as the index date for basic prices which have to be reduced. Seeing that the Marked Goods Decree—also the notice to be published from time to time in virtue of this Decree of other goods affected—was to come into force, in accordance with Section 6, paragraph 1, fourteen days after publication, the index date for price reductions of the goods included in the Decree at its publication (January 16th, 1931) was January 31st, 1931.

The obligations to be nullified must be obligations imposed on the buyer, but only where they impose fixed prices for *resale to customers in the home market*. From this it is to be inferred that the following categories of buyers are affected :

(a) First and foremost the retail trader;

(b) The wholesaler who sells to firms who either submit these goods to further manufacture or else consume them (*e.g.*, marked soaps or chemical cleaning preparations for laundry businesses), as opposed to the wholesaler who supplies the retail trader; for this retail trader cannot be regarded as a consumer within the meaning of Section 2 of the Marked Goods Decree.

This Decree naturally applies also to agreements whereby the wholesaler, without any compulsion by the manufacturer, and therefore quite independently, fixes prices for further distribution.

It does not matter what the business agreement is on the basis of which the buyer, who is bound, acquires goods; all that is required is an *independent* right to dispose of them. Thus the commission agent, in the sense of Section 383 of the Commercial Code, is also to be regarded as a "buyer" within the meaning of the Marked Goods Decree.

The methods of price-fixing covered by Section 2, paragraphs 1 and 2, can be inferred from the purpose of the Marked Goods Decree. The requirement of a reduction of these prices by at least 10 per cent as compared with consumer prices ruling on July 1st, 1930, makes it clear that it can only refer to certain retail selling prices. That also agrees with the customary marked price system, in particular with the system of indicating the price on the wrapper.

An obligation to maintain specified *minimum* prices will, as a rule, come under the Marked Goods Decree, though admittedly this obligation does not impose fixed prices but only a price limit, but by fixing the minimum limit it practically amounts to definite price fixing. In individual cases, the fixing of *maximum* prices may also be regarded as an offence under Section 4 of the Marked Goods Decree.

In paragraph 2 of Section 2, "terms of business" and "methods of price fixing" are defined as in the other decrees already dealt with. Their application is forbidden under the same conditions as are laid down for agreements in paragraph 1.

Differences of only fractions of a Reichspfennig (one-hundredth of a Reichsmark) from the statutory price reduction as between the two index dates specified are to be left out of account.

Since both declarations of nullity and prohibitions in these cases affect civil rights exclusively, disputes arising therefrom are decided by the ordinary courts.

Ad Section 3.—Section 3 deals with special disputes such as those which have frequently arisen between *buying and selling co-operatives*, particularly consumers' co-operatives, on the one hand, and manufacturers of marked articles on the other hand, on account of breaches of price maintenance agreements through the practice of co-operatives of granting bonuses (dividends)—usually yearly—on their members' annual purchases.

Manufacturers were induced to take up this hostile attitude to bonuses principally by retail traders, for whom these indirect reductions, by the consumers' associations' stores for example, of retail prices of marked goods, which in their case were strictly fixed, meant a much resented form of competition.

Paragraph 3 outlines the class of co-operatives which come under consideration in this connection. The definition follows closely that given in Section 1 of the Law on Co-operatives of 1889 (Gesetz über Erwerbs- und Wirtschaftsgenossenschaften).

Section 3 sets aside, by *declaring them null and void* or by *prohibiting* them, agreements or conditions of business as far as they preclude the granting of such bonuses or rebates.

"Bonuses on purchase price" in Section 3, paragraphs 1 and 2, refers to *cash* bonuses. These may be given with each individual purchase or as a yearly bonus. Clearly, however, bonuses in goods should not be excluded, though these could only rarely be given on marked articles which are mostly sold in unit packings.

These "*rebates*" differ from those mentioned in Section 2, paragraphs 1 and 2, in that these latter refer to *any kind* of price bonus (therefore, also to gifts having a definitely fixed value) which used to be expressly allowed by the price maintenance system as, for example, the granting of discounts up to 5 per cent on marked articles on a particular list, and especially also the system which is widespread in Germany of giving *rebate thrift stamps*, which, after a specified sum has been accumulated (for example, RM. 10), can be converted into cash or goods. The rebates referred to in Section 3, on the other hand, deal with the types of co-operative bonuses to members, which are generally very similar in practical effect.

In any case, price quotations in the retail trade for marked articles are seriously affected by this competition with co-operatives, so that their preference for fixed prices for the marked goods mentioned in Section 1 should be somewhat shaken.

Ad Section 4.—The *evasion clause* has already been referred to. It is worth mentioning, as an example, that it would constitute an evasion, within the meaning of this paragraph and of Section 1, paragraph 1(c), of the Emergency Decree, if the retailers in a particular locality, in order to maintain the price-fixing clauses which had been forbidden, undertook by special agreement to continue to maintain them for specified marked goods.

Ad Section 5.—This paragraph provides for the admission of exceptions in special cases after consultation of the Reich Economic Council. These conditions must be taken as applying to unforeseen serious private handicaps resulting to the producer from the reduction of prices, as, for instance, sudden sharp increases in production costs and similar *objective* reasons outside his control, and not to subjective reasons such as errors in profit estimates, for which he alone is responsible. But even in the former case applications will only be considered when they do not conflict with the interests or wellbeing of the community.

The penal provisions of Section 5 of the Emergency Decree apply to infringements of the Marked Goods Decree, since this is issued on the basis and in application of the Emergency Decree.

V. COMPULSORY CARTELS OF THE SUGAR, POTATO-STARCH AND DAIRY INDUSTRIES.

Whereas the decrees hitherto dealt with have involved serious intervention in private business organisation by a tightening of public control, the further extension of the compulsory formation of cartels is provided for within the framework of the more comprehensive Emergency Decree for the Safeguarding of Industry and Finance of December 1st, 1930 (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1930, Part I, page 517 *et seq.*), in Chapter V: "Prescriptions for th

Improvement of Market Conditions for German Agricultural Products", Section 2, Articles 7 and 8.

Preliminary Observations.

Cartels formed under State compulsion have existed since 1919 as a result of the Coal Industry Law of March 23rd, 1919, and the Potash Industry Law of April 24th, 1919, whereby these two industries were amalgamated throughout the entire Reich in compulsory cartels; for the various hard and brown coal districts in the form of selling syndicates organised as private companies and, in the case of the potash industry, as one uniform syndicate. The element of compulsion lay in the provision that the competent Reich Minister of Economy *should*,¹ by decree, force recalcitrant firms to become members, as regularly happened in the coal industry in the case of minorities.

Furthermore, by the Match Monopoly Law of January 29th, 1930 (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1930, Part I, page 11), a compulsory cartel for the match industry was established in the form of a Government monopoly. It involves fundamentally the taking over from the producers of matches produced in the monopoly area and their direct distribution (supply monopoly), the importation of matches into the monopoly area from abroad (import monopoly), and the export of matches abroad from the monopoly area (export monopoly). The monopoly is operated by the "Deutsche Zündwaren-Monopolgesellschaft", which is organised as a private company with a public status.

The foregoing concerns only *industrial organisations for agricultural products, sugar and potato manufactures (potato-starch and meal) and milk production, as well as the preparation and utilisation of dairy products.*

But the establishment of these new syndicates does not run counter to the principle of tightening State supervision, since they are by their essence subject to State supervision. Whereas, in the case of amalgamations in the dairy industry, it was provided by the prescriptions of the first Decree for carrying out the Milk Law of May 15th, 1931 (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1931; Part I, page 150), that these syndicates also should be subject to the most important regulations of the Cartel Decree, in the case of the sugar and potato-starch syndicates, the application of this Decree, with the exception of Article 8 (on giving notice of withdrawal) was expressly prescribed.

Emergency Decree of December 1st, 1930, Part VIII, Chapter V, Section 2 (for text, see Annex D).

By the terms of paragraph 1 of Article 7, firms in these industries are to be amalgamated as regards both production and sales.

By the terms of Article 8, paragraph 1, the Government of the Reich, with the consent of the Reich Council—amalgamations of this type will, as a rule, cover several States of the Reich—may publish legal decrees regarding executive details defining primarily the statutory provisions of decisive material importance. It may further grant these cartels legal personality.

By the terms of paragraph 2, recalcitrant firms may be compelled to adhere even to provisions which depart from the statutes. (The penal provisions mentioned in Article 10 (imprisonment or fine) could hardly be regarded as of importance in setting up these compulsory cartels.)

In execution of this Decree, there has already been founded, in virtue of the Decree on the amalgamation of the sugar industry of March 27th, 1931 (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1931, Part I, page 86 *et seq.*), "Wirtschaftliche Vereinigung der Deutschen Zuckerindustrie".

¹ In the case of the *coal industry*, a modification has been introduced by the Emergency Decree of June 6th, 1931 (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, Part I, page 279 *et seq.*), in that the question of compulsion is left to the discretion of the Minister.

Its object is "with a view to agreements with other sugar-producing countries", according to Article 3 of the Statute, "so to organise the German sugar industry, by meeting domestic requirements, furthering domestic consumption and investigating export possibilities, that a proportionate beet consumption may be achieved within the limits of the price of sugar allowed by the Customs regulations".

The member firms to be compulsorily amalgamated in accordance with Article 2 are, according to Article 9, "those sugar factories actually operating at the time".

Articles 7 to 9 give the Minister for Food and Agriculture considerable discretion in preparing the organisation, and, in addition, Article 6 gives him control over the domestic quota and price policy.

By Article 38 of the Milk Law of July 31st, 1931, producing firms, also firms preparing and utilising dairy products, may be amalgamated by the supreme authorities of the States for the control of the employment and sale of milk and milk products. By the terms of paragraph 3, States' Governments may in this case enforce the same provisions as the Government of the Reich in the case of the sugar and potato-starch syndicates. In the interests of uniformity in cartel supervision, principles are laid down in the "First Decree to give Effect to the Milk Law" of May 15th, 1931 (Annex to Article 28), whereby the States' Governments are empowered and obliged to reserve to themselves rights of intervention against certain decisions and measures of the amalgamations, similar to those which are in existence in the case of voluntary combines in virtue of the Cartel Decree of 1923 and the Cartel Emergency Decree of July 26th, 1926.

The Decree on the organisation of the potato products industry is in preparation.

B. THE LAST EMERGENCY DECREES IN 1931, PARTICULARLY EMERGENCY DECREE No. 4 OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE REICH, DATED DECEMBER 8TH, 1931, FOR PROTECTING TRADE AND FINANCE AND SAFEGUARDING THE PEACE OF THE COUNTRY. (*Reichsgesetzblatt I/1931*, No. 79, of December 9th, 1931.) (For text, see *Annex E*.)

I. PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS.

The increasing gravity of the economic crisis led to further serious restrictions being placed on private enterprise towards the end of 1931, with the object of reducing the level of German domestic prices, not merely in the sphere of commodity prices, but generally in every sphere of economic importance.

Chapter I of Emergency Decree No. 4 accordingly provides that the prices enforced by *cartels* and by *individual agreements* (counter-bond agreements), such as delivery contracts or guarantee certificates (individual counter-bonds), shall be reduced by about 10 per cent as compared with the prices current on July 1st, 1931.

Further, Chapter II of the Decree sets up a *Price Control Commissioner for the Reich*, whose duty it is to prevent the charging of unduly high prices for essential commodities in everyday use and essential services. Provisions are also enacted—extremely drastic even in their details—for reducing the *interest rates* on public and private debts. The other measures, such as facilities and reductions in connection with *house rents*, *fiscal innovations* and important modifications in the regulations governing *wages* and *social insurance*, form, apart from the fresh taxation imposed to safeguard the public finances, essential elements of the general programme put forward.

As regards the constitutional aspect of these measures, we would refer to the explanations given above on the subject of the previous decrees.

We are only concerned here with the chapters dealing with the *regulation of prices*—viz., Chapters I and II of Part I of Emergency Decree No. 4, together with the executive rules relating thereto.

II. COMPULSORY PRICES.

The provisions of Part 1 of the Emergency Decree No. 4, Chapter I, "Adjustment of Compulsory Prices to the New Economic Situation", are examined below:

A. Substantive Provisions.

1. Article 1 of the Decree stipulates that, by January 1st, 1932, all prices are to be reduced by at least 10 per cent as compared with the level of June 30th, 1931. This applies to all "compulsory" prices—i.e., to all price arrangements based on contractual agreements of the character described in Article 1 of the Decree of July 26th, 1930 (see above). The latter Decree, in its turn, refers to the organisations covered by the Cartel Decree (*Kartellverordnung*), so that the reduction of prices affects all cartels and similar price combines, and, in particular, the price stipulations applicable to the next stage of the economic process—for instance, the price provisions which the coal industry and many branches of the iron and steel industry impose on their wholesalers and, through these latter, on retailers.

The Reich Minister for National Economy, or in matters coming within his competence (Chapter I, Article 11), the Reich Minister for Food and Agriculture, and, in the case of price-fixing of purely *local scope*, the supreme authorities of the various States empowered by the Government of the Reich, or, again, the subordinate authorities duly empowered for the purpose by the above-mentioned supreme authorities (Chapter I, Article 12), may also require prices to be reduced further than the prescribed 10 per cent, this reduction to be effected by a date to be appointed by them (Chapter I, Article 1, paragraph 4).

If prices are not reduced by the date appointed, all agreements on which the maintenance of the prices is legally based (Chapter I, Article 1, paragraph 5) are to that extent *null and void*, this ensuing automatically on the expiry of the appointed period.

These provisions affect all kinds of cartel agreements from the ordinary price cartel to the cartel selling organisation, but they do not apply to purchasing cartels, cartels tendering for contracts, and those which merely regulate the quantities produced or sold, and therefore do not regulate prices. In the case of the two latter classes of cartels, prices are not permanently and uniformly fixed; the first class aims, of course, solely at forcing prices down by centralising purchases. On the other hand, the so-called "*Kalkulationskartelle*" come under the provisions in so far as they definitely determine the final price by fixing uniform figures, be it only for some of the decisive factors composing the cost price—e.g., the price of the raw material or pattern and the percentage of profit.

(a) Exceptions are expressly provided for *international agreements* (Chapter I, Article 5, paragraph 2), but only if enterprises actually established abroad have concluded with German enterprises agreements fixing prices for the *German market*. The exception does not apply if the foreign interests are represented in a cartel on German territory by independent branches in Germany itself. No exception is allowed, either, in the case of international cartels which merely allocate territorial areas—e.g., the International Raw Steel Cartel—and which leave the fixing of German sales prices to the discretion of the German cartel concerned. International agreements thus excepted must be reported by January 1st, 1932, to the Reich Minister for National Economy and the agreements enclosed.

(b) Exceptions are also made (Chapter I, Article 3, paragraphs 1 and 2) in the case of the coal and potash selling organisations which were set up in 1919 by special legislation, though they, too, must comply with the general 10 per cent reduction in price. In other

respects, however, special sales regulations have been provided for these categories of commodities. Chapter I, Article 3, paragraph 3, of the Decree stipulates that the coal-selling organisations and district cartels of coal wholesalers may not in future impose any embargo or similar measure within the meaning of Article 9 of the Cartel Decree or contractual penalties (*Vertragsstrafen*) on retailers for selling under the agreed price. Special provisions will be issued regulating the prices for such retail traders. The authorities may (Chapter I, Article 7) proceed to a new regulation of prices in all cases in which the compulsory prices are regulated by law. The general provisions of Articles 1 and 2 do not apply to the above-mentioned organisations.

(c) In a quite general sense, Chapter I, Article 5, paragraph 1, further empowers the Ministers concerned to grant complete or partial exceptions in cases where the application of the measures contained in Chapter I "appears likely to cause unforeseen economic disadvantages which cannot be obviated in any other way, and when such exceptions do not conflict with the interests of the national economy and the common weal".

The provisions above described also apply to the special agreements relating to.

2. *Compulsory prices for goods bearing a standard mark* (Chapter I, Article 2). This expression was defined when we discussed the Marked Goods Decree of January 16th, 1931. The prices of these marked goods have also to be reduced on the same appointed day and with similar legal consequences. In contrast to the provisions of the above-mentioned Special Decree, this obligation will henceforth apply to *all* marked goods, and here, again, the authorities may (paragraph 2) insist on far-reaching reductions.

3. *The obligation to reduce prices* applies to all branches of trade and industry and to all classes of commodities where prices are regulated, but the reduction of 10 per cent is only obligatory if prices have not already been replaced by at least this amount since the appointed date, June 30th, 1931. The reduction must, however, be a permanent one and not, for instance, be merely introduced temporarily for competitive purposes or on special occasions (exhibitions, clearance sales, etc.). Again, the 10 per cent must be computed on the regular cartel price, and not on exceptional prices. Accordingly, the Decree does not apply, either, to price arrangements which only came into force after the above-mentioned appointed date.

On the other hand, the provisions of the Decree also apply to the regulation of prices based merely on *recommendations* (Chapter I, Article 4). These prices must also be similarly reduced; the price arrangements are prohibited unless such reduction takes place. The object of this stipulation is to prevent the provisions of Chapter I, Article 1, being evaded by informal agreements. Chapter I, Article 9, also prohibits any transactions intended to evade directly or indirectly the purpose of the Decree. This clause—on which no explanatory comments are given—has doubtless been intentionally drafted on such broad lines to make it impossible for business circles to circumvent the regulations.

The Decree does not state whether the price in question is the gross price or the net price—that is, inclusive or exclusive of incidental expenses (*e.g.*, freight, packing, etc.). The object, however, being generally "to adjust prices to the new economic situation", all sales prices current in the market, which will usually mean the net prices, will certainly have to be reduced. The purpose of the reduction is to lower trade expenses or cheapen the cost of living, and this would not, on the whole, be achieved if the vendor, for instance, merely deducted certain incidental expenses, such as the cost of freight or packing, or, say, raised the discount. These devices cannot at all events be resorted to in fixing the price for the final consumers, more particularly in the case of marked goods. The whole idea of the Decree is that the consumer should get the direct benefit of the full 10 per cent

reduction on every purchase, however small. In the case of wholesale transactions, which are the general rule with *cartels*, doubts may nevertheless be entertained as to whether the requirements of the Decree might not also be met by deducting such expenses or by making a corresponding increase in the discounts, thus effectively reducing prices by the prescribed amount. It must, however, be remembered that freights will also have to be correspondingly decreased, and that the prices of packing material, etc., will be reduced, so that the vendor would frequently save on these expenses and not have to support the 10 per cent reduction himself. Conversely, an increase of those expenses to compensate the reduction in price would, of course, be an act of evasion. Similarly, the imposition of severer terms of payment, at any rate to such an extent as partially or wholly to compensate the price reduction, would also be regarded as an "act of evasion" (within the meaning of Chapter I, Article 9).

Theoretically, a price reduction could also be achieved by maintaining the nominal price of the article, but at the same time increasing the quantity supplied or offering a superior quality. In view, however, of the aim of the Decree, these two alternatives—the second in particular—could only be admitted in *exceptional cases*, and certainly only when the marked goods can be carefully examined, as, for instance, in the case of those which are put up in separate packages.

4. Without the permission of the competent Ministers of the Reich (see Chapter I, Article 8), prices which have been reduced in compliance with the Decree may not—if the price agreement is maintained—be again increased by the cartel before July 1st, 1932.¹ An exception is made in the case of the prices for coal and potash, for which special regulations are provided; in the case of the Potash-Selling Organisation there is also an international (German-French) cartel.

It is similarly prohibited, without the permission of the competent Ministers of the Reich, to revive during the same period agreements which have been cancelled or to conclude fresh agreements regarding prices of the kind specified in Chapter I, Article 1. There is, of course, the possibility that, when a price agreement is terminated, a vendor, having obtained a free hand, may later arbitrarily raise his prices. This, however, is a purely theoretical possibility, which, under conditions of open competition, quite apart from existing marketing difficulties, can never be taken advantage of in practice.

5. The above provisions apply not only to *goods*—that is, industrial products of every kind—but also to *industrial services* (*gewerbliche Leistungen*, Chapter I, Article 1, paragraph 4). In German law, the latter term, while not defined with absolute clearness, denotes any gainful employment which is predominantly of a mechanical (artisan) character; it thus excludes purely intellectual professions. The latter, the so-called "liberal" professions—viz., medicine, law, etc.—do not come into consideration. This provision is intended to apply mainly to price agreements or recommendations made by corporations and groups of craftsmen, organisations which, in the last decade particularly, have pursued a very extensive and effective collective policy with regard to prices. These organisations also came under the Cartel Decree of 1923.

6. In the case of agreements between cartels belonging to different stages of the economic process, in virtue of which every party is bound to apply certain specific prices,

¹ This prohibition has not been renewed for the period after July 1st, 1932; the Government, however, has informed the public that, in view of the general economic situation, it expects that, for the moment at any rate, prices will not be raised. According to Press reports, the Price Commissioner (cf. III) has already declared that, so far as he is concerned, the measures he has taken shall generally remain in force even after July 1st, 1932.

each stage—that is, both the producers' cartel and the traders' (wholesalers') cartel—must effect the price reduction.

If, as in the case of marked goods, only retail prices are fixed, the reduction must apply to these. The Decree does not itself specify, but leaves the question to be decided by the parties themselves, whether the manufacturer should make certain concessions to the retailer and reduce his sales price, or whether the retailer must bear the whole burden.

B. *Executory Provisions.*

1. The parties to the price agreement are obliged to carry out the price reduction *by the date appointed*. To facilitate compliance with an obligation which, in view of the very short notice given, may create difficulties for bodies possessing a large number of members or a complicated structure, cartels are not required (Chapter I, Article 1, paragraph 3) to carry out the formalities imposed upon them by their statutes. Decisions may be communicated by letter or even by telephone.

2. The possibility that exceptions may be allowed does not relieve the parties from their obligation to reduce prices within the period appointed—that is, by the end of 1931.

3. The obligation to reduce prices can only apply to transactions subsequent to January 1st, 1932, and, in the case of previous agreements or contracts for successive deliveries, only to such deliveries as are made after December 31st, 1931. The question, however, may be contested under German civil law. As the measure is of a general character and involves administrative compulsion—that is, it modifies by *force majeure* the original conditions of business transactions—the purchaser ought to be granted a right of withdrawal if the reduction in price is refused; otherwise, he would be seriously handicapped in the competitive struggle.

4. The decisions of the competent Ministers (or the duly authorised authorities of the States) as to whether prices have or have not been reduced as prescribed are final (Chapter I, Article 6) and binding on courts of law, administrative authorities and arbitral tribunals.

5. The partial nullification, already mentioned, of cartel agreements, resolutions and individual undertakings (in the case of marked goods) extends (Chapter I, Article 1, paragraph 5) also to the obligation imposed on members to dispose of goods only through a central sales office (sales "syndicate"). Members thus recover their freedom to sell independently.

The nullification takes effect forthwith, by operation of law, in the case of failure to observe the general date appointed for reducing prices (January 1st, 1932) or those fixed by special order of the competent authorities (Chapter I, Article 1, paragraph 4; Articles 2 and 5).

6. Fines of an unspecified amount in Reichsmark (Chapter I, Article 10) are exacted for infringements or evasions. They are imposed at the request of the authorities by the President of the Cartel Court or his representative and recovered in accordance with the provisions of the Fiscal Code of the Reich (*Reichsabgabenordnung*).

7. As Chapter I of the first part of Emergency Decree No. 4 only refers to concrete facts—namely, compulsory prices and price agreements relating to the next stage of the economic process, particularly compulsory prices for marked goods—and as, moreover, nothing to the contrary is laid down on the matter, both the 1923 Cartel Decree and the other Decrees already referred to in this memorandum remain fully operative.

The Decree regarding the price regulation of marked goods, of January 16th, 1931, is, it is true, superseded in so far as its provisions, including those relating to the reduction of prices, referred only to certain categories of goods, whereas Emergency Decree No. 4 (Chapter I, Part 1, Article 2) provides for the cheapening of all marked goods the prices of which are controlled. The Decree regarding compulsory prices for marked goods, however, retains its special significance—for example, as regards the important provisions of Article 2, paragraphs 1(b) and 2, and Article 3.

The Cartel Court will still be competent to adjudicate—*e.g.*, in cases where notice is given—owing to Emergency Decree No. 4 having altered the basis of the association.

The ordinary law courts will continue to decide whether the prices in question are prices which should be legally reduced or whether there is a valid price arrangement relating to the next economic category—*e.g.*, in a civil suit to prohibit sales being made at uneconomic prices; they have no jurisdiction, however, if the Minister has already given the decision referred to above (Chapter I, Article 6), which is binding on all law courts and arbitration tribunals.

III. LOWERING OF PRICES ON THE OPEN MARKET.

A. Basic Regulations.

Chapter II of Part 1 of Emergency Decree No. 4, entitled "Protection against Excessive Prices", deals with measures designed to reduce prices not fixed by an organisation.

The provisions which follow, however, are limited to "essential commodities in everyday use" and "essential services satisfying daily requirements" (Chapter II, Article 1).

The duty of dealing with unduly high prices in this sphere of consumption is entrusted to a special "Price Control Commissioner for the Reich". He is appointed by the President of the Reich and is under the direct orders of the Chancellor of the Reich. He possesses full dictatorial powers. His term of office is decided by the Government of the Reich.

His duties are only very vaguely defined by the tenor of the Decree itself and certain of its provisions.

According to Chapter II, Article 2, he has constantly to supervise the prices referred to in Article 1, with respect to their "formation" and to the "price margins" and "increases" by which the various economic stages benefit. He must take steps to lower rates which he considers excessive.

In view of the fact that, under Article 13 of Chapter I (which we discussed above) of Part 1 of Emergency Decree No. 4, the duties and powers of the Price Commissioner remain "unaffected", he can also take very effective action in connection with compulsory prices (Chapter I). Chapter II, Article 2, in particular, empowers him to supervise price margins and increases, and also the prices of marked goods. The Commissioner has made use of these powers by issuing, for instance, the Ordinance concerning compulsory prices in the retail coal trade, dated December 16th, 1931 (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, I/1931, No. 83, of December 22nd, 1931).

The Price Commissioner can also delegate his powers to the supreme authorities of the States (Chapter II, Article 5) and, should circumstances so require, may also, in agreement with the Governments of the individual States, appoint "agents" for particular classes of commodities or areas, such agents being under his orders. A special "Milk Prices Commissioner" has, for instance, been appointed for Greater Berlin. The orders of the Commissioner of the Reich apply to the territory of the Reich or parts

thereof (Chapter II, Article 6, paragraph 2). Furthermore, the Reich, States and communal authorities, as well as other corporations of public law standing, must furnish free of charge all necessary assistance to the authorities of the States responsible for carrying out the above orders.

Chapter II, Article 3, stipulates that the subordinate police authorities must, by publishing orders and employing the means of compulsion open to them under the laws of the States, carry out the instructions that have been given. An appeal may be made against these police orders in the administrative tribunals; but the Reich Government may issue special provisions on this subject. The powers of the police are limited only in so far as the Government of the Reich, by means of provisions for giving effect to this Chapter, has imposed special penalties.

The Government of the Reich may (Chapter II, Article 6) issue decrees and general administrative regulations to enable the Price Commissioner to discharge his duties, as well as supplementary provisions, more particularly as regards the method of effecting price reductions, the marking of prices, and price-lists. The Government may repeal Chapter II or any of the decrees and issue the necessary transitional provisions.

As particular importance is attached to the cheapening of traffic services, public means of transport, particularly private and narrow-gauge railways and tramways (Chapter II, Article 4), which lower their tariffs to a "reasonable extent" under this Chapter, may be given compensation in the form of total or partial exemption from the transport tax imposed by the Law of June 29th, 1926.

The provisions of this Chapter came into force on the day of publication—viz., December 9th, 1931.

B. Decree concerning the Powers of the Price Commissioner.

The Decree of December 8th, 1931, concerning the powers of the Price Control Commissioner of the Reich, which came into force on the day of promulgation, December 9th, 1931, defines in greater detail the duties of the Price Commissioner.

His dictatorial powers appear in the provision contained in Article 4 of the Decree, in virtue of which he himself establishes the list of goods and services within the meaning of Article 1 of the basic Decree—*i.e.*, he determines his own sphere of action. Furthermore, Article 1 gives him, in particular, powers to issue price regulations and orders, and to take action either by conducting negotiations or by issuing orders. Under Article 3, for instance, he may require goods to be ticketed and price-lists to be displayed with full particulars, so as to enable consumers to co-operate extensively in the control of prices. The Commissioner has already made effective use of this power by issuing a Decree dated December 17th, 1931, on the ticketing of goods and price-lists (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, I/1931, No. 85, of December 29th, 1931). This Decree prescribes that plain and fancy bread and fresh meat should be ticketed and that hairdressers should display their prices. For the same reasons, the Price Commissioner may (Article 6), in appropriate circumstances, set up "Price Committees", with consultative powers, composed of representatives of the circles interested—*i.e.*, suppliers and consumers. The Commissioner may, finally, in order to facilitate his enquiries, avail himself of the Decree of July 13th, 1923, on the obligation to furnish information.

To enable the Commissioner to discharge his duties, he has been invested with the following powers:

1. Infringements of his orders regarding prices and increases (Article 1, paragraph 2, of the Decree) are punishable by imprisonment, police detention or a fine of an unlimited amount, or by two or several of these penalties;

2. He may (Article 2) stop the operation of enterprises supplying goods or services within the meaning of Article 1 of the Decree, if they infringe the provisions and orders of the Decree or if the proprietor or manager is proved to be unreliable. The Commissioner may also direct the business and office premises to be closed down. These penalties are of the same nature as those laid down in the Decrees of July 13th, 1923, and June 26th, 1924, concerning trading restrictions, and also in the Law of July 19th, 1923. Any party affected may, within a period of one week, appeal to the Economic Court of the Reich (with which the Cartel Court is also connected) against the above penalties, and against such penalties only. This appeal does not, however, unless otherwise provided, suspend the operation of the penalty. The Economic Court must give its decision within one month.

By an order in the *Reichsgesetzblatt*, I/1932, No. 1, of January 9th, 1932, the Price Commissioner has temporarily delegated his powers to the supreme authorities of the States, within strictly defined limits and for particular commodities—e.g., the retail trade in all agricultural produce (except milk, butter and cooking fat), poultry, fish (except sea fish), saddlery and joinery articles, and the marked goods defined in Article 12 of Emergency Decree No. 4.

3. For the rest (Article 7), in accordance with the provisions of Chapter II of Part 1 of Emergency Decree No. 4, the subordinate authorities—more particularly, as already stated, the police authorities—are responsible for carrying out the Commissioner's orders. It is open to the parties concerned to contest such action by resorting to the administrative tribunals provided for under the laws of the various States.

Annex A.

DECREE OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE REICH OF JULY 26TH, 1930, FOR REMOVING FINANCIAL, ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DISTRESS. (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1930, I, page 328.)

FIFTH CHAPTER.—THE PREVENTION OF UNECONOMIC PRICE AGREEMENTS.

Section 1.

1. The Government of the Reich may :

(a) Declare invalid agreements or decisions of the kind mentioned in Section 1 of the Decree of November 2nd, 1923, against the Abuse of Economic Power (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, I, page 1067), if they contain obligations regarding price-fixing methods or the prices to be demanded, or prohibit their being executed in a certain manner;

(b) Prohibit the application of business terms or methods of fixing prices which restrict any person legally or economically in respect of the manner of fixing prices or the prices to be demanded;

(c) Prohibit acts which, while not coming under (a) and (b), are calculated to bring about essentially the same economic result by reason of the conditions, the circumstances of the case, or the procedure adopted or to be adopted; in particular, recommendations referring to methods of fixing prices or to the prices to be demanded, or the application of economic or social pressure in order to ensure the execution of such recommendations.

if the production of or trading in goods or services is made uneconomic thereby or economic freedom of action is restricted in a manner not justified by national economy.

2. The Government of the Reich may also decree that parties may withdraw from agreements concluded under conditions such as those to which objection is stated under paragraph 1. This right of withdrawal cannot be waived; it expires if the withdrawal is not declared within the period provided for in the Decree. Sections 346 to 356 of the Civil Code, and Section 10, paragraph 1, sentence 2, and paragraphs 2 and 6 of the Decree against the Abuse of Economic Power are applied *mutatis mutandis*.

3. Agreements within the meaning of Section 1 of the Decree against the Abuse of Economic Power are held to include agreements by which several independent undertakings belonging to the same economic category bind themselves individually to adopt a certain procedure towards other parties in the method of fixing prices and the prices to be demanded

Section 2.

If the conditions for adopting measures in accordance with Section 1 obtain, the Government of the Reich may reduce or abolish import duties on dutiable goods the prices of which are fixed by the methods mentioned in Section 1.

Section 3.

1. Before ordering any measure to be taken in accordance with Sections 1 and 2, the Government of the Reich shall hear the economic circles concerned. It shall ask the Provisional Economic Council of the Reich to give an opinion.

2. Measures in accordance with this Decree shall be published in the *Reichsanzeiger* and shall come into effect on the date of publication

Section 4.

If the influence of any of the acts mentioned in Section 1 is restricted to certain markets, the powers conferred on the Government of the Reich under Section 1 shall, with the Government of the Reich's consent, be exercised by the Government of the State concerned or an authority appointed by the latter.

If the markets of several States are affected, the Government of the Reich may, in agreement with the Governments of the States concerned, decide on the authority competent to exercise the powers conferred under Section 1.

Section 5.

Any person acting contrary to measures issued in accordance with this Decree shall, on the application of the competent supreme authority of the Reich, or, in the case provided for in Section 4, on the application of the competent supreme authority of the State concerned, or the authority appointed by it, be subject to a penalty to be imposed by the President of the Cartel Court, or his representative. The penalty shall consist of a fine, the maximum amount of which is unlimited. The fine shall be collected in accordance with the provisions of the Reich Taxation Ordinance (*Reichsabgabenordnung*).

Annex B.

EXECUTORY DECREE REGARDING THE CANCELLATION AND PROHIBITION OF COMPULSORY PRICES, ISSUED ON AUGUST 30TH, 1930. (*Deutscher Reichsanzeiger*, No. 205, of September 3rd, 1930.)

In virtue of Section 1 of the fifth chapter of the Decree issued on July 26th, 1930, by the President of the Reich for removing financial, economic and social distress (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, I, page 311), the following is decreed :

Section 1.

1. Agreements of the kind mentioned in Section 1, paragraph 1(a), 3 of the fifth chapter of the Decree issued by the President of the Reich for removing financial, economic and social distress, shall be null and void if they impose on the purchaser of goods obligations regarding the manner of fixing prices or the prices to be demanded :

- (a) For goods of other kinds or other origin, or
- (b) For industrial services.

2. It is forbidden to apply terms of business which restrict the purchaser of goods legally or economically in respect of the manner of fixing prices or the prices to be demanded :

- (a) For goods of other kinds or other origin, or
- (b) For industrial services.

Section 2.

It is forbidden to take steps which are calculated directly or indirectly to cause essentially the same economic result as the agreements or terms of business mentioned in Section 1.

Section 3.

In accordance with Section 1, paragraph 2, of the fifth chapter of the Decree issued by the President of the Reich for removing financial, economic and social distress, the parties are entitled to withdraw from agreements concluded under the conditions mentioned in Section 1. Such withdrawal must be declared within one month after the publication of this Decree.

Section 4.

The Government of the Reich shall decide on the date when this Decree shall cease to be in force.

Annex C.

**DECREE REGARDING THE COMPULSORY PRICES FOR GOODS BEARING
A STANDARD MARK, ISSUED ON JANUARY 16TH, 1931.
(*Deutscher Reichsanzeiger*, No. 14, of January 17th, 1931.)**

In virtue of Section 1 of the fifth chapter of the Decree issued by the President of the Reich on July 26th, 1930, for removing financial, economic and social distress (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, I, page 311), it is decreed as follows :

Section 1.

The provisions of this Decree shall apply to trade in the following goods if their packing, their make-up or the receptacles from which they are sold to the consumer are provided with a mark indicating their origin (name of the firm, motto or picture, etc.) (so-called marked goods) :

1. All materials which are intended for human consumption in an unchanged, prepared or worked-up condition (foodstuffs), with the exception of fresh milk, spirits and sparkling wine;
2. Other goods specified by the Government of the Reich in announcements in the *Deutscher Reichsanzeiger*.

Section 2.

1. If agreements of the kind described in Section 1, paragraph 1(a), 3 of the fifth chapter of the Decree issued by the President of the Reich for removing financial, economic and social distress, oblige the purchaser of marked goods (Section 1) to demand fixed prices when reselling goods to consumers inside Germany, such obligation shall be void :

- (a) If the fixed price is not reduced by at least 10 per cent as compared with the retail price existing on July 1st, 1930;
- (b) If the purchaser is prevented from granting, in addition to this reduction, any rebates which he was entitled to grant on July 1st, 1930.

2. It shall be forbidden to apply terms of business or methods of fixing prices which legally or economically bind the purchaser of marked goods (Section 1) to demand fixed prices on reselling the goods to consumers in the country :

- (a) If the fixed price is not reduced by at least 10 per cent as compared with the price existing on July 1st, 1930;
- (b) If the purchaser is prevented from granting, in addition to this reduction, any rebates which he was entitled to grant on July 1st, 1930.

3. The legal consequences to which paragraphs 1 and 2 relate shall not apply if the reduction is less than the minimum reduction required by not more than a fraction of a Reichspfennig, unless the retail price existing on July 1st, 1930, is thereby left unchanged.

Section 3.

1. If agreements of the kind mentioned in Section 1, paragraph 1(a), 3 of the fifth chapter of the Decree issued by the President of the Reich for removing financial, economic and social distress, oblige inland associations for joint purchase (*Bezugsgemeinschaften*)

not to grant rebates to their associates (or members or partners) on the purchase price of marked goods (Section 1) obtained from them, such obligation shall be void.

2. It shall be forbidden to apply terms of business or methods of fixing prices which legally or economically bind inland associations for joint purchases (Bezugsgemeinschaften) not to grant rebates to their associates (or members or partners) on the purchase price of the marked goods (Section 1) obtained from them.

3. Associations for joint purchase (Bezugsgemeinschaften) within the meaning of this regulation are registered co-operative societies and other economically similar associations possessing legal personality, the business of which is essentially restricted to their associates (or members or partners), and their purchasing centres.

Section 4.

It is prohibited to take any action which is calculated directly or indirectly to produce essentially the same economic effect as the provisions of agreements which are declared null and void, or terms of business which are prohibited, by this Decree.

Section 5.

If the application of this Decree leads to considerable unforeseen economic disadvantages, the Minister of National Economy of the Reich may, after taking the opinion of the Provisional Economic Council of the Reich, admit exceptions to the Decree, provided they are not opposed to the economic interests of the country or to the public welfare.

Section 6.

1. This Decree shall come into force for the goods referred to in Section 1, paragraph 2, fourteen days after they have been specified in the *Deutscher Reichsanzeiger*, and, in other cases, fourteen days after its publication.

2. The Government of the Reich shall decide on what date it shall cease to be in force.

NOTICE ISSUED ON JANUARY 16TH, 1931.

In virtue of Section 1, paragraph 2, of the Decree of January 16th, 1931, regarding compulsory prices for goods bearing a standard mark (*Reichsanzeiger*, No. 14), the following is decreed :

The Decree regarding compulsory prices for marked goods shall apply to the following goods, if they are marked goods within the meaning of this Decree, and if the purchaser is bound by counter-bond agreements (Reverse), business terms, or similar compacts to demand fixed prices when reselling them to consumers in the country :

1. Articles for cleaning, treating, dyeing or improving the appearance of the skin, the hair, the nails and the mouth;

2. Materials and their preparations intended for external or internal application to the body of persons or animals with a view to preventing or removing diseases, pains or bodily injuries, with the exception of remedies for internal consumption containing more than 50 per cent in weight of spirit of wine;

3. Bandages and plasters;

4. House and kitchen utensils;

5. Floor coverings, with the exception of carpets and textile fibre materials;

6. Articles for washing, polishing, scouring and cleaning, and for preparing linen and articles of clothing;
7. Paints for artists, painters and household use;
8. Typewriters and office equipment;
9. Ready-made clothing and personal linen;
10. Thread made of textile fibres and all kinds for sewing, knitting, embroidering, darning and crochet work;
11. Articles of rubber and rubber substitute;
12. Gramophone records, provided the fixed retail price on July 1st, 1930, was not more than five Reichsmarks, or less.

Annex D.

DECREE OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE REICH, DATED DECEMBER 1ST, 1930,
FOR PROTECTING TRADE AND FINANCE.
(*Reichsgesetzblatt*, I, pages 517 to 604.)

PART 8.

CHAPTER V, SECTION 2.—COMBINES.

Article 7.

With the consent of the Reich Council (Reichsrat), the Government of the Reich may, for the purpose of regulating production and sales, amalgamate sugar factories and enterprises using potatoes for industrial manufacture.

When so doing, it must take steps to ensure the best possible return and to prevent injury to the national economy or the interests of the community.

The Decree of November 2nd, 1923, to prevent the abuse of economic power (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, I, page 1067) shall apply to such combines; nevertheless, there shall be no notice to terminate them in accordance with Article 8 of the present Decree.

Article 8.

The Government of the Reich may, with the consent of the Reich Council, publish decrees for the execution of Article 7. It may in particular:

1. Regulate by statutes the rights and duties of the members and the other legal relations of the combines, and provide that such combines shall have legal personality;
 2. Amalgamate enterprises with already existing combinations of enterprises of the same nature, and in so doing regulate the rights and duties of the members in a manner which may even be at variance with the contractual agreements.
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Annex E.

FOURTH DECREE OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE REICH, DATED DECEMBER 8TH, 1931, FOR PROTECTING NATIONAL TRADE AND FINANCE AND SAFEGUARDING THE PEACE OF THE COUNTRY. (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1931/I, pages 699 to 745.)

PART I.—REDUCTION OF PRICES AND RATES OF INTEREST.

CHAPTER I.—ADJUSTMENT OF COMPULSORY PRICES TO THE PRESENT ECONOMIC SITUATION.

Article 1.

1. Compulsory prices must, in order to be adapted to the present economic situation, be reduced by January 1st, 1932, at the latest, by at least 10 per cent as compared with the level of June 30th, 1931.

2. Compulsory prices shall be regarded as the prices which the parties concerned have undertaken to demand on the home market under agreements or decisions of the kind referred to in Article 1, Chapter V, of the Decree of the President of the Reich of July 26th, 1930, for removing financial, economic and social distress (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, I, page 311) (for instance, cartels, cartels with selling organisations (syndicates), and combines fixing prices for undertakings in the next stage of the economic process, in the following branches: iron and steel industry, industry for working-up iron and metals, building materials, chemical products, paper, glass, ceramic industry, textiles and artificial fertilisers).

3. The decision with regard to the reduction of prices may also be issued by letter, telegraph or telephone; all provisions of agreements or statutes which are at variance with this prescription shall not apply in this matter.

4. If the Reich Minister for National Economy deems it necessary that there should be a more considerable reduction in the prices of particular articles or industrial services (*gewerbliche Leistungen*), or of groups of these commodities or services, he may lay down the rate of such reduction and require that it be effected within such period as he may fix.

5. If the prices of commodities or industrial services are not reduced as provided for in paragraph 1, or if a demand of the Reich Minister for National Economy (paragraph 4) is not complied with within the period laid down, the agreement or decision (paragraph 2) shall be null and void in so far as it contains obligations relating to the application of compulsory prices for the commodities or services in question; if those concerned have undertaken in an agreement or decision (paragraph 2) jointly to sell their commodities or services, such undertaking shall also be null and void in so far as it applies to commodities or services the prices of which have not been reduced in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 1.

Article 2.

1. The prices of "marked goods" (*Markenwaren*) which are laid down in agreements of the kind referred to in paragraph 2 of Article 1 must, in order to be adjusted to the present economic situation, be reduced for the home market before January 1st, 1932, at the latest, by at least 10 per cent as compared with the level of June 30th, 1931.

2. If the Reich Minister for Economic Affairs considers that, in the case of particular marked articles or groups of such articles, a more considerable reduction is necessary, he may fix the rate of such reduction and require that it be effected within such period as he may determine.

3. If the prices of marked articles are not reduced in accordance with paragraph 1 or if a demand of the Reich Minister for Economic Affairs (paragraph 2) is not complied with within the period fixed, the agreements (paragraph 1) shall be null and void in so far as they contain obligations regarding the application of compulsory prices for such marked articles. Such legal consequence shall not ensue if the reduction is less than that laid down by not more than a fraction of a Reichspfennig.

4. Marked articles within the meaning of paragraphs 1 to 3 are articles which themselves bear a mark indicating their origin (for instance, the indication of the commercial firm, a name or a picture), or whose packing, wrapping or receptacles (from which they are extracted for sale) contain such a mark.

Article 3.

1. The following special provisions shall apply to the coal industry and trade :

(i) The most recent prices of the coal and lignite selling organisations (syndicates) published by the "Reichskohlenverband" in the *Deutscher Reichsanzeiger* and the *Preussischer Staatsanzeiger* are to be reduced by 10 per cent as from January 1st, 1931.

(ii) The Reich Minister for Economic Affairs may issue provisions regarding reductions in the prices of the selling organisations (syndicates).

(iii) The selling organisations (syndicates) of the coal industry and trade and wholesale coal enterprises which are alone authorised to supply certain areas with coal may not take in regard to retailers any measures of the kind referred to in paragraph 1 of Article 9 of the Decree of November 2nd, 1923, intended to prevent the abuse of economic power (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, I, pages 1067 and 1090), or impose upon them conventional fines for selling at prices below the retail prices laid down in agreements or decisions of the kind referred to in Article 1. They are forbidden to impose any restrictive measures whatever on retailers in so far as the latter purchase fuel of German origin.

(iv) Special regulations will be drafted with regard to compulsory prices in the retail coal trade.

2. The following special provisions shall apply to the potash industry and trade :

(i) The maximum prices of potash salts fixed for the home market in the Decree of the Reich Potash Council (Reichskalirat) of December 22nd, 1926 (*Reichsanzeiger*, No. 298) must be reduced by 10 per cent by January 1st, 1932, at the latest.

(ii) The Reich Minister for Economic Affairs is authorised to issue provisions regarding reductions in the prices of the German Potash Syndicate.

Article 4.

No person may recommend another (give advice or make suggestions to another) to ask particular prices for commodities or industrial services (gewerbliche Leistungen) in the home trade, unless the prices the application of which is recommended have been reduced in accordance with the provisions of the present chapter.

Article 5.

1. The Reich Minister for Economic Affairs may authorise exceptions to the provisions of the present chapter in the event of the application of these provisions entailing unforeseen and considerable economic injury which it is impossible otherwise to avoid, provided always that such exceptions do not conflict with the interests of the national economy or those of the community; such exceptions may be granted subject to certain restrictions.

2. The provisions of the present chapter shall not apply to the prices of commodities or industrial services (*gewerbliche Leistungen*) that the parties concerned have undertaken to observe under the terms of an international agreement or decision which, in virtue of its contents, comes under one of the categories referred to in paragraph 2 of Article 1. Those to whom such exception applies shall inform the Reich Minister for Economic Affairs of this by January 1st, 1932, at the latest, and submit the agreements to him.

Article 6.

If the Reich Minister for Economic Affairs takes a decision as to whether prices have been reduced in conformity with the provisions of the present chapter, his decision shall be final and it shall be binding upon the courts, arbitral tribunals and the administrative authorities.

Article 7.

Notwithstanding the provisions of Article 3, the Reich Minister for Economic Affairs may fix the prices for associations the formation of which is provided for either by laws or by decrees, or which are constituted in virtue of special legislative authorisation, and he may in such a case regulate the price reductions. The Articles 1 and 2 shall not apply to the associations referred to in the first sentence.

Article 8.

1. Except in cases where the Reich Minister for Economic Affairs has given his consent, it shall be forbidden up to July 1st, 1932, as regards commodities or industrial services (*gewerbliche Leistungen*):

(i) To raise the prices which have been reduced in compliance with the provisions of the present chapter, if the prices continue to be compulsorily fixed;

(ii) To lay down, by means of agreements or decisions of the kind referred to in Article 1, prices for commodities or services the prices of which were not compulsorily laid down at the time of the coming into force of the present chapter, or the compulsory prices of which are null and void in accordance with the provisions of the present chapter.

2. Paragraph 1, No. 1, shall not apply to the prices of the selling organisations (*syndicates*) of the coal industry and trade and the prices of the German Potash Syndicate.

Article 9.

All acts are prohibited which, directly or indirectly:

(1) May have the same economic effect as the agreements or decisions, or parts thereof, which are null and void in accordance with the present chapter;

(2) May render it possible to evade the price reductions provided for in the present chapter.

Article 10.

Any person failing to take account of the nullity of an agreement or decision, or of parts thereof, arising out of the provisions of the present chapter or an order given in virtue of Article 7, and any person contravening the provisions of Articles 3 and 4, the second sentence of paragraph 2 of Article 5, or of Articles 8 or 9 shall, on the demand of the Reich Minister for Economic Affairs, be mulcted in a fine by the President of the Cartel Court or his substitute. No maximum is laid down for the fine. The amount shall be recovered in accordance with the provisions of the Reich Fiscal Code (*Reichs-abgabenordnung*).

Article 11.

The powers provided for in Articles 1 to 3, 5 to 8 and 10 shall be exercised, within the limits of his competence, by the Reich Minister for Supplies and Agriculture.

Article 12.

1. If the effect exercised on the market by agreements or decisions of the kind referred to in paragraph 2 of Article 1 is confined to certain areas, or if a recommendation (Article 4) is addressed to a group of persons in a particular area, the Government of the Reich may delegate its powers in whole or in part to the supreme authorities of the State in question; when the Government of the Reich makes use of this authorisation, the supreme authorities of the State may delegate the powers thus conferred on them to a subordinate authority.

2. If the effect in question applies to the territory of several States, the Government of the Reich may, in agreement with the Governments of the States concerned, designate the supreme authority of a State or the subordinate authority to which the said powers shall be delegated.

Article 13.

The duties and powers of the Price Control Commissioner of the Reich (Chapter II of the present Part) remain unchanged.

Article 14.

The Reich Minister for Economic Affairs, and the Reich Minister for Supplies and Agriculture may issue regulations and administrative provisions deemed to be necessary for the execution of the present chapter.

Article 15.

The Reich Minister for Economic Affairs and the Reich Minister for Supplies and Agriculture shall appoint the date on which the present chapter shall cease to be applicable.

CHAPTER II.—PROTECTION AGAINST EXCESSIVE PRICES.

Article 1.

1. In order to protect the population against excessive prices for indispensable articles in everyday use and for essential services designed to meet current requirements,

a Price Control Commissioner for the Reich shall be appointed. He shall be under the orders of the Chancellor of the Reich and shall reside in Berlin.

2. The Government of the Reich shall determine the duration of his powers.

Article 2.

The Reich Commissioner shall be responsible for exercising continuous supervision over the prices referred to in Article 1, the formation of such prices and, in particular, the price margins and increases by which the undertakings at the various stages of the economic process benefit. If the Reich Commissioner considers that certain prices, price margins or increases are excessive, he shall take steps to reduce them.

Article 3.

1. It shall be for the Government of the Reich to determine the penalties which may be laid down in the regulations to be issued in virtue of the present chapter.

2. If no penalties are provided for, the supreme authorities of the States shall, at the request of the Government of the Reich, instruct the police authorities to provide in each particular case, by means of a police order, for the execution of the measures generally prescribed in virtue of the present chapter and, if necessary, to ensure such execution by employing the means of compulsion open to them under the laws of the State. An appeal may be made against these police orders in the administrative tribunals. The Government of the Reich may issue supplementary provisions on this subject.

Article 4.

At the request of the Reich Commissioner, private and narrow-gauge railways and tramways may be granted total or partial exemption from the Transport Tax under the Law of June 29th, 1926, relating to the Transport Tax (*Reichsgesetzblatt*, I, page 357), provided that they lower to a reasonable extent their tariffs in force on the date of the coming into operation of the present chapter, regard being had to the measures provided for in the present Decree.

Article 5.

1. The Reich Commissioner may delegate his powers in whole or in part to the supreme authorities of the States. When he makes use of this authorisation, the supreme authorities of the States may delegate the powers thus conferred on them to subordinate authorities.

2. Should circumstances make this specially desirable, the Reich Commissioner may, in agreement with the Governments of the individual States, appoint agents for those States or parts thereof and delegate his powers to them in whole or in part. These agents shall be under the direct orders of the Reich Commissioner.

3. The provisions of the present chapter shall, moreover, be enforced by the authorities of the States. The administrations of the Reich, the States and the communes and other corporations having public law standing shall co-operate free of charge in the execution of the provisions of the present chapter.

Article 6.

1. The Government of the Reich shall be authorised to issue decrees and general administrative regulations with a view to the execution of the provisions of the present

chapter. If it deems this necessary, it may also issue supplementary provisions; it may, in particular, enact regulations as regards the method of effecting price reductions, the marking of prices, the prohibition to continue to operate enterprises and the closing down of industrial and commercial premises. It may order that the present chapter or certain provisions thereof shall cease to be applicable and may issue the necessary transitional provisions for that purpose.

2. When the Reich Commissioner issues provisions or regulations, these shall be applicable to the whole territory of the Reich or to parts thereof.

Article 7.

The provisions of the present chapter shall come into force on the day of publication.

2. NEW HUNGARIAN LEGISLATION ON CARTELS.

I. THE HUNGARIAN CARTEL LAW OF OCTOBER 15TH, 1931. (For text, see *Annex.*)

PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS.

Information regarding the position of the legislation prior to the promulgation of this law is contained in my report published in the *Review of the Legal Aspects of Industrial Agreements*.¹ At the end of that report, it was stated that since 1904 endeavours had been made in Hungary to introduce public control over cartels. The new law is based, in its main ideas, largely on the German Decree of 1923. It does not, however, contain the two essential points provided for in the two Articles 8 and 9 of the German law—namely, the withdrawal of members without notice and the preventive censorship of the compulsion exercised by the organisation (embargo, etc.). The Hungarian procedure, contrary not only to the German procedure but also to that prescribed by the Norwegian law, constitutes therefore an entire procedure of public law. As in the case of the German decree, a special jurisdiction is called upon to decide. On the other hand, a special cartel commission is established, as in Norway, having the character of a consultative body appointed to secure the application of the law.

GENERAL STRUCTURE OF THE LAW.

A. *Substantive Provisions.*

Ad *Article 1.*—As in the German decree, the fundamental agreements of all cartels and organisations, in order to be valid, must be *in writing*; the organisations referred to are cartels or other legally established corporations with a similar object—namely, the regulation of economic competition; they therefore include such capitalistic organisations as combines ("Konzerne"), communities of interests (Interessengemeinschaften), patent societies (Patentgemeinschaften), etc., which eliminate competition in important matters by means of agreements; they do not include large undertakings formed by fusion.

¹ Prepared for the Economic Committee by M. Henri Decugis, Mr. Robert E. Olds and Dr. Siegfried Tschierschky : Geneva, 1930 (document E.529(1), pages 67 and 68).

These provisions are amplified by Article 6. The new Articles 17 and 18 of the law, unlike the draft, extend control, at the instance of agricultural interests, to the prices of agricultural produce *on local markets*. These clauses prohibit agreements and other forms of artificial interference which influence market prices to the disadvantage of the producer. This plainly refers to artificial interferences with the free establishment of prices which, owing to their local effects and the fact that they are confined to agricultural produce, do not fall within the same category as the organisations referred to in Articles 1 and 6, and are therefore dealt with separately.

Ad *Article 2*.—Such of these organisations as include even *one* large member undertaking are under a special *obligation to register* their agreements and decisions regarding competition. Notification is compulsory, not only for national cartels, but also, under Order No. 5381/1931.M.E., for foreign cartels, provided even a single member has his offices in Hungary or is domiciled there.

Ad *Article 3*.—When applying for registration, the *legally empowered representatives* of such organisations must be exactly designated and their powers submitted. They must be Hungarian nationals. In the absence of a representative or if the representative is prevented from attending, a solicitor is appointed as *official representative* by the President of the Cartel Court at the cost of the organisation.

Ad *Articles 6 and 7*.—The Articles 6 and 7 contain the *measures* to be taken in case of need against the agreements and decisions mentioned in Articles 1 and 2; such measures may also be directed against any act or method of procedure which is not based on a written document, but has the same object in respect of competition (Article 6, paragraph 1). These articles also expressly include the so-called “trusts” (Article 6, last paragraph, and Article 7, first paragraph)—that is to say, the large individual undertakings mentioned above.

Such action may be taken in cases where the interest of national economy or of the common good is endangered and, in particular, where production, trade or the prices of goods (services rendered are not mentioned) are regulated in a manner unjustified by the economic position and to the detriment of the consumers, the producers or contractors of the same or another branch of industry. From this it may be concluded that *embargoes* come under these sections if they are intended to regulate trade in a manner contrary to public policy or morality and good order, to the detriment of firms in the same branch (outsiders) or other branches—namely, customers of more advanced stage of the economic process—*e.g.*, firms working-up raw materials obtained from a cartel. This situation thus approximately corresponds to that contemplated in Article 4 of the German Cartel Decree.

If these conditions obtain, the *Minister of National Economy* may, in the first place, take action in accordance with Article 6. In virtue of an extensive obligation to give information—a refusal to give such information being regarded under Article 6, paragraph 2, as an admission by the parties concerned of the facts objected to—the Minister may, under paragraph 1, No. 1, endeavour to modify the measures to which objection is taken by means of *negotiations* conducted by himself or initiated by him or by calling in an *arbitration commission*.

If these negotiations fail, and in special cases, he may, however, propose to the Ministry to take steps against the guilty parties by *withdrawing their privileges in respect of taxes, duties and the like*; by *excluding them from public tenders*; or by *special industrial or freight measures*.

According to No. 4 of paragraph one, he may propose, with the agreement of the Cabinet, to *modify or cancel Customs rates*.

He may also propose to the Cartel Court to *prohibit the execution* of a harmful measure

in the sense of Article 6, paragraph 1, by means of a *provisional order* under penalty of a fine. Lastly, he is authorised under No. 6 to order the immediate institution of a public prosecution in accordance with Article 7. If, in the Minister's opinion, it is unnecessary to take *immediate* action, he must, as a rule, obtain the opinion of the Cartel Commission before taking any of the measures in question.

The institution of a *public prosecution* provided for in Article 7 is subject to more serious conditions—*i.e.*, to the existence of more serious facts than those mentioned above—since action is to be taken by the "Causarum regalium Direktorat" ¹ in the Cartel Court only in case of an infringement of the law or of morality or in case of injury to *special* interests; moreover, action can only be taken on the instructions of the Minister.

The Cartel Court may order the dissolution of the organisation itself or forbid the execution of any agreement concluded or decision adopted by it, or the activity or procedure complained of, in all cases under penalty of a fine.

An application for public prosecution (Article 7, penultimate paragraph) may be made to the Minister on production of proof, not only by any authority, but also by any private person. The Minister is not bound to comply with this application but, if it is made by an authority or public body, he must, as a rule, obtain the opinion of the "Cartel Commission" before taking a decision.

Actions brought by *private persons* must, however, concern matters exceeding the scope of purely private interests. The law therefore applies only to cases in which *purely* private interests, such as losses due to an embargo which may not be in itself objectionable, are not involved. Persons whose private interests suffer damage have their remedy, now as hitherto, in the ordinary courts. There is no protection against an embargo, such as is provided by Article 9 of the German law; nor is a member free, as in Germany, to withdraw without notice on the ground of a judgment of the Cartel Court. In this respect, the character of the Hungarian law as being solely in the public interest is logically consistently upheld.

B. Procedural Provisions.

The law provides for the co-operation of the following authorities :

1. The Minister of National Economy;
2. The Cartel Commission;
3. The "Causarum regalium Direktorat";
4. The Cartel Court;
5. The local Market Police (under Articles 17 and 18).

With regard to No. 1, the functions of the Minister are established in detail in the law : Article 2, paragraphs 1, 2, 3, and 4; Article 5, paragraphs 1, 2 and 5; Article 6; Article 7, paragraph 1; Article 10, paragraph 1; Article 13, paragraph 2; Article 14, paragraph 4; Article 17, paragraph 3. His most important substantive powers are those referred to above and are contained in Articles 6 and 7; Article 8, paragraph 2 (preparation of the list of lay assessors of the Cartel Court); Article 10 (application for a provisional order by the Cartel Court); Article 12, paragraph 2 (decision regarding the institution of proceedings "in the public interest", which are necessary in order to discontinue civil or arbitration proceedings); Article 13, paragraph 2 (instructions to

¹ According to information which I have obtained from competent authority, this expression, which is taken from the German translation of the law in the *Pester Lloyd*, is not usual, even in Hungary. The body in question is the "legal representative of the Treasury"; it consists of "official solicitors" who receive a fixed salary, and represents the interests of the Treasury under private law.

the Direktorat regarding actions for invalidating arbitration awards); Article 14, paragraph 1 (application for the imposition of a fine), and paragraph 4 (application for prohibition of the exercise of commercial and industrial activity); and Article 17, paragraph 3 (institution of criminal proceedings).

With regard to No. 2, the *Cartel Commission* (National Commission) is, in accordance with Article 5, an *advisory* body, obviously in the sense of the decisions taken by the Conference of German Jurists in 1928; it is composed of prominent scientists and practical men, acting in an honorary capacity, but on the footing of public officials as regards, for instance, professional secrecy. They are appointed by the Cabinet.

Under Order No. 5382/31 M.E., the manufacturing industries, craftsmen, commerce, agriculture, the general consumer, and labour are to be represented on this commission by at least one member each. The term of office is three years, but the chairman and vice-chairman may be removed before the expiry of that period. The meetings, which are not public, may also be attended by representatives of the Ministers concerned, but these have no vote. The expenses are defrayed by the Ministry of Commerce.

As shown, however, by Article 6, penultimate paragraph, the Minister must, as a rule, take the advice of this Commission, especially in the case of complaints from public authorities and corporations. In accordance with Article 9, paragraph 3, the *Cartel Court* may also request the Cartel Commission to give its opinion or to investigate an expert's report.

With regard to No. 3, as already mentioned, the "Causarum regalium Direktorat" has, in the first place, the powers of a public prosecutor (Article 7, paragraph 1, and Article 10, paragraph 1). It would appear to be of special importance that it is entitled to take action with a view to annulling an *arbitration award* that infringes this law; it can, however, only do so at the request of the Minister (Article 13, paragraph 2). Lastly, it is also entitled, at the request of the Minister, to ask the Cartel Court to inflict penalties (Article 14) and to prohibit the exercise of a business (Article 14, paragraph 1, No. 3). Its prosecution has a *suspensory* effect; an arbitration award cannot be put into effect until the Cartel Court has taken a decision; any private execution guaranteed by the deposit of security is invalid (Article 13, last paragraph).

As regards No. 4, the *Cartel Court* is a *special court* consisting of five members and is attached to the Supreme Court (*curia regis*). The president of the latter is also president of the Cartel Court, and has the right to delegate his powers to his representative or to a divisional president. He prepares a list of judges of the Supreme Court from which two judges are appointed by the president of the Cartel Court for each case. The two lay assessors¹ are appointed from a list of ten experts prepared by the Minister of Justice; this list is in turn extracted from a list of at least thirty experts prepared every three years by the Minister of National Economy (Article 8). The Hungarian Cartel Court is thus, like the German, a joint special tribunal for the whole of the national territory. Its powers have already been mentioned. The cases brought before it are always "prosecutions in the public interest". Its procedure is governed by the principles of civil procedure unless this law contains special provisions to the contrary—for instance, for actions taken in the public interest (Article 12, paragraph 2). In principle, the procedure is *summary*, as these matters are urgent in view of their serious influence on the national economy (Article 9). The employment of advocates by the parties concerned in a cartel action is compulsory, but there is no limit to the number of parties joining in the action (as co-plaintiffs).

The decision of the Cartel Court is binding on the ordinary courts and on the Arbitration Court (Article 12, paragraph 1).

¹ Hitherto there have been no assessors in civil legal procedure.

The Article 12 does not provide for “popular” prosecution similar to that provided for in the German decree (Article 12, paragraph 3), but only for the discontinuance of civil procedure, the appeal to the Minister of National Economy, and the continuation of the civil action when the Minister expressly refuses to bring an “action in the public interest” (Article 7), or gives no decision within an emergency time-limit of thirty days.

On the other hand, as mentioned above, Article 7, paragraph 1, No. 3, provides for a general right to take action by making application to the Minister of National Economy. Such action has the effect of a *plea* put in against the civil action or the arbitration procedure. In view, however, of the Minister’s power of decision (Article 7, last paragraph), it has no greater force than the right granted by the German decree to each party to appeal to the German Minister of National Economy or the Minister of Food and Agriculture, if necessary, through the Government of a State, in which case the Minister has also full power of decision.

The Cartel Court must also decide regarding the above-mentioned *cancellation* of *arbitral awards* (Article 13, paragraph 2). The matter *must* be referred to that Court if the arbitral award is disputed as being a violation of this law, whether this is the main or an accessory reason.

Lastly, the Cartel Court is competent officially to impose *penalties* on the basis of the law, on receipt of an application from the two competent authorities (Minister and “Direktorat”), in the case referred to in Article 14, paragraph 1, No. 3.

Disputes between parties affected by an agreement or a decision within the meaning of the law, in respect of rights accruing from such agreements or decisions or from the invalidity of the legal position together with the rights of third parties, may (Article 11, paragraph 1) form the subject of actions before the civil courts. The further provision (paragraph 2) that agreements which are contrary to the above regulation are void should no doubt be interpreted to mean that an agreement precluding ordinary procedure in favour of arbitration procedure shall in future be void; the latter procedure is therefore only admissible with the actual consent of both parties. Consequently, withdrawals from agreements and decisions or third party claims for compensation may be brought before the civil courts, always, however, subject to the restriction of powers established in Article 12.

As regards No. 5, the *market police* are the lowest authority. If they cannot settle the case, the second administrative authority—the district administrative board—may take proceedings, even provisionally, for petty offences—*i.e.*, may inflict fines. Lastly, the central authority (the Minister) may also take proceedings.

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Under Order No. 5380/31 M.E., the law came into force on October 15th, 1931. A Hungarian commentary by Judge Kamill Sándorffy has been published by the firm of Franklin. Brief critical studies have also been published by Dr. Arthur Meszlény, Higher Privy Councillor and barrister, in the *Ungarisches Wirtschaftsjahrbuch*, seventh year, 1931, and by Dr. Nándor Ranschburg, barrister, in the *Kartell-Rundschau*, 1931, pages 737 *et seq.*

II. PROVISIONS OF THE ORDINANCES RELATING TO THE HUNGARIAN LAW ON CARTELS.

On October 6th, 1931, the Hungarian Government issued three ordinances regarding Law No. XX of 1931 on agreements governing commercial competition.

1. The first ordinance issued under No. Z1.5380/1931.M.E. relates to the putting

into force of the above-mentioned Law and fixes the date of its entry into force at October 15th, 1931.

2. The second ordinance issued under No. Zl.5,381/1931.M.E. contains five chapters consisting of thirty articles which prescribe the rules for submission, declaration and registration stipulated in the above-mentioned law.

(a) The first chapter (Articles 1 to 6) relates to the obligation of submitting agreements and decisions regulating commercial competition.

Under Article 1 and Article 2, paragraph 2, of the law, all written agreements or decisions must be submitted to the Minister of Commerce which contain obligations limiting the production, sale or price of a commodity, or restricting or regulating commercial competition in any other way (cartels and other similar legal relationships). It is stipulated, however, that at least one commercial company or an industrial or commercial enterprise employing more than twenty employees must be a party to the said obligations.

Provisions supplementing or modifying the agreements or decisions which have to be submitted must also be notified when they involve a material change in the legal relationship. The obligation of submission is determined, not by the usual economic or legal description, nor by the outward form of the legal relationship, but by the latter's actual tenor. In the intention of the law, the documents relating to the constitution of the commercial company, association or other body corporate must also be submitted when the formation of the latter aims at regulating the trade in certain goods, and when a commercial company or industrial or commercial undertaking employing more than twenty employees is a party thereto. On the other hand, the obligation of submission does not apply to agreements or decisions concluded by monetary institutions and other credit establishments, or by private insurance companies, with regard to the commercial conditions applicable to their business and their commercial policy in general; as these agreements and decisions do not regulate commercial competition in regard to goods, they are not covered by the provisions of the law.

Agreements or decisions must also be submitted, whatever the nationality or domicile of the parties or the place where the act containing the obligation was drawn up, provided that at least one of the parties has his domicile or establishment in Hungary.

All those who participate in the conclusion of the agreement or the taking of the decision are under the obligation to submit it. For reasons of expediency, the above-mentioned ordinance contains special provisions regarding agreements or decisions exclusively concluded or taken by State or communal undertakings, or by enterprises created in virtue of a legislative enactment or ordinance. In such cases, instead of submitting the agreements and decisions, the Minister exercising administrative supervision, and the municipalities or communes concerned, communicate the necessary particulars to the Minister of Commerce for registration.

The time-limits provided for submission are :

1. Forty-five days as from the entry into force of the law when the legal relationship became effective before the entry into force of the law;

2. Fifteen days as from the formation of the legal relationship when the latter arises subsequently to the entry into force of the law.

(b) Chapter II (Articles 7 to 12) regulates, first of all, the mode of submission of the documents subject to this formality. It lays down that an original and two copies of each document must be submitted to the Minister of Commerce. This chapter also lays down the procedure applicable when submission has not been made within the prescribed time-limit or has been made in an improper manner. It is further prescribed

that, when the document has been regularly submitted, the original, duly attested, shall be returned to the submitting party.

(c) Chapter III (Articles 13 to 22) contains provisions regarding the designation of representatives. According to the law, the parties to one of the agreements or decisions mentioned, when submitting the document, must designate at least one and not more than three Hungarian subjects domiciled in Hungary, stating their rank or occupation and their domicile, to act as their representatives before the courts or before other authorities in all matters connected with the agreement or decision, to make binding declarations on their behalf and to receive the decisions and other official communications which may be notified to them. The representatives must be designated in writing, and, if possible, in the act accompanying the submission of the document.

Furthermore, the chapter in question contains detailed provisions regarding the attributions of the representative and the possibility of collective representation in the case of more than one representative being designated. It also contains the requisite provisions with regard to the powers of the representative and the declaration of acceptance of the said powers, as well as the termination of the latter. Lastly, it prescribes the cases in which the President of the Cartel Court may designate a provisional representative.

(d) Chapter IV (Articles 23 to 28) contains provisions with regard to registration. The Minister of Commerce keeps a register showing the parties to the agreements and decisions submitted, the subject of the latter and the representatives designated (cartel register); entries in this register can only be made in virtue of written orders.

The Minister of Commerce may order that, in addition to the keeping of the cartel register, registers of names and subjects and other auxiliary registers should be kept.

To safeguard important existing economic interests, the documents submitted and the ministerial acts relating to decisions and agreements with regard to commercial competition have to be regarded as confidential. Special importance must be attached to safeguarding trade and manufacturing secrets.

As regards the cartel register, the ordinance only permits the communication of information and the delivery of copies to a limited extent. Thus, details from the cartel register and copies of certain pages may only be delivered to persons who can prove that they have a legitimate right to obtain such information.

(e) Chapter V, which relates to the final provisions, fixes October 15th, 1931, as the date for the entry into force of the ordinance.

3. The third ordinance, issued under No. Zl.5382/1931.M.E., relates to the organisation and competence of the Cartel Commission.

(a) In accordance with Chapter I (Articles 1 to 3) this Commission, consisting of Chairman, Vice-Chairman and nine members, is renewable every three years. The Chairman and Vice-Chairman are appointed by the Head of the State on the proposal of the Government; the members of the Commission are appointed by the Government as follows: seven members are proposed by the Minister of Commerce, who submits at least one representative each of industry, handicrafts, commerce and agriculture; the two other members of the Commission are proposed by the Minister of Social Welfare and Labour, one representing consumers and the other workers. After the expiration of the period of three years, the Chairman, Vice-Chairman and members of the Commission may be reappointed. The Chairman, Vice-Chairman and members may be removed before the end of their term of office.

(b) Chapter II (Articles 4 to 10) regulates the activities of the Cartel Commission. The Cartel Commission may give opinions on questions connected with the application of the law, either on the request of the Minister of Commerce or other authorities or on

its own initiative. The Commission meets on the summons of the Chairman, Vice-Chairman or member temporarily acting as Chairman. As a rule, subjects are submitted by a Rapporteur designated by the Chairman, who at the same time states his opinion of the case in question. The members of the Commission and the representatives of the Ministers may speak and, if necessary, the Director of the Fiscal Law Department. The Commission expresses its opinion in the form of resolutions. Only the Chairman, Vice-Chairman and members of the Commission may vote. In case of a difference of opinion, the Commission adopts its resolutions by a majority vote; in the case of equality of votes, the Chairman has a casting vote.

Minutes are kept of the meetings of the Commission. Meetings are not public.

The secretarial work of the Commission is done by the staff placed at its disposal by the Minister of Commerce.

The expenditure connected with the work of the Commission is borne by the Minister of Commerce.

(c) Chapter III, which contains the final provisions, fixes October 15th, 1931, as the date of entry into force of the ordinance.

Annex.

LAW OF OCTOBER 15TH, 1931, ON THE SUBJECT OF AGREEMENTS
FOR THE CONTROL OF COMMERCIAL COMPETITION.

Article 1.

All agreements or decisions involving the compulsory limitation of the output, sale or selling-price of any commodity, or otherwise controlling commercial competition (*e.g.*, cartels or other legal arrangements with a similar object), shall be null and void unless embodied in writing. The same rule shall apply to any agreements or decisions amending or changing such original agreements or resolutions.

Article 2.

All agreements and decisions covered by Article 1, at least one of the parties to which is a trading company or an industrial or commercial undertaking employing more than twenty persons, shall be submitted for registration to the Minister of National Economy within fifteen days of the date on which such agreement was come to or such decision adopted. The same rule shall apply to agreements or decisions of a similar nature amending or changing original agreements or decisions.

The Ministry is empowered to make regulations for the compulsory submission of other agreements and decisions which affect, in whole or in part, the economic life of the country or its trade, but are not covered by the provisions of the previous paragraph, even if such agreements or decisions do not fall within the scope of Article 1.

Agreements or decisions covered by Article 1 shall not be valid unless, in addition to being embodied in writing, they are also submitted for registration when such registration is required by Article 2.

In case of the non-submission or incomplete submission of such documents, the Minister of National Economy may require the parties concerned to carry out or to complete that formality; and the party concerned is bound to comply with such demand.

The obligation to submit for registration shall be binding on each and every party to the agreement or decision, but due performance of the obligation by one of the parties shall discharge the others of their liability.

Article 3.

When a document is submitted for registration, one or more but not more than three persons, whose status or employment and domicile shall be specified, shall be nominated to represent the parties under obligation before the courts or any other authority in matters connected with the agreement or decision, to make binding declarations on their behalf, and to accept decisions and other official communications applicable to them. These representatives must be Hungarian nationals resident in Hungary.

When more than one representative has been nominated, each of them severally shall have authority to represent the parties concerned, unless the latter have provided otherwise in their declaration.

The declaration shall be accompanied by the document empowering the representative and, if the declaration is not made by the representative himself, by his written acceptance. In the event of the failure or inability of the representative to carry out his duties, the President of the Cartel Court shall, at the expense of the parties under obligation to make the declaration, nominate a temporary representative from among the advocates registered at the Bar, who shall act as representative until the parties have given notice in proper form of the appointment of a representative.

Article 4.

Documents submitted shall be treated as confidential, and special care must be taken to safeguard trade secrets and secret processes.

The Ministry will issue detailed regulations regarding the procedure for making submissions and declarations, and regarding registration.

Article 5.

A national commission (Cartel Commission) shall be set up at Budapest, composed of a President, Vice-President and nine members, to give advice when necessary on matters connected with the enforcement of the present law; the President and the Vice-President shall be nominated by the Head of the State on the recommendation of the Ministry; seven members shall be nominated by the Minister of National Economy, and two shall be selected by the Ministry, on the recommendation of the Minister of Public Welfare and Labour, from among persons familiar with the practical or theoretical aspect of the subject. Membership of the Commission shall be honorary.

The representatives of the Ministers and the representatives of the "Causarum regaliū Direktorat" shall also be entitled to attend the meetings of the Cartel Commission and to take part in its debates.

No decision shall be valid unless at least five members, including the President, are present. Members concerned in the matter under discussion shall not be permitted to take part in the debate.

Should any industry concerned in the matter under discussion be thus deprived of representation, the President of the Commission may nominate as a supplementary member a person familiar with the theoretical or practical side of the matters in which the industry in question is concerned.

The members of the Cartel Commission, when carrying out their duties, are subject in the same way as public officials to the penalties laid down in the penal laws and to the obligation of professional secrecy.

The Ministry shall make the necessary detailed regulations regarding the organisation and work of the Cartel Commission.

Article 6.

If, by reason of the agreements or decisions covered by Article 1, or of any other action or policy directed towards the ends mentioned therein (even though not embodied in any written agreement or decision), the economic interests of the country or the public welfare are imperilled, and particularly in any case in which it is sought to control the manufacture, sale or price of any commodity in a manner not justified by the economic situation and to the detriment of consumers, producers or distributors, whether in the branch of industry primarily concerned or in any other branch, the Minister of National Economy may take the following measures :

(1) He may order an official enquiry into the matter, and in connection therewith may require a statement of all steps taken for the enforcement of the agreements or decision under enquiry and other data, as well as explanations and the submission of written documents; he may, through his representative, enquire into the management and administration of the organisations concerned, and may call for the production of their books and other written material; he may further, if necessary, demand statements from partners, employees, or other persons, and may require such statements to be made on oath in court.

(2) Should he deem it necessary, in the interests of the national economy or of the public welfare, to annul, change or amend an agreement or decision, their methods of enforcement, or any other measure, or to put an end to any existing practice or policy, he may take steps to reach an agreed arrangement by direct or indirect negotiations, with the assistance, if necessary, of a board of arbitration, and may take decisions in accordance with the result of such negotiations.

(3) In the event of no satisfactory outcome from the procedure described in paragraph 2, he may submit to the Ministry a proposal for compelling the parties to cease from action detrimental to the economic interests of the country or to the public welfare, by withdrawing their fiscal, Customs, or other privileges; by excluding them from Government contracts; and by trade regulations or railway restrictions.

The Ministry shall not be entitled under the present paragraph to exceed its legal powers; nevertheless, provided that the conditions required by this law are satisfied, it may take action, even if the special conditions required for such action under other laws are not fulfilled. Should, however, the Ministry, acting under the present paragraph, consider it necessary to cancel trading licences or other similar administrative licences without which the parties could not carry on their commercial or industrial affairs, an official application to this effect must be made by the Ministry to the Court (Articles 7, 10 and 14).

(4) He may submit to the Ministry a proposal to alter or abolish certain Customs duties or to take other Customs measures; the decision of the Ministry on such proposal shall be made without reference to the legal conditions and limitations governing such measures.

(5) If circumstances require it, he may request the Cartel Court to authorise provisional measures (Article 10).

(6) He may further give directions for prosecutions in the public interest (Article 7).

In order to avoid the official enquiry contemplated in No. 1, the Minister of National Economy may call upon the parties to supply information, at the same time intimating that, should they fail to submit or disclose the information required, the facts

alleged will be regarded as proved, and that the necessary steps will be taken to deal with them.

As a general rule, the Cartel Commission should be consulted before any action involving a decision on the issue, unless the matter is one which brooks no delay.

The present article shall apply, *mutatis mutandis*, to any commercial enterprise which, even without any agreement or understanding with other enterprises, independently exploits its predominant position in the market by taking action or adopting a policy which endangers the economic interests of the country or the public welfare, as set out in paragraph 1.

Article 7.

If the agreements and decisions covered by Article 1, or the manner of their application, or the organisation resulting therefrom, or any action or policy of the nature specified in the first and last paragraphs of Article 6, are contrary to law or morality, or specially harmful to the economic interests of the country or the public welfare as provided in Article 6, it shall be lawful for the "Causarum regalium Direktorat", on instructions from the Minister of National Economy, to apply to the Cartel Court (application in the public interest) for an injunction ordering any or all of the following steps as circumstances may require :

(1) The dissolution of the organisation set up by agreement or decision, and the discontinuance, under pecuniary penalty, of its activities.

(2) A prohibition, under pecuniary penalty, to carry out the agreement or decision.

(3) The discontinuance, under pecuniary penalty, of the illegal acts or policy.

The Cartel Court shall specify the amount of the penalty in a decision ordering such action (Article 49 of Law LIV: 1912).

It shall be open to any public body, or to any private person whose interests are involved, to submit to the Minister of National Economy the information and evidence at their disposal and to request him to direct that proceedings be instituted in the public interest.

The Minister of National Economy is not bound to comply with a request of this nature, but if the demand is made by a public authority or corporation, the Minister shall as a rule decide thereon after consulting the Cartel Commission.

Article 8,

The Cartel Court shall be a special court, set up within the Royal Curia, in the form of a panel composed of the President, two judges and two assessors.

The President of the Cartel Court shall be the President of the Royal Curia, or, on his nomination, the second President or a divisional President of the Royal Curia. The two members of the Cartel Court shall be chosen by the president of the court to which the case has been referred from among the divisional presidents and judges designated in advance by the President of the Curia. The assessors of the Cartel Court shall be chosen by the president of the court to which the case has been referred from among the ten experts designated in advance every three years by the Minister of Justice from a list, drawn up by the Minister of National Economy, containing the names of not less than thirty experts.

Article 9.

Proceedings instituted in the public interest must be taken against all parties known to be concerned; when a representative has been declared or appointed under Article 3, notice of the action must be given to him. Every party concerned in the suit may also take part in the case individually by employing a legal representative.

Except as otherwise provided in the present law, the rules of the Civil Procedure Code shall apply *mutatis mutandis*. The investigation and decision of the case shall be treated as a matter of urgency.

The Court, acting independently or otherwise, may further request the Cartel Commission to give an opinion or to examine an expert report.

When an action is brought in the public interest, the defendant's costs shall not be chargeable to the Treasury, even if the case is dismissed.

Similarly, the relevant legal principles cannot be employed for the purpose of claiming damages against the Treasury in respect of administrative action taken under the present law.

Article 10.

Where an urgent decision is essential in the public interest, the Cartel Court may, on the demand of the Minister of National Economy, but in action brought in the public interest, only at the request of the "Causarum regalium Direktorat", provisionally suspend, under pecuniary penalty, the carrying into effect of the agreement, decision, or disposition, and the continuance of the action or policy called in question; the Court may also suspend provisionally all obligations deriving therefrom, or take any other provisional steps required in the public interest.

The Cartel Court shall, either on application or acting independently, cancel the provisional decision when the reasons for the order no longer operate.

Article 11.

Nothing in the present law shall bar the parties affected by the agreement or decision from claiming through the ordinary forms of law the rights accruing to them either from their mutual obligations, or from the cancellation of such obligations; the same applies to third party rights against them.

Any agreement to the contrary shall be null and void.

Article 12.

The decision of the Cartel Court is binding on the ordinary law courts and on arbitral tribunals.

If in an ordinary law court or in an arbitral tribunal the issue is raised whether the agreement, decision, or action of an organisation comes under the provisions of paragraph 1 of Article 7, the hearing of the case shall be suspended, and the Minister of National Economy shall be asked to give instructions for legal action in the public interest, in order to obtain a decision on the point. The provisions of the present law with regard to actions in the public interest shall also apply, *mutatis mutandis*, to such actions. If the Minister of National Economy informs the ordinary law court or the arbitral tribunal that he does not consider it desirable to cause an action to be brought in the public interest, or if no notification of the decision taken on this request is received by the court within thirty days, the hearing shall be resumed.

Article 13.

The arbitral tribunal shall be bound to give notice to the "Causarum regalium Direktorat" of every award rendered by it in any action arising out of an agreement, decision, action or policy coming under the provisions of the present law. The award of the arbitral tribunal shall not become effective until after the lapse of fifteen days from the date of such notification.

In addition to the grounds mentioned in Article 748 of the Civil Procedure Code, the award of the arbitral tribunal may be set aside by means of legal action if it is contrary to any of the provisions of the present law. A demand for the setting-aside of the award on the ground that it is in breach of the present law can only be put forward by the "Causarium regalium Direktorat" acting on instructions from the Minister of National Economy. Any appeal based solely, or besides other reasons, on alleged violation of the provisions of the present law must be heard by the Cartel Court.

The starting of an action by the "Causarum regalium Direktorat" shall suspend the execution of the award of the arbitral tribunal until such time as the Cartel Court has pronounced judgment.

Any agreement between the parties whereby the award of the arbitral tribunal may be executed extra-judicially, if the fine has previously been deposited, shall be null and void.

Article 14.

On application by the "Causarum regalium Direktorat", submitted by order of the Minister of National Economy, the Cartel Court shall inflict fines as follows :

(1) On any person who, in contempt of law and without subsequent excuse, fails to submit an agreement or decision covered by Article 1;

(2) On any person who, without reasonable excuse, fails to comply with the summons sent to him under Article 6, paragraph 1, No 1, or prevents the execution of the order pronounced;

(3) Either on application or on its own initiative, on any person who, notwithstanding the infliction of a fine by the Cartel Court under Article 7, paragraph 1, Nos. 1 to 3, gives effect to a decision or agreement the execution of which has been forbidden by the Cartel Court, or performs an action or adopts a policy which has been forbidden by the Cartel Court.

In assessing fines imposed under the present article or under Articles 7 and 10, regard shall be had to the actual or potential profits accruing to the defendant from the illegal action in question, and to his financial position; otherwise there shall be no limit to the amount of the fine that may be imposed.

All persons on whom fines are imposed, and also the organisation concerned, are jointly and severally liable.

If the Cartel Court has repeatedly inflicted fines on the same person under Nos. 2 and 3 of paragraph 1, such person may be prohibited, either at the request of the Minister of National Economy or as a result of fresh legal action undertaken in the public interest at the request of the "Causarum regalium Direktorat", from engaging in any industrial or commercial activity.

Article 15.

When the fine is not demanded during the course of an action undertaken in the public interest, the penalty shall be settled, *mutatis mutandis*, in accordance with the procedure in commercial cases.

The Royal Court has jurisdiction in cases arising out of Article 14, paragraph 1, Nos. 1 and 2, and the Cartel Court in those arising out of Article 14, paragraph 1, No. 3, and paragraph 4.

The Minister of Justice may by regulation take any special decisions which may be necessary. No action shall lie when more than three years have elapsed from the date on which the illegal act was committed; no fine may be levied after the lapse of five years from the confirmation of the decision.

Article 16.

Agreements entered into or decisions agreed to before the coming into force of the present law shall, if not already in writing, be embodied in writing within thirty days of the entry into force of the law. Such documents, as are required under Article 2 to be submitted, shall be submitted to the Minister of National Economy within forty-five days of the entry into force of the law.

Article 17.

Any understanding, combination, or other measure, the object of which is the manipulation, to the detriment of producers, of the free and natural level of market prices for agricultural produce, is hereby forbidden.

The local authorities shall take the necessary steps, through the market police, to prevent the influencing of price levels in the manner referred to in the previous paragraph. These authorities shall be required to suppress by all legal means at their disposal any abuses of this nature which may come to their notice.

Should the market police be unable to suppress these abuses, or should it appear, from a comparison of the local prices of any product with the national prices or with the rates quoted on the Budapest Commercial and Stock Exchange, that, all the circumstances being taken into account, the prices consistently received by the producer are so disproportionately low as to give ground for a presumption that such low prices are due to abuses of the nature dealt with in paragraph 1, the Minister of National Economy, acting in concert with the Minister concerned, may, either on a reasoned request from the Administrative Commission or on his own initiative, declare that, until further orders, proceedings may be instituted for breach of the provisions of Article 18 in respect either of agricultural produce offered for sale on the market or of certain specified commodities. In urgent cases, the Administrative Commission itself may provisionally order similar measures, pending action by the Minister of National Economy on the lines proposed.

Article 18.

Unless such action is punishable by a heavier penalty, any person who concurs or co-operates with others or spreads false rumours, with the object of influencing the free and natural level of market prices for agricultural produce to the detriment of producers, shall be guilty of an offence punishable by a fine.

Such offences fall within the jurisdiction of the administrative authority acting as a police court, and of the State police within the limits of their powers.

These proceedings can only be instituted in respect of acts committed subsequently to the taking of the decision provided for in Article 17.

When the sentence has been made definitive, it must be transmitted to the "Causarum regalium Direktorat" in order that the latter may make proposals as to the decisions to be taken under the present law or otherwise.

Article 19.

The Ministry shall decide by regulation the date of the coming into force of the present law. The necessary arrangements for the putting into force of Articles 17 and 18 shall be embodied in a special regulation to be issued by the Minister of the Interior in agreement with the Minister of National Economy. In other respects, the Minister concerned shall be responsible for the execution of the present law. If the post of Minister of National Economy is vacant, the duties imposed by the present law on the Minister of National Economy shall be performed by the Minister of Commerce.

The administrative work involved by the present law shall be performed by the staff of the Ministry of Commerce.

Section of Economic Relations

REVIEW
OF THE
ECONOMIC COUNCILS
IN THE DIFFERENT COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD

Prepared for the Economic Committee

by

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I. INTRODUCTORY NOTE BY THE SECRETARIAT

1. Resolution of the Twelfth Assembly. — 2. Enquiry by the Economic Committee. — 3. Principal Types of Economic Councils. — 4. Co-operation of Economic Councils in the Work of the League of Nations.

I. RESOLUTION OF THE TWELFTH ASSEMBLY.

In September 1931, M. Bottai, then the Italian Minister of Corporations, submitted to the Second Committee of the twelfth Assembly, on behalf of the Italian delegation, the following draft resolution :

“ The Assembly,

“ Considering that it would be desirable to encourage the formation and development of national institutions (national economic councils) representing the most important economic and social elements in every State ;

“ Considering that institutions of this nature already exist—although with different methods and with different powers—in a certain number of countries, especially in Europe ;

“ Convinced of the desirability of utilising such institutions as much as possible in the work of improving international economic relations :

“ Requests the Council to seek the most appropriate means of providing for the direct representation of national economic councils within the League of Nations.”

This draft therefore proposed to recommend the setting up of national economic councils in countries where they did not already exist and, further, the association of these national economic councils with the work of the League of Nations.

After an exhaustive discussion of the Italian delegation's proposal, the Second Committee submitted to the Assembly the following report (document A.75.1931.II.B, page 8) :

“ International economic co-operation could no doubt attain more considerable results if the principal elements in each of the national economic systems, having been associated in good time with the preparation of these results, were disposed to accept the obligations which their Governments might enter into in the international sphere.

“ Further, a more or less direct participation of the different economic circles in the studies, researches and debates initiated by the League of Nations with regard to problems of common interest would be likely to prepare, in each country, an enlightened body of public opinion giving international agreements the best chances of success.

“ During the year 1931, two meetings have already been held at Geneva between the representatives of national economic councils with a view to the common study of the causes of the present economic depression, and it appears that they have already given good results. The Committee considers that further steps should be taken in this direction. When organisations of this kind function in a larger number of countries, having studied the same questions, meetings

of these organisations under the auspices of the League of Nations will bring a particularly valuable contribution to the examination of the grave problems of the present day.

"The Committee thinks it sufficient to draw the Council's attention to the utility of ensuring the co-operation of these national economic councils in the work of the League of Nations, leaving it to the Council to seek the best means of carrying this idea into effect. It has been suggested in the Committee that this aim might be achieved by means of a suitable modification in the existing Economic Consultative Committee."

On the basis of this report, the Second Committee proposed to the Assembly, and the latter adopted, the following resolution :

"The Assembly,

"Considering that it would be desirable to associate with the work of the League of Nations institutions (national economic councils) representing the most important economic and social elements in certain States ;

"Considering that institutions of this nature already exist—although with different methods and with different powers—in a number of countries, especially in Europe ;

"Convinced of the desirability of utilising these institutions as much as possible in the work of improving international economic relations :

"Requests the Council to seek the most appropriate means of providing for the co-operation of national economic councils in the work of the League of Nations."¹

It will be noted that, not wishing to express an opinion on the internal economic policy of the various countries, the Assembly did not adopt the first paragraph of the resolution proposed by the Italian delegation, but, on the other hand, expressed itself in favour of the co-operation of national economic councils in the work of the League of Nations and asked the Council to seek the most appropriate means to this end.

2. ENQUIRY BY THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE.

In undertaking the preliminary investigations entrusted to it by the Council, the Economic Committee felt it should first obtain as full and accurate information as possible on the existence, constitution, powers and operation of economic councils or similar bodies in the various countries.

Having, by means of enquiries made from its members and from other competent authorities, collected a large amount of information on the subject, the Economic Committee secured the assistance of Mlle. Elli LINDNER, Docteur ès Sciences économiques, author of a work entitled *Die Wirtschaftsrate in Europa*. Mlle. Lindner kindly undertook to collate, complete and work up the information collected.

The result of this work is summarised in the present publication, which contains as full information as possible regarding the constitution and operation of economic councils in the various countries, as well as a systematic classification designed to show the various forms taken by these institutions in the different countries, to reveal the analogies and divergencies prevailing, and to define their rights and duties, their

¹ See document A.75.1931.IIB, page 10, resolution No. 7.

composition, organisation and methods of work. It also deals with the position of economic councils in regard to Parliaments, Governments and other advisory bodies, and, finally, their share in the exercise of certain legislative and executive functions within the framework of the constitution.

3. PRINCIPAL TYPES OF ECONOMIC COUNCILS.

As classified by Mlle. Lindner, economic councils may be divided into two main groups :

The *first group* comprises the economic councils of France, Germany and Italy, which, being formed on the basis of a wide representation of economic circles, have an effective influence on national economic policy, possess the right of initiative, and co-operate in preparing Bills of an economic character before they are submitted to Parliament for approval. There is, however, a fundamental difference between the French and German economic councils and the Council of Corporations. Whereas the two former bodies confine themselves to strictly advisory functions, the Italian Council of Corporations can in certain circumstances take decisions, though its powers are, generally speaking, limited by the right of veto held by the Prime Minister.

The *second group*, which is much the larger, includes a number of various bodies consisting of economic experts or representatives of various professions invited by the Government or by a member of the Government to give their opinions on questions affecting the national economy generally or on special questions a study of which is of particular interest to the economic life of the country.

Although their existence is mentioned in this work, Inter-Ministerial Committees and other similar committees occasionally used by Governments for the consideration of special economic questions should not be included among economic councils properly so called.

4. CO-OPERATION OF ECONOMIC COUNCILS IN THE WORK OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS.

The data contained in this pamphlet will enable the Council to judge whether, to what extent and in what way the co-operation of economic councils of all kinds in the work of the League of Nations can best be secured.

It was suggested in the Second Committee that this aim could be achieved by a suitable modification of the *Economic Consultative Committee* of the League of Nations.

The latter was formed as the result of resolutions passed by the Assembly and the Council respectively on September 24th and 27th, 1927. In making appointments to the Consultative Committee, the Council, moreover, endeavoured to preserve the well-balanced composition which had characterised the Preparatory Committee for the World Economic Conference of 1927. It endeavoured, therefore, to give in this new Committee as fair representation as possible to the most important factors in economic life : trade, industry, agriculture, labour.

The Consultative Committee's terms of reference were to "follow up the application of the recommendations of the World Economic Conference of 1927". It held two sessions—in 1928 and 1929. Its three-year term of office, which expired in September

1930, was prolonged by the Council up to the end of 1930, though no decision has yet been taken as to its further existence and operation.

It would, therefore, in any case be necessary to await the Council's decisions on this subject before seeing whether the representation of economic councils could be secured by a modification of the composition of the Consultative Committee.

Furthermore, the question as to how economic councils could co-operate in the work of the League of Nations and possibly be represented on its technical bodies would necessarily depend on the existence and nature of these councils in the various countries as described in the present publication. This study shows, however, that not all countries have institutions which can claim to be called economic councils, and that where they do exist they differ entirely from one another in constitution, functions and importance.

It would therefore seem that the problem put before the Council would be easier to solve if, as recommended in the first paragraph of the draft resolution submitted by the Italian delegation to the Second Committee, national economic councils were soon to be formed in the various countries and if, as a result of a parallel development, such institutions were in all countries more or less on the same footing as regards their composition, functions and rôle in the economic life of the country.

II. PREFACE

The task I have been asked to undertake—a study of the collaboration of occupational circles with the State—has afforded me an opportunity of going more deeply into the problem which formed the subject of the pamphlet I published in 1930, entitled *Die Wirtschaftsräte in Europa* (Economic Councils in Europe). I formed the project of expanding my pamphlet immediately after its publication, and began researches in a variety of directions. The extension of these researches to as many countries as possible was obstructed by many difficulties. Foremost amongst these were the collection of material and the linguistic diversity of the legal texts. The material which I have used has been placed at my disposal partly by the League of Nations Secretariat and partly by the very well-stocked documentation service of the Bureau of the provisional German Economic Council. In particular, thanks to the sympathetic help received from the commercial sections of the foreign embassies and legations in Germany, supplementary information has been obtained from some of the foreign chambers of commerce in Berlin (for instance, those of Greece and Roumania), and likewise from the commercial sections of the German Legation in Denmark and the German Chamber of Commerce for Spain in Barcelona. I have also drawn freely upon my personal observations made during the interviews I was fortunate enough to be granted in the course of my travels in Geneva, France, Italy and Spain. I am indebted for many valuable suggestions to Dr. Karl Braunias, of Vienna. To all who have helped in the preparation of the present work I tender my warmest thanks.

As will appear from the foregoing, my investigations have been based on up-to-date material, more especially the texts of laws and standing orders, reports of meetings, official communications, articles in reviews and newspapers, pamphlets, and books, and, indeed, this is the only method possible in dealing with a question of topical interest. Any lengthy preliminary discussion of theoretical points would have lain outside the scope of this work and been entirely inappropriate to its purpose; even quotations from other writers have therefore been reduced to what was strictly necessary.

Needless to say, the greater part of this survey has been devoted to the countries of Europe. This is due to the fact that the material at my disposal regarding the extra-European countries was relatively small and, further, more difficult to obtain, owing to the remoteness of those countries. There was also the circumstance that, outside Europe the question of economic councils has not yet attained the same importance as in Europe, whose countries, economically speaking, are now partners in a common fate. Moreover, my previous studies enabled me to broaden the basis of my work in this connection.

The present survey is the direct outcome of the resolution adopted by the League of Nations Assembly at its meeting on September 24th, 1931, on the proposal of the Italian delegate, M. Bottai, then Minister for Corporations.¹

As a result of this decision, the Director of the Economic Relations Section of the League Secretariat did me the honour of inviting me to conduct an enquiry into

¹ See Introductory Note by the Secretariat.

existing economic councils and to submit a report to the League Economic Committee. This task was all the more congenial to me, as I feel that international co-operation in the economic sphere through the development of production and the technique of communications, which need a wider field for their full development, is now more necessary than ever. This development will follow its own laws unless it is previously directed along the right lines through far-sighted accommodation in the interests of all.

How the national economic councils could initiate this essential international co-operation, and how life and substance could be infused into M. Bottai's proposal and the League Assembly's resolution, is still undecided, and will require prompt solution if real progress is to be made.

Dr. Eli LINDNER.

III. MONOGRAPHS CONCERNING THE ORGANISATION AND WORKING OF THE ECONOMIC COUNCILS IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD

A. AFRICA.

Union of South Africa.

The Union of South Africa does *not* possess any central consultative assembly comparable to the European economic councils, but the Government, in the case of special questions, can apply to a whole series of economic bodies for their opinion or advice—namely:

1. The Research Grant Board;
2. The Board of Trade and Industries;
3. The Division of Economics and Markets;
4. The Wage Board;
5. The Shipping Board.

1. *The Research Grant Board* has been in existence since 1918. Its duties include the giving of advice to the Government with a view to the encouragement of research work in the Union. It can propose practical measures. In particular, it administers and allots Government subsidies for research into the position of industry and trade in oversea countries. It acts independently, but collaborates with the Board of Trade and Industries, and particularly with its Department of Mines and Industries. The Research Grant Board submits reports to the Minister of Mines and Industries and to the Minister of Education. It is also a member of the International Research Council.

2. *The Board of Trade and Industries* was set up on July 6th, 1921, reorganised in 1923 and placed, by an Act of 1924 (Act No. 33), under the Minister of Mines and Industries. It consists of a president and three other members appointed for a maximum period of three years. The salary of the members is fixed by the Governor-General.

In accordance with the above-mentioned Act, the Board is required to advise the Government on all questions concerning the utilisation of the natural resources of the Union, the development of industry and trade in South Africa and the grant of subsidies to South-African industry in the form of export bounties or in other forms.

The Board is also required to inform the Government of the effects of financial measures on trade and industry and to collaborate in the revision of Customs tariffs and the settlement of complaints resulting from the application of the tariffs. It must draw the Government's attention to any agreements in the nature of a monopoly (cartels, trusts, etc.) which are contrary to the general interest, and to dumping measures taken by countries from which the Union purchases goods.

Lastly, the Board of Trade and Industries has to advise the Government on the following matters: the supply of raw materials, the study of transport questions and markets, wholesale and retail prices, problems of commercial legislation and other economic questions which the Ministry submits to the Board.

The Board's reports must state the results of the study of the various questions submitted to it, taking into account their various aspects, and particularly the possible effects on consumers and workers of the measures advocated. With a view to the study of any question, the Board may ask for information and consult books or documents. Its members are required to observe secrecy.

The Board's proposals and reports are submitted to Parliament. Up to the present, 118 reports have been presented. These are usually published in the *Journal of Industries* or in the form of White Books.¹ In 1926 the *Journal of Industries* was replaced by the *Commercial and Industrial Gazette*. This journal is published monthly by the Board of Trade and Industries and contains the Board's reports and other particulars of its activities.²

3. *The Division of Economics and Markets* was founded in 1925. It consists of the following sections: Conditions of Production and Sale, Administration and Co-operatives. Its object is to assist rural enterprises in regard to all economic questions—for instance, by the study of conditions of agricultural labour and credits; the standardisation of products; researches into the position of markets, transport and distribution; the encouragement of co-operative societies; the study of agricultural methods and accountancy, etc.

4. Under Act No. 27 of 1925, amended by Act No. 23 of 1930, a *Wage Board* consisting of three members was set up. With a view to special enquiries, the Government can appoint two other members selected from among employers and workers. The Wage Board deals with a case at the request of the competent Minister or on the proposal of a duly constituted trade union or employers' association. It collaborates with the Board of Trade and Industries mentioned above.

5. *The Shipping Board*, which was created under Act No. 20 of 1929, consists of six members having the power to vote, three of whom are appointed by the Governor-General. These members must not be officials. The Association of Chambers of Commerce, the group of Chambers of Industry and the Agricultural Federation of South Africa each appoint one member. There are also three members who have no power to vote; these are officials. The Board thus consists of nine members in all. It is required to submit reports to the competent Minister on all questions affecting transport to oversea countries and between the ports of the Union.³

B. AMERICA.

1. Argentine.

Argentine has organised a system of economic committees which are so co-ordinated that by co-operation they take the place of a single economic council in relation to the Government. These committees, to each of which a particular set of questions is allotted, are permanent official organisations. They direct the economic policy of the country, by means of expert advice, into the paths prescribed for it by the natural constitution of the soil and the industrial development.

¹ A list will be found in the *Official Year-Book of the Union of South Africa*, No. 11. See also the publications of the Government Printer, Pretoria.

² See the list of special reports in the *Year-Book*, No. 12, page 552.

³ The foregoing particulars have been taken from the *Year-Book of the Union of South Africa*, No. 12, 1929-30, pages 174, 202, 377, 550 and 690.

They are as follows :

1. *The National Committee for the Furtherance of Industry*, which was established by a decree dated January 15th, 1931, and whose duty it is to decide what branches of industry must be protected, transformed or encouraged by means of special tax reductions. The Committee is composed of two representatives of the Argentine Industrial Union (" Unión Industrial Argentina "), two representatives of the railway companies, one representative each of the Mercantile Exchange of Buenos Aires and of the Mercantile Exchange of Rosario, a representative of the Argentine Peasants' Association, and the Director-General for Trade and Industry in the Argentine Ministry for Agriculture and Trade.

2. *The Permanent Committee for the Study of Foreign Trade*, which was established by a decree dated January 20th, 1931. It is presided over by the Minister for Foreign Affairs. The following also have seats and votes : the Director-General for Statistics, the Director-General for Industry and Trade, the Counsellor of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, the Head of the Customs and Port Organisation, and the Head of the Trade Department of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs. The composition of this Committee is therefore quite different from that of the previous one. In the former, representatives of industrial bodies work in conjunction with Government representatives, while in the latter it is only officials of the competent services who consult together.

3. *The National Committee for the Study of Customs Tariffs*, which was established on January 23rd, 1931. This Committee also consists only of officials such as the Inspector-General of Customs Revenue, the Head of the Customs Board and the Auditor and Secretary-General of the Customs authorities, and cannot therefore be compared with economic councils properly so called. There are also the following committees :

4. *The Committee for the Control of Expenditure*, which was established by a decree dated June 2nd, 1931.

5. *The Permanent Budget Committee*, in existence since December 16th, 1931, under a decree dated June 2nd, 1931.

6. *The National Committee for the Wine-Producing Industry*.

7. *The National Committee on Sugar*.

It could not be ascertained whether there is a committee for social questions or whether these are dealt with in the National Committee for the Furtherance of Industry. There is no representative of the workers among the members of that Committee.

2. Brazil.

The Supreme Trade Council and the Supreme Labour Council, which act in Brazil as advisory bodies, show a certain resemblance to European economic councils in that their members are in part appointed by occupational organisations, whose views they can therefore represent in economic questions in their dealings with the Government. It is, unfortunately, impossible to gather from the available material what effect this representative co-operation of industrial circles has upon the character

of the State administration, inasmuch as the other members are appointed by the Brazilian Government. It is also not known whether the Labour Council is composed equally of employers and workers.

The nominating bodies are the Commercial Association, the Industrialists' Union, etc. The President of both organisations is the Minister for Labour, Industry and Trade. The co-operation of the two Councils with regard to particular aspects of economic life does not appear to be provided for.

3. Chile.

Although Chile has taken over many institutions of European countries in the economic and social sphere in recent years, she has so far not possessed any economic organisation with advisory powers. The revolution in June 1932, which was due to the increasing misery caused by the diminution in sales of nitrate, was inspired by socialistic ideas. When, shortly after the victory of the revolutionary leader Davila, the communist movement under Colonel Grove gained the upper hand, the first public act of this short-lived Government was to order the immediate appointment of a "Consejo economico nacional"¹; the idea was that it should carry out the socialisation of industries planned by the Government. It did not, however, come to this, as the extremists had to give way on the next day to the more moderate followers of Davila. This experiment deserves, however, to be recorded here inasmuch as it shows what different conceptions the idea of economic councils can be made to serve and how varied the duties assigned to them can be.

4. Cuba.

The Republic of Cuba possesses two advisory bodies for economic questions:

1. The "Comisión de defensa económica" (Economic Protection Committee)
- and
2. The "Comisión económica" (Economic Committee).

The Economic Protection Committee was established by a decree of the President of the Republic dated March 29th, 1928, and was entrusted with the duty of making, first, an enquiry into the introduction of a system of taxation in Cuba and, subsequently, an enquiry into banking questions.

In 1930 there was established, at the desire of the President of the Republic, by a decree dated November 12th, 1930, an *Economic Committee* consisting of a small number of representatives of industry. This body is to recommend to the Government the adoption of a comprehensive economic plan and to suggest measures calculated to assist in improving the economic situation of the country. The Chairman of the Committee is the Minister for Finance, or, in his absence, M. Rafael Montoro, a former Minister. The Committee has already dealt with the most urgent questions of economic policy.

There is also a Technical Committee for Customs Tariffs, which advises the Government on Customs questions.

¹ See *El Sol* of June 12th, 1932.

5. United States of America.

1. Under the presidency of Mr. Herbert Hoover, conferences have been held in the United States on various occasions for the investigation of economic questions of the present time—conferences which have generally ended in the appointment of economic advisory committees. Arising out of private proposals, they nevertheless received approval and substantial encouragement from President Hoover in the interest of the country, as Sir Arthur Salter points out in his report on an economic organisation for India.¹

That report is used here in respect of the events up to 1929, and, in addition, a summary is given of the development which has taken place since then.

2. The conference of December 5th, 1929, referred to in the report in question, which was convened by the President of the Supervisory Council of the Chamber of Commerce, Mr. Julius H. Barnes, and brought together from 150 to 200 representatives of all economic organisations in the country, carefully examined a plan for establishing an economic council from among its members. The aim of the Council was to recommend measures for dealing with the economic crisis which was already making itself felt, or, as it was more optimistically expressed, "to stabilise the prosperity of American economy at its existing level". Although the Council was to serve as an advisory organ for the Government, it was not to adopt the attitude of endeavouring to exercise economic control over the Government. President Hoover, to whose long-cherished wishes the idea corresponded, attached importance, nevertheless, to the Council's being only of a temporary character.

The *Barnes Committee*—as the newly-formed body was called—was first to institute enquiries as to the economic situation of the country. The production and construction programmes of individual organisations and associations were then to be examined, and their execution was, if necessary, to be made possible by substantial assistance in the form of credits granted by the Federal Reserve System. Hardly anything was heard in public of the work of the Barnes Committee.

3. That the scheme bore fruit is proved by the Bill which was introduced in the Senate in the spring of 1931 by Mr. Robert La Folette and which was closely examined by a Commission of the Senate. This proposal for establishing a national economic council is designed to guarantee definite participation of economic circles in the life of the State. By means of three delegates each for agriculture, industry, the banks, the transport organisation and the workers, representation is to be given to all aspects of American economic life. Provision is made in this way for fifteen members. In view of the geographical extension and economic importance of the United States, this figure would seem to be extraordinarily low, and cannot possibly enable all interests to be represented. It is, however, important to note that the members are to be appointed by the President of the United States on the basis of lists of the various organisations, and that industrial associations thus obtain direct influence in the establishment of the Council.

The duties of the new body, according to the Bill, are confined to giving advice to the Government and to working out proposals for dealing with economic problems—which are to be constantly investigated. An annual report is to be

¹ *A Scheme for an Economic Advisory Organisation in India*. Series of League of Nations Publications, II. Economic and Financial, 1931.II.A.14 (Official No. : C.397.M.159).

submitted to the President and to Congress concluding with recommendations as to the measures which ought to be adopted, and interim reports may also be submitted on individual questions.

A number of economic experts expressed their views with regard to this Bill in November of the same year (1931). The American Federation of Labor favours the plan, as it regards an organisation of this kind as fitted to find a way out of the economic crisis. Employers, on the other hand, are sceptical in the matter. They are afraid that the Government, with the help of the new institution, may interfere in the settlement of conditions of work and that their freedom may consequently be restricted. They accordingly recommend the establishment of a council, to advise the Government, composed of industrial leaders.

4. In the meantime, the extension of the economic crisis and the increase of unemployment in the United States brought to a head other plans which were in part executed forthwith. The newly-founded *Reconstruction Finance Corporation* is designed to increase consumption capacity and thereby to reduce indirectly the number of unemployed, by granting productive credits to States and industries for carrying out important schemes such as the construction of bridges, the building of new traffic routes, etc., and by granting loans on the security of frozen assets. Since the end of May 1932, an *Economic Committee* has been set up in conjunction with this Reconstruction Corporation, consisting of twelve bankers and big industrialists of international reputation. The financiers include Messrs. Wiggin, Mitchell, Totter and Reynolds, while production is represented by Messrs. Young, Sloan, Teagle, etc. The establishment of the Committee was approved by President Hoover. Its task has not yet been clearly defined, but it may be assumed, in view of its origin, that it will only enjoy a short term of existence.

The tendency in the United States to establish economic organisations for special purposes which Sir Arthur Salter emphasises at the end of his observations is confirmed by this latest creation.

5. It may be pointed out that the American economist, Dr. Gourrich, who is connected with the banking house of Kuhn, Loeb & Co., of New York, has frequently written articles in reviews in favour of the establishment of a permanent world economic council under the auspices of the League of Nations or of the Bank for International Settlements. In April of this year,¹ he suggested the following list of duties for such an organisation :

(a) The stabilisation of the currencies of the world and the reorganisation of exchange transactions ;

(b) The resumption of the international loan system by means of an organisation on the line of the " Reconstruction Finance Corporation ".

(c) The establishment of principles for the settlement of international debts ;

(d) The freeing of the exchange of goods throughout the world from existing hindrances, the gradual abolition of Customs barriers and of restrictions in the way of the migration of workers.

¹ *Kölnische Zeitung*, No. 207, April 17th, 1932.

6. Uruguay.

In Uruguay, as in most South-American States, the Government possesses no permanent organ for giving advice on economic questions. It is, however, the practice, as regards special problems or definite proposals, to appoint from time to time a committee of honorary experts, which submits its views to the Government, with regard to the question at issue, in the form of reports. A committee of this kind was, for example, appointed to investigate the monetary crisis. The Government can use its own judgment as to the action to be taken.

* * *

Peru, Bolivia and the remaining South-American States have not so far established economic organs for giving advice to the Government.

C. ASIA.

1. China.

China is influenced, in so far as economic questions are concerned, in large measure by her neighbour, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. Her economic organ, which was established by a decree¹ of June 6th, 1931, in the twentieth year of the Republic, was accordingly entrusted with the duty of drawing up an economic plan for the country based upon the Russian Five-Year Plan. As a result of this apparently successful experiment, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics has been able to attract the attention of the whole world, inasmuch as other States (as has been shown) seek salvation and recovery from the economic crisis in that experiment. Even in the United States of America, which constitute the most complete embodiment of a capitalist State, ideas as to general economic plans are now being propagated.

1. The reason given in Article 1 for founding a National Economic Council is the necessity for accelerating economic reconstruction, improvement in the living conditions of the people and regulation of the national finances. All plans with regard to these subjects which may require public funds for their fulfilment must therefore be first examined and discussed by the Economic Council and then submitted to the Government for approval (Article 3). The Economic Council has power to control the execution of these plans and the spending of the money made available in connection therewith.

2. The Council is composed of the President and Vice-President of the Government and the Ministers for Internal Affairs, Finance, Railways, Transport, Industry and Education; in addition, the responsible heads of the central authorities which are interested in economic reconstruction are *ex officio* members. The number of regular members is limited to eleven. They are appointed by the Government, although the *ex officio* members possess the right of recommendation. In accordance with a decree dated December 15th, 1931, with the list of members established September 26th, 1931, and completed November 23rd and December 15th of the same year,

¹ Regulations governing the Organisation of the National Economic Council.

the Heads of the Government and the above-mentioned Ministers, together with the President of the Reconstruction Commission, were appointed regular members. The remaining members were chosen chiefly from among bankers and industrialists. (The flour and textile industries, the shipping companies and the transport organisation are represented.) There is also a representative of an educational institution. The General Secretary is the President of the Central University of Nanking, Dr. Chiu-Chia-Hua. These persons are not appointed because of the leading positions which they hold in the economic life of the nation, but because of their personal capacity and experience, as the Prime Minister, Mr. Chiang-Kai-Shek, emphasised in his opening address on November 15th, 1931. Their advice is in this way to be made available to the Government, since the National Economic Council is controlled by the Government, being presided over by the Prime Minister or, in his absence, by his representative in the Government. The organisation nominally acts only as an advisory council of experts, but, as it includes members of the Government, it is possible for any proposals which are accepted to be immediately executed.

The business management and administration of the Economic Council is in the hands of a General Secretary, assisted by two to four secretaries and also by four to eight experts. According to the regulations for the execution of the decree, the secretariat draws up the agenda for the meetings, which must be approved by the Government before being sent out to the members. The secretariat provides the scientific foundations for the negotiations and subsequent reports and provides for the continuity and success of the work. The General Secretary must therefore be particularly competent from a scientific and administrative standpoint, especially as he has to arrange for the working out of proposals and the drawing up of surveys and to supervise the execution of the decisions with the help of his technical experts (engineers, agriculturists and instructors).

Meetings of the Council are held on a fixed date at least once a month and, if possible, once a fortnight. The President can convene extra meetings at the request of the Government.

3. The discussion may be restricted to the important points on the agenda, and members who raise other questions may be called to order by the President; it is, however, open to them to request the Government to place a particular matter on the agenda of a subsequent meeting.

The advisory opinion of the members must be heard with regard to every point on the agenda. The decision, however, as to whether the advice should be carried out lies *with the Government alone*. The result of voting is also not conclusive; if unanimity cannot be reached, the dissentient opinions of individual members are to be clearly set out in the Minutes.

The meetings of the Economic Council are not public, and those who are present are therefore under obligation to maintain secrecy. Verbatim reports of the meetings are not taken, and the general report is only designed to convey a rough idea of the various proposals and opinions. It is drawn up by the secretariat both in the case of the Economic Council and in that of the Commissions, and, after examination by the Chairman, is communicated as a confidential document to the members who took part in the meeting. If it should appear desirable, these reports can be published by order of the Ministers.

4. For a limited period and for the purpose of special tasks, *technical commissions* may be appointed to assist the Council on the recommendation of members, but these committees must contain at least one Minister, who is *ipso facto* the Chairman. They

work in the same way as the plenary body. Six commissions were appointed at the first meeting—viz., for industry, agriculture, banking, transport, education and health.

On the recommendation of the Economic Council, *special temporary conferences* can be convened by Ministers from time to time, consisting of a larger number of persons and designed to deal with an extended number of tasks. Regulations must be issued in advance by the Council of Ministers with regard to the publication of the Minutes of these conferences.

5. The *sphere of activity* of the Economic Council is a wide one. In addition to expressing its opinion with regard to current problems, it is required, after examination of the proposals put forward, to draw up as speedily as possible a *programme for urgent work* during a preparatory period of three years from 1932, to be followed by a *carefully-worked-out and regulated plan* for future development in all domains during the next ten years or more.

The natural resources of the country are to be utilised for financing the work.

The object, just as in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, is to industrialise a hitherto agrarian State with the help of the Government and thereby to make it independent of foreign countries. The provincial and local authorities are to be associated with this construction programme at a later stage. In order to avoid any social difficulties which might arise, attention is also to be paid to the questions of housing and public health.

A newly-established Financial Commission determines the credits which are to be granted to industries and other undertakings; the Economic Council bears the responsibility for the utilisation of these credits.

6. When the Chinese Government had decided upon the establishment of a National Economic Council in April 1931, it requested the Secretariat of the League of Nations to help it in its efforts by means of the organs of the League. It suggested co-operation on the following lines:

That, on the part of the Chinese Government:

(a) Members of the National Economic Council and its secretariat should be attached to the Financial and Economic Committees and to the Committee for Communications and Transit;

(b) A permanent correspondent should be appointed to maintain liaison with the competent sections of the League of Nations by an exchange of news, publications and statistics.

That, on the part of the League of Nations:

(a) Officials of the competent sections of the Secretariat, or

(b) Individual experts, or

(c) Technical commissions should be sent to advise the Chinese Economic Council;

(d) The co-operation of persons of educational training and scientific knowledge in other countries should be obtained (through the intermediary of the League) by means of money allowances; and

(e) An intellectual exchange of experiences should be instituted with universities and similar establishments.

As the Council of the League of Nations expressed itself in agreement with these proposals, various technical commissions and individual experts set out at the end of

1931¹ for China in order to make useful suggestions with regard to the drawing up of the three-year plan and to give practical assistance in carrying it out.

As part of the three-year plan, the Health Organisation had already been transformed in accordance with the proposals of an expert sent out by the League of Nations.

Since June 1931 there is a Central Health Authority as part of the permanent technical secretariat of the National Economic Council in Nanking. The system of training young doctors is to be reorganised, a central hospital established and the system of quarantine control gradually extended.

7. In accordance with the "Plan for National Reconstruction" of Dr. Sun Yat-Sen, which forms the basis of all subsequent work, it is intended :

(a) To develop various railway lines up to 1932 or 1933, and then to lay down new lines, which it is proposed to complete in the years 1934 and 1936 ;

(b) To complete the engineering work in connection with the regulation of the Huai River by 1935, and to begin new work on the Yellow River ;

(c) To carry out the constructional work for the opening of the Great Southern and Eastern harbours and those of Hulutao and Haichor by the end of 1935 ;

(d) Similarly, to establish by 1935, in the various parts of the country, a network of 200,000 kilometres of modern traffic routes and to promote further plans of this kind ;

(e) To extend the air lines over approximately 17,000 English miles and to increase the commercial air fleet to 1,000 aircraft ;

(f) To bring the tonnage of the State navigation companies by the end of 1935 up to 200,000 to 300,000 tons, to develop inland and coastal navigation and, more particularly, ocean navigation by the establishment of new lines to the Malay States and the Dutch East Indies, and to subsidise private undertakings ;

(g) To establish, under the protection of the Government, irrigation works, electricity works and steel and iron works, to open mines, to carry out boring operations for oil and to establish industries for the production of chemicals, sugar and automobiles, and to give support to existing private undertakings of this kind ;

(h) In order to improve the production and quality of agricultural products, to employ scientific methods in cultivating the land and to encourage the work of afforestation and the fishing industry. With this end in view, a piece of land will be employed in each province for the purpose of establishing model estates and carrying out experiments ;

(i) To draw up carefully prepared programmes for work in the frontier districts in the north-east, north-west and south-west, bearing in mind local conditions and strategic considerations, and to get the Government to carry out this programme.

8. From a high watch-tower the National Economic Council is to survey the wide territory of the Chinese State, to protect it and to promote its interests, and it is to carry out this gigantic task, not by way of gradual development, but by systematic

¹ Cf. The National Economic Council : Opening address delivered at the first meeting on November 15th in the twentieth year of the Republic of China, Nanking, 1930.

and sudden transformation ; this is the reason for its importance in the national life of China. Economic reconstruction is undertaken as a condition of the political consolidation of the country.

2. India.

India has been so exhaustively treated in Sir Arthur Salter's report,¹ to which several references have already been made, that nothing further need be added.

In 1931, an *Institute for Economic Investigations* and an Office for Statistics and Economic Research were founded by the Government of the Bombay States. The aim of the Institute is to collect and check economic data contained in official and unofficial publications, to keep the statistics up to date, to obtain economic information of all kinds for the administrative authorities, to give advice as to the ways and means of collecting and utilising statistics, and, finally, to carry out, if possible, any economic research work proposed by the Institute.

The Institute consists of : a chairman, a vice-chairman, an accountancy expert, a representative of the Finance Department of the local authority, two representatives of agricultural interests, one stockbroker, one native banker, representatives of the Chamber of Commerce of Upper India and of the Chamber of Commerce of the Bombay States, one representative of each of the five universities in the Province, the Director of Industry, the Director of Agriculture, the Secretary of the Co-operative Societies, and the Director of Statistics, who, in addition to being a member, acts as Secretary. The first eight members are nominated by the Government, and the others by their organisations ; the last four are *ex officio* members.

3. Japan.

Symptoms of a state of crisis became noticeable in Japan soon after the end of the War ; the increasing population, which made an extension of production and social welfare work necessary, brought economic problems into the foreground and made it appear desirable that persons of experience in these matters should participate in the life of the State.

1. An *Economic Council* (" Keizei Shingi-Kai ") was consequently appointed for the Empire in 1924 by Imperial Decree No. 70 of April 1st.² Unlike the German Reich Economic Council, which, as a then unique attempt to establish an organic economic organisation, aroused much interest and indeed gave rise to imitation in other countries, the Japanese Imperial Economic Council was *dependent*, as one of the first economic institutions, *on the Prime Minister*. At the request and on the instructions of the Ministers for Agriculture and Trade and for Finance, and not therefore on its own initiative, it was to give opinions with regard to questions affecting the furtherance of national economy. It is, indeed, empowered itself to put forward proposals with regard to matters within this sphere. This provision might, in practice, be interpreted in such a manner as to extend its rights further than the law suggests ; it would be of interest to examine its activities in this direction. That, however, is unfortunately impossible owing to lack of reliable information.

The Economic Council consists, so far as is known, of *111 members*, who are appointed by the Government on the recommendation of the Prime Minister, not of

¹ *A Scheme for an Economic Advisory Organisation in India*. Series of League of Nations Publications, II. Economic and Financial, 1931.II.A.14 (Official No. : C.397.M.159).

² *Japanese Official Journal* of April 2nd, 1924.

industrial organisations, from among persons possessing scientific or practical knowledge. It is presided over *ex officio* by the Prime Minister, who appoints as his representative one of the Ministers dealing with economic questions. The Prime Minister supervises the business of the Economic Council with the help of the acting-chairman.

With a view to more thorough and rapid examination of individual questions, provision has been made for dividing the Council into special sections. First, seven committees were appointed by the Prime Minister, who nominated the members and settled the programme of work. There are committees for finance, foreign trade, agriculture, industry and mines, social policy, the colonies and transport and news. The committees appoint chairmen and acting-chairmen from among their members. These committees or sections give advice separately or in joint session. The final decisions are, however, adopted at plenary meetings attended by the members of all the different sections. The chairman determines the procedure to be adopted in each case.

The members entitled to vote also include the Head of the Government Secretariat and the President of the Legislative Bureau. In addition, the Prime Minister can appoint as members other high officials who are qualified to deal with particular questions; these officials have the right to sit and vote both in the committees and at the plenary meetings.

The business director of the Economic Council is appointed by the Government after the Prime Minister has obtained the Imperial approval. Secretaries are also appointed by the Government to assist him.

The Economic Council, which was neglected for a time under the Kato Cabinet, has sufficiently justified its existence by seven years' successful activity. It has dealt in that time with questions such as the increase of industrial capacity, the regulation of sales, the furtherance of public works, measures of social policy, the protection of the workers, the providing of houses and emigration.

As LAUTAUD and POUDEX point out in their work on occupational representation,¹ the success of the organ in question is very largely to be ascribed to the collaboration of persons who, having been trained in international co-operation, possess great experience with regard to economic and social questions. This goes to prove that, in spite of all the collectivist tendencies of our epoch, individual effort is still the decisive factor when it comes to creative progress. A fact which also deserves emphasis is that the Japanese Economic Council was primarily concerned to discover solutions for social questions which are inextricably bound up with national economy as a whole.

2. The *Committee for the Investigation of Rice Cultivation* ("Beikoku Chosa-Kai") should also be mentioned. It is likewise an organ for advising the Prime Minister, who is the chairman of it. The Minister for Finance and the Minister for Agriculture are vice-chairmen, and there are also other members appointed by the Government.

At the request of the competent Ministers, it examines all questions affecting the cultivation of rice and is empowered to make proposals in relation thereto.

3. Finally, there is a *Committee for the Examination of Questions relating to Industry and Trade* ("Shoko Shingi-Kai"), which is under the Minister for Trade and is also composed of members appointed by the Government. Its method of work is similar to that of the last-mentioned Committee.

¹ Camille LAUTAUD and André POUDEX, *La représentation professionnelle*, Paris, 1927, page 119.

D. AUSTRALASIA.

1. Australia.

In Australia, it was proposed in 1929 to establish a Bureau of Economic Research. The legal foundation was laid by a decision dated March 22nd, 1929. The duties of the Bureau and its Director are clearly laid down in the text of the law. Investigations were to be made with regard to the raw materials industry and the working-up industries and with regard to industrial affairs, sale, transport, Customs tariffs, taxation, bounties, finance and currency. The Bureau was to co-operate with academic and other similar bodies in Australia and elsewhere, to grant scholarships and to publish reports on its work. The Director of the Bureau was to have the status of a Government official. The plan has, however, not yet got beyond the stage of theory.

2. New Zealand.

The Government of New Zealand does not possess any permanent organ for giving advice on economic questions. An *ad hoc* Committee is, however, in session at the present time, in order to investigate the economic and financial position of the Dominion and report thereon to the Government. It does not contain representatives of the producers, but is in the nature of a Committee of technical advisers. Four of the five members are economists, and, in addition, the Under-Secretary of State for Finance is a member.

E. EUROPE.

1. Austria.

In Austria the *occupational chambers* occupy an important position in the life of the State, as such chambers exist for all the more important branches of economic activity and possess extensive advisory powers. All proposals for economic legislation must, according to their nature, be laid before the *Agricultural Chambers* or the *Chambers of Commerce, Trade and Industry* for their consideration.

The statutory basis of the various chambers is not the same. The Chambers of Commerce, Trade and Industry are governed by the Federal Law of February 25th, 1920,¹ and the Wage-earners' Chambers by the Federal Law of February 26th, 1920.² The Agricultural Chambers, on the other hand, are not uniformly constituted, being organised under the individual laws of the *Länder* (States) of Upper Austria, Lower Austria, Vienna, etc. Moreover, the Chambers of Commerce, Trade and Industry, like the Wage-earners' Chambers, are distributed throughout the various *Länder*.

The idea of occupational representation, which on the bottom of the scale has thus been almost integrally applied, is to be extended still further. Article 35 of the second Amendment to the Federal Constitution of December 7th, 1929,³ provides

¹ *Staatsgesetzblatt*, No. 98.

² *Staatsgesetzblatt*, No. 100.

³ Cf. BRAUNIAS, "Das parlamentarische Wahlrecht in den europäischen Ländern"; Verlag Walter de Gruyter & Co., Berlin, 1932, page 418.

in principle for the creation of a new chamber to be known as the Council of the *Länder* and of Occupations (*Länder- und Ständerat*), in which the national economic interests are to be represented by a central authority. This Council, which will replace the present Federal Council, is to be set up under a law to be enacted at some future date and, as the second chamber of the legislature, will enjoy the same legal status as the National Council. It will be granted legislative powers in regard to all economic measures, while the National Council will then be concerned exclusively with political and cultural questions. The new Council will possess the same rights as those now held by the Federal Council—*i.e.*, the power to initiate legislation and to object to decisions of the National Council.

Shortly after the adoption of the constitutional amendment, a Commission was appointed to draft the law setting up the new Council. It was composed of politicians, experts in constitutional law, and economists, and was to have been presided over by Monsignor Seipel, but, although the Constitutional Committee adopted a proposal for its convocation, this Commission has never actually met, and, in consequence, no plans have yet been prepared for the implementing of this constitutionally very important paragraph. The question of the substructure will no doubt be of importance in this matter.

2. Belgium.

1. In the nineteenth century, Belgium had already begun to set up advisory bodies of an economic character within the framework of the State administration. They afforded certain specific groups of trade and industry an opportunity of making their expert knowledge effective in legislation and in the execution of laws.

As early as 1834,¹ for instance, a *Supreme Council for Agriculture* ("Conseil supérieur de l'agriculture") was created, to give advice on all measures for the development of Belgian agriculture. It consists of five delegates elected by the Chambers of Agriculture of the various provinces, three members appointed by the Ministry of Agriculture and twelve members co-opted from persons with special competence in the science and practice of agriculture or with special experience in agricultural problems. To it was attached, by a Royal Decree of October 29th, 1908, a *Supreme Council for Horticulture* ("Conseil supérieur de l'horticulture"), consisting of thirty members appointed by the Crown. This latter body gives advisory opinions on all questions relating to horticulture submitted to it for investigation by the Ministry.

Next, in 1890, a *Supreme Council for Industry and Commerce* ("Conseil supérieur de l'industrie et du commerce") was set up, the membership of which was partially altered later by an Ordinance of January 15th, 1896. It comprises sixty-six members, forty-four representing industry and twenty-two commerce. Forty-eight of these are elected by delegates of various groups and the remaining eighteen chosen are appointed by the Crown from industrial and commercial circles. The term of election is four years. Government representatives may attend meetings but have no vote. The Chairman is the Minister of Industry and Labour. The various branches of trade and industry have nearly always the same number of representatives, chosen from the mining, metal, textile, clothing, foodstuff and various other industries, the building trade, the export and import trades, banking and transport, wholesalers and retailers. The Council gives advisory opinions on matters submitted to it by the Government. It holds at least one annual session, and extraordinary sessions may be convened on

¹ Royal Decree of March 23rd, 1834.

application by one-third of the members. Resolutions are adopted unanimously or by a majority vote. If the voting is equally divided, the proposal is deemed to be rejected. Members hold office in an honorary capacity, but receive travelling allowances.

Special importance, however, has been attached in Belgium to social questions as well from an early date. As far back as 1892,¹ a *Supreme Council of Labour* ("Conseil supérieur du travail") was appointed, comprising sixty members appointed by the Crown and composed of employers, workers and experts in equal proportions. In other respects, the organisation resembles that of the Council for Industry and Commerce. Its chief functions are to give advisory opinions on proposals for social legislation. There are four women members.

By a Royal Decree of February 5th, 1909,² a *Corporation of the Middle Classes* ("Conseil supérieur des classes moyennes") was created which deals with questions affecting the occupational interests of handicraftsmen, small industrialists and small traders. It consists of twenty-six members.

In this way, practically all the circles interested in production were associated with the public administration, and the organisation of the various corporations shows many points of resemblance.

Recently a number of other corporations for special purposes were instituted—e.g., the *Supreme Council for Inland Navigation* ("Conseil supérieur de la navigation intérieure"), an advisory body which furnishes expert opinions on the utilisation and improvement of existing waterways, on the possibility of constructing new waterways and on all legal questions having a national or an international bearing on inland navigation. This corporation was reorganised by Royal Decree of June 29th, 1929, and by a later measure of December 21st, 1929.

The *Supreme Council of Shipping* ("Conseil supérieur de la Marine")³ and the *Supreme Council for Transport* ("Conseil supérieur de transport")⁴ have similar functions.

The following corporations were formed for foreign trade:

(a) *The National Council for Foreign Trade* ("Conseil national du commerce extérieur"),⁵ whose members are appointed by the Crown and whose duties are to investigate all measures calculated to promote export.

(b) *The Advisory Commission for Exhibitions and Fairs Abroad*.⁶ Its members also are appointed by the Crown, and its duties are to give advice regarding the participation of Belgian manufacturers and merchants in exhibitions and fairs abroad and to organise such participation.

(c) *The Commission for Export Credits* ("Commission du ducroire") consisting of a Managing Committee and a Supervisory Committee. Its work is to scrutinise applications from manufacturers for Government guarantees for sales abroad. This Commission was established by a law of August 7th, 1921, and reconstituted by laws dated August 9th, 1926, and May 5th, 1929.

(d) *The Technical and Financial Committee for Public Works*, formed in 1927.⁷

¹ Royal Decree of April 7th, 1892.

² Amended by a Royal Decree of January 24th, 1928.

³ Royal Decrees of November 10th, 1911, and September 13th, 1919.

⁴ Royal Decrees of July 10th and October 29th, 1928.

⁵ Royal Decree of December 4th, 1926.

⁶ Royal Decree of April 27th, 1929.

⁷ Royal Decree of November 18th, 1927.

2. All these corporations, which represent the different branches of trade and industry and have special duties and powers, have since 1930 been co-ordinated to a certain extent by means of a *central body* of a higher standing, which utilises and completes their work. On August 27th, 1930, by a Royal Decree "instituant un Conseil économique",¹ a *Supreme Economic Council* was set up on the proposal of the Council of Ministers. The Decree itself contains only a few articles, defining the functions of the Council and enumerating the President, the Secretary-General and the members by name. The President, M. Theunis, is the former Minister of Industry, who, in 1927, presided over the World Economic Conference at Geneva. The Secretary-General is M. van Zeeland, Director of the Belgian National Bank. The membership consists of 26 members with the right to vote, and 9 advisory members. The latter are mainly officials of the departments concerned, such as the Secretary-General of the Colonial Ministry, the Secretary-General of the Ministry of Public Works, the Inspector-General of the Naval Administration, the Inspector-General of Telegraphs and Telephones, the Secretary-General of the Ministry of Industry, Labour and Social Welfare, the Director-General of the Department of Industry and Trade, the Secretary-General of the Foreign Ministry and the Chefs de Cabinet of the Ministry of Finance and of the Prime Minister.

Members of the Supreme Economic Council possessing the right to vote include the Chairman and the Secretary-General as well as university professors, the Chairmen of the Agricultural and Industrial Occupational Associations, of the Stock Exchange Committee, and of the Belgian National and other banks, manufacturers, representatives of the co-operative system, three representatives of Trade Unions and Federations, Senators, the Vice-Chairman and one member of the Chamber of Deputies.

Under Article 6 of the relevant Decree, membership of the Economic Council is honorary, travelling expenses only being refunded.

3. The *functions of the Economic Council* are defined in Articles 1 and 2, which provide that the Council shall, in the capacity of an advisory organ, examine all questions affecting the national economy, and may be required by the Government to proceed to such investigations. The Council has the right to ask for all necessary information and to conduct enquiries into trade conditions, so as to be able to acquire a general view of the economic situation.

The reasons given in the petition to the Crown to create the Council are more illuminating. They state that economic problems call for ever greater attention and intervention on the part of the Government. The State must therefore support the efforts of the various branches of trade and industry, and guide and direct their activities to the best advantage of the community. In view of the economic crisis, which causes keen competition and results in the adoption of measures which may prejudice national interests, the Government believes that circumstances call for a policy which will take account of all important factors. It is therefore desirable that a definite plan should be followed when the Government takes measures of this kind. The Government might, of course, rely upon the advice of the corporations already in existence, but a complementary organ, possessing, in certain respects, a higher standing, is required to deal with economic questions on uniform lines. It is not intended that this Council should be an occupational body or encroach upon the functions of existing councils. Its members are to be appointed for their knowledge of the *fundamental economic problems* and for their *personal qualifications*. Liaison

¹ *Moniteur Belge*, No. 248, September 5th, 1930, page 4861.

with the administrative departments, which have to give effect to the Council's proposals, is to be secured by those departments delegating a representative to all meetings of the Supreme Economic Council.

The Minister of the Colonies, as Prime Minister, has undertaken the application of the Decree.

4. The Supreme Economic Council started to function in October 1930. In the address with which M. Jaspar, the Prime Minister, opened the inaugural meeting, he mentioned that, in consequence of the economic crisis, the Council would have only a limited field of action. The real work would mainly be done in committees, decisions on the resolutions and advisory opinions adopted being left to the plenary meetings.

Three Commission were immediately formed :

- (a) A Commission to study the economic crisis, financial policy, Customs policy, the money and capital market, the cost of living and communications ;
- (b) A Commission for questions of industrial and agricultural production ;
- (c) A Commission for the distribution of commodities, home, foreign and colonial trade.

In the middle of October 1930, the third Commission framed a programme of work. It studied the problems of foreign trade, in particular its development by means of credits. A proposal was also made for an anti-dumping Bill. Import licences, the opening of sales offices abroad, shipping questions, freight facilities, trade with the Congo, the importance of certain colonial products, such as coffee and cotton, were examined, and ways and means of increasing domestic consumption investigated.

At a plenary meeting on April 24th, 1931, several trade groups submitted reports on the general economic situation, and recommended solutions for relieving the economic crisis. A number of important economic questions were discussed—e.g., the coal crisis and the unrestricted import of foreign coal, under-consumption in the leather industry as a result of the manufacture of substitute materials, the keen competition in the cement industry and the concentration thereby necessitated, over-production in the cotton industry. The question of introducing a six-hour day was also discussed, and a decision taken to continue the investigations and to submit the final result to the Government in the form of an advisory opinion.¹

3. United Kingdom.

1. The participation of economic circles in the settlement of economic problems has always played a very important part in the United Kingdom, and this idea found general acceptance after the war. Nevertheless, constant difficulties were encountered in putting it into effect. In particular, there was no general consensus of opinion as to the structure of an economic body for dealing with these questions. One view was that there should be a purely advisory body at the Government's disposal for investigating the economic position, while the other aimed at creating a real representation of national economic interests, including consumers.

From 1919 onwards, various efforts were made to put one or other of these ideas into effect. For instance, in February 1919, a *National Conference of Industry*, attended

¹ Cf. No. 211 of the *Rheinische-Westfälische Zeitung* of April 26th, 1931.

by representatives of employers and employees, was convened to make proposals for an enquiry into the causes of the economic depression and the means of overcoming it. In 1924, the Prime Minister, Mr. MacDonal, stated that it was desirable to create an advisory economic body. Parliament, however, showed little appreciation of these proposals, and, in January 1924, a Bill regarding district industrial councils and a central economic council was defeated in the House of Commons.

In 1928, the Liberal Party published the findings of its Economic Committee of Enquiry in a Yellow Book, proposing the creation of an economic council, which was described as an economic general staff. It pointed out that economic movements should not only be investigated when a period of depression had set in, but should be constantly observed and examined so that the Government might have the possibility of overcoming difficulties or countering them by suitable measures.

In 1929, the Labour Party—in its election programme, "Labour and the Nation"—made suggestions for the creation of a national economic commission which would assist the Prime Minister and keep him and the public informed as to the economic position and its tendencies.

At the same time, a decisive step was taken by the big industries to bring about co-operation between the representatives of capital and of labour with a view to encouraging national production. Representatives of the large industrial associations met representatives of the Trade Union Council in a preliminary conference. The trade unions demanded recognition of their organisations. Discussions also took place on labour conditions and social questions. Moreover, the creation of an economic council on which the employers and the trades unions were to be represented in equal numbers was discussed. This council was to be a representative industrial body and was also to act as an organ of conciliation in labour disputes. While the trade unions were prepared to adopt the various proposals, opposition was encountered among the employers. Finally, in December 1929, at the *Mond-Turner Conference* (so called after the two spokesmen of the opposing groups—Sir Alfred Mond, later Lord Melchett, and Mr. Ben Turner, Chairman of the Trades Union Council), an agreement was reached for a regular conference of representatives of the National Confederation of Employers' Organisations and the Federation of British Industries on the one hand and of the Trades Union Council on the other hand, which was regarded as the foundation of an industrial parliament. The objects of the economic council, which was to be the next development, included the discussion of general economic questions, a permanent investigation into economic problems and the creation of a permanent joint committee for the appointment of arbitral tribunals.

In other quarters, the constitution of a State National Economic Council was at that time being constantly urged, and it was pointed out that the future of British industry could be secured only by co-operation between State, employers and workers. Reference was frequently made to the example of Germany and France, and Germany's trade was said to have been extensively encouraged by the Economic Council of the Reich.

2. In the meantime, Mr. MacDonal, the Prime Minister, was able to carry out his former plan for an advisory economic body. The *Economic Advisory Council* was created by a Treasury Minute of January 27th, 1930.¹ It is not, however, a representative body in the sense of the Mond-Turner discussions. Although it is a permanent institution giving expert advice to the Government, it is by no means an

¹ *Command Paper* 3478, 1930.

independent organisation and has neither administrative nor executive powers. In comparison with other foreign economic councils, its position is strictly circumscribed. It is bound by the directions of the Prime Minister and can act only with his approval. Its duties are :

- (1) To advise the Government in all economic questions ;
- (2) To enquire continuously into :
 - (a) The development of trade and industry ;
 - (b) The utilisation of the resources of the country and dominions ;
 - (c) The effect of legislation and fiscal policy at home and abroad ;
 - (d) The situation of all branches of the national, international and colonial economic system, with reference to national prosperity.

The functions of the *Committee of Civil Research*, which investigated the general position from the scientific point of view, were transferred to the new Council, but only in so far as they were concerned with economic matters. For this purpose, provision was made for close co-operation with the competent administrative departments. Any interference in the work and responsibility of the various departments is, however, expressly forbidden. This provision still further limits the Economic Council's sphere of action. On the other hand, it should be pointed out that the Council takes the initiative in regard to legislation, though only in questions for which the Prime Minister has declared it to be competent.

It consists of *ex officio* and appointed members. The *ex officio* members are :

- (1) The Prime Minister, Chairman ;
- (2) The Chancellor of the Exchequer ;
- (3) The Secretary of State for the Colonies ;
- (4) The President of the Board of Trade ;
- (5) The Minister for Agriculture and Fisheries.

The Prime Minister may call in other Ministers from time to time.

Persons may be appointed members who have acquired prominence by special knowledge or experience in industrial and economic questions. Twenty members were appointed by the Prime Minister, including representatives of the great industrial interests such as the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, the electrical industry, the big banks, the railways, one chartered accountant, and well-known economists and economic historians and, in particular, persons who had previously advocated the creation of an advisory economic body, such as the former spokesman of Guild Socialism, and three representatives of the trade unions who had taken part in the Mond-Turner Conference. The Bank of England is represented by two members.

The post of Secretary was to be filled by an economist of great experience ; since the Council is merely an advisory expert body, its work must be carefully and scientifically prepared.¹ Another economist and a further official were appointed assistant secretaries.

The Prime Minister, as Chairman, convenes the Council whenever necessary. He may also appoint permanent committees and special working committees.

¹ The *Manchester Guardian* of January 30th, 1930, writes :

“ Whether the whole organisation is a success or not must depend to a very great extent upon its permanent executive officers, whose job of co-ordinating and preparing the Council's work and of gaining the full co-operation of the Government departments is clearly vital to the scheme ”.

The Council's work consists in carrying out investigations into economic questions. It may also give advice, *proprio motu*, on questions coming within its sphere. For this purpose, it may require information from administrative departments and authorities. It will collect statistics and other important documents necessary for carrying on its work and will establish a library. It also keeps a list of persons who may be called in as experts on account of their practical experience in industry and trade, in financial or labour questions, and in economic, social or similar matters.

The discussions and reports of the Economic Council are confidential unless the Council proposes to the Prime Minister that they should be published.

The Government alone is responsible for all the work of the Council and for measures resulting therefrom. The Council has its headquarters in London.

Little is so far known as to the Council's activity. It was provided that it should enquire into the reorganisation of trade, the rationalisation of industry and the improvement of labour conditions.

3. The creation of this Economic Advisory Council was not the final phase in the movement for a definite representation of economic circles on a half-and-half basis. In September 1930, a leading manufacturer (on this occasion in the motor industry), Sir William Morris, called a meeting at which all leaders of industry were to take part in order to found a national industrial and commercial council. In his appeal, he stated "that the continuance of the economic crisis calls for immediate measures and that parties of all colours, owing to their adherence to obsolete economic theories, have been unable to meet the demands of modern commercial life".

Demands were now made for an economic body embracing the entire British Empire, an Empire Economic Council. The workers had discussed this proposal at their meetings as far back as in 1929. In the House of Commons, in November 1930, Admiral Taylor, Member for South Paddington, made a proposal for an economic council to regulate the economic policy of the entire Empire on uniform lines. This proposal was taken up by the Federation of British Industries. Recently, in May 1932, it proposed that the Conference at Ottawa between the United Kingdom and her dominions should systematically divide up the production of the various members of the British Empire, so that each country might produce the commodities for which it was most suited by soil and climate.

4. Bulgaria.

Bulgaria set up a number of *Chambers of Commerce and Industry* long before the war (the Law is dated December 20th, 1906). In view of the predominant part which agriculture plays in the economic life of Bulgaria, it was decided in 1911 to establish in addition Chambers of Agriculture. A law to this effect was adopted by the Parliament, but, as a result of the constant state of warfare, it was not put into force.

As, however, the absence of any organisation for representing the economic interests of agriculturists was sorely felt when the sale of agricultural products came to a standstill, the *Supreme Council of Bulgarian Agriculture* was set up, which held its first meeting on February 28th, 1931. It consisted of some forty members, including the Minister of Agriculture and representatives of the Agricultural Bank, the Central Co-operative Bank, the Association of Agronomists, the Federation of Co-operative Societies, and the Faculty of Agriculture. In the course of the three days' discussions it was unanimously decided to set up a series of Chambers of Agriculture in the various districts. The Agricultural Council also dealt with other questions such as the granting of credit to peasants, the protection of the owners of agricultural machinery, measures of rationalisation recommended by the agricultural co-operative societies, etc.

On July 10th, 1923, a *Supreme Economic Council* was also appointed on the lines of the German model, although on a much smaller scale, in order to examine legislative proposals and other measures relating to economic, financial and social matters and to give its opinion thereon. The five members were appointed by the Cabinet. It was, however, unable to exercise any influence, as it was dissolved a year later. Recently the idea of establishing a similar body has again been taken up. No definite scheme has, however, yet been put forward.

5. Czechoslovakia.

1. In Czechoslovakia, an *Advisory Committee for Economic Questions* ("Poradni sbor pro otázky hospodářské") was first instituted by a Government Decree of November 5th, 1919,¹ to assist the Administration in the economic sphere. The Committee was to furnish advisory opinions on all questions of a fundamental nature submitted to it by the Government, or could itself frame proposals of general interest to the national economy. It was thus an advisory organ of the Government, but could also act on its own initiative. This body, however, met with no response from economic circles in the country, as its members were appointed by the Council of Ministers and, being under the orders of the Government, were therefore not regarded by the various occupational groups as representing their interests. The Committee, it was averred, could be really representative of the nation's productive forces only if its members were elected by the major organisations of the various trades and occupations.

2. The membership of the Committee was accordingly altered by a Decree of December 29th, 1921.² Under the new statutes, 120, or four-fifths, of the 150 members composing it were nominated by the different economic groups, half by employers and half by workers. The Committee was divided into three sections:

Group A.

- 15 members proposed by the Agricultural Councils.
 - 25 members proposed by the Central Federation of Industry—viz. :
 - 5 representing agricultural industries (sugar, distilling, brewing, malting).
 - 4 representing the mining and metallurgical industries.
 - 14 representing all other industries (timber, paper, textiles, machinery, pottery, porcelain, glass, clothing, furs, chemistry, foodstuffs, building materials);
 - 2 representing the central organisations of industry.
 - 8 members nominated by financial institutions, viz. :
 - 4 representing commercial banks;
 - 2 representing savings banks;
 - 1 representing loan banks;
 - 1 representing insurance.
 - 6 members proposed by the National Council of Handicrafts (small trade and industry).
 - 3 members proposed by the Central Council of Merchants.
 - 3 members proposed by the Union of Chambers of Commerce and Industry.
- 60 members.

¹ No. 632, *Collection of Laws and Regulations of Czechoslovakia*, 1919, published on December 9th, page 1157.

² No. 3 of the *Collection of Laws and Regulations of Czechoslovakia*, 1922, published on January 14th. Amended by the Decrees of December 11th, 1922, January 19th, 1926, December 19th, 1930, and July 10th, 1931.

Group B.

Sixty representatives of workers, elected by the various trades unions of the different branches of industry on a proportional representation basis in accordance with the membership of each in the previous year, and comprising representatives of workers and employees in the various branches of industry in the same proportion as in Group A.

There are four large central trade-union organisations in Czechoslovakia. If these bodies themselves cannot agree as to the numbers of members to be proposed, the decision rests with the Minister for Industry, Commerce and Trade, who adopts as basis the figures for membership supplied by the Government Statistical Office. In making nominations, care must be taken to see that all the parts of the country—Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia and Slovakia—are represented. Small and large undertakings must be given the consideration which their importance to the national economy merits, and linguistic minorities likewise must be represented on the Committee.

Group C.

Thirty experts, appointed by the Government from among men with scientific and practical experience and, if necessary, also from the liberal professions. Four at least in this group must be representatives of consumers.

In all three groups, an equal number of deputy members is elected. These have the right to attend all meetings, but may not take part in the discussions and, if the ordinary member for whom they deputise is present, they cannot vote.

Members are appointed for three years and may hold office for at most six months longer, pending a fresh election. The Government may, however dissolve the Advisory Committee before the expiry of this period.

Members hold office in an honorary capacity but are granted travelling allowances, unless they are Government officials, who, in any case, travel free. Ordinary members whose annual income does not exceed 20,000 crowns may claim a subsistence allowance.

A feature peculiar to the Czechoslovak Economic Council is that the Government may appoint an unlimited number of *corresponding members*. These act mainly as experts, as they may submit their advisory opinions and proposals in writing.

3. The business of the Advisory Council for Economic Questions is conducted by a *Managing Board* consisting of a Chairman, appointed by the Government, and six Deputy-Chairmen (formerly four; the number was, for practical reasons, raised to six by a Decree of December 11th, 1922), three elected by the employers' and three by the workers' groups respectively. The Board also includes the Chairmen of the *Permanent Sub-Committees* which, under Section 12 of the Decree, may be set up for particular questions. These Sub-Committees usually consist of from twenty to thirty-five members, chosen in equal numbers from the three groups. There are at present the following Sub-Committees :

- Sub-Committee for Finance ;
- Sub-Committee for Social Policy ;
- Sub-Committee for Home Trade ;
- Sub-Committee for Foreign Trade ;
- Sub-Committee for Agriculture ;
- Sub-Committee for Transport ;
- Sub-Committee for Public Administration ;
- Sub-Committee for Housing ;
- Sub-Committee for the Economic Crisis.

Representatives of the Government Departments concerned are invited to all meetings of the Committee and its Sub-Committees. Both Houses of Parliament (Senate and Chamber of Deputies) may similarly appoint at their discretion a member of their Economic Commissions to attend the proceedings of the Advisory Economic Committee. Furthermore, the latter may, at the request of the Chambers, delegate its members to act as experts on the Parliamentary Economic Commissions.

An important point is that the Advisory Committee on Public Administration can take part even in the *preliminary work of legislation*, as this affords an additional guarantee of effective influence on the drafting and interpretation of laws. In addition, Government economic departments have to submit draft laws and regulations of fundamental economic importance to the Advisory Committee sufficiently early for the Committee to have time to examine their contents thoroughly from all stand-points. Exceptions may be made when it is impossible to delay the preparation of legislation.

Both in the Advisory Economic Committee and in its Sub-Committees, a quorum is constituted by one-third of the ordinary members or their deputies. Resolutions are adopted by a majority, the Chairman having no right to vote. He may, however, record his own view on the question under discussion, if he dissents from the majority resolution. Advisory opinions adopted unanimously must be transmitted as such; if they are adopted only by a majority vote, the minority opinion may be reported with an exact statement of the individual standpoints. Similarly, the vote of each individual member may also be recorded.

The advisory opinions are forwarded by the Secretariat of the Economic Committee, with the assent of the Chairman, to the Ministry concerned, and, if necessary, to the Houses of Parliament also. In urgent cases, the Sub-Committees may transmit their advisory opinions direct to the Government, if the Managing Board so decides—*i.e.*, without being confirmed by a plenary session of the Economic Committee. Under the provisions of the Decree, the Chairman must so conduct the meetings that all the members present are enabled to express their views; no such explicit provision is found in other countries. If an ordinary member, or his deputy, fails to attend three consecutive meetings without adequate excuse, the Bureau of the Managing Board may relieve him of his appointment. From time to time, and in particular on the occasion of a fresh election, the Ministry for Industry, Commerce and Trade may, in agreement with the Ministries of Public Works, Agriculture and Social Welfare, revise the lists of nominating corporations in order to make allowance for any changes which have occurred, as the number of ordinary members in each group may on no account be increased.

The Secretariat of the Economic Committee has its offices in the Ministry of Trade.

As organised, the Economic Committee thus occupies a very independent position in the State and is very well fitted to exercise a profound influence on the national economic policy. So far, unfortunately, it has very rarely taken action and very little is therefore known regarding its activities.

4. In May 1931, a *Divisional Economic Institute for Slovakia* was set up with the object of combining organisations and individuals interested in the economic and social advancement of Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Russia.

6. Denmark.

The Scandinavian countries are among the few European countries which have not yet found it possible to decide to grant economic circles occupational representation in the State and the statutory right to a say on economic measures and laws.

At the end of 1931, Denmark made a beginning in this direction. In December 1931, the Prime Minister, M. Stauning, brought forward a proposal in Parliament, sitting in secret session, for the establishment of an economic council; this proposal was soon afterwards embodied in an official communication from the Ministry, dated December 11th, 1931.

The Government supported its decision with the agreement that :

“ The economic world crisis will probably demand consultation in Denmark on all sorts of problems, and it is desirable, in the interests of the public administration, that persons belonging to various groups should take part in such consultations ”.¹

The Economic Council is advisory in character and is attached to the Prime Minister's office. It is composed of representatives of the political parties with seats in Parliament, of the various branches of trade and industry and of labour and political economy; it cannot, however, be considered to represent all interests. The number of its members is fixed at thirty. They are appointed by the Government. The Prime Minister is at the head of the Council. The competent advisers in the various ministries also take part in the Council's meetings.

It is summoned to confer on questions connected with the development of the economic position. It is expected to concern itself with currency problems in particular.

For this reason, four members of the Parliamentary Foreign Exchange Committee have been deputed to the Council, and are consulted on the allocation of foreign currencies.

The Economic Council is said to have met several times and to have discussed a number of current questions. No Minutes and no communications on the results of the discussions have been published.

7. Estonia.

By a law of September 3rd, 1919, an *Economic Council* was set up in Estonia to advise the Government on questions of general interest affecting Government finance (State budget and loans), agriculture, social policy and, in particular, home and foreign commerce and the transit trade. In addition to its functions as an advisory body, it was specifically empowered to act as an intermediary between business circles and the Government, and thus promote the interests of the various branches of trade.

It is composed of the Ministers of the various departments, ten deputies from the Legislature and representatives of the following economic interests: agriculture, industry, banking and the stock exchange, trade, credit and consumers' co-operative societies, engineering, handicrafts and workers' organisations. The representatives of economic interests are elected by their associations. Experts may be invited for specific consultations, but without the right to vote.

A quorum is constituted by one-half of the statutory membership. Meetings are presided over by the Prime Minister, who forwards the resolutions, together with

¹ In the *Zeitschrift für Politik*, 1932, BRAUNIAS mentions “ the far-reaching plans of the Prime Minister, M. Stauning, who wants to substitute an advisory Economic Chamber for the Lands-ting—i.e., the Upper House ”. These plans are, for the moment, considered to be laid *ad acta* by the establishment of the Economic Council.

detailed reasons in support, to the competent departments. Should a Minister refuse to put a resolution into effect, the matter is brought before the Council of Ministers for further investigation. A permanent secretariat deals with current business.

The institution of this Council has given good results in Estonia, and in 1927 the question of expanding it into a Parliament with wider powers was seriously considered. Later, however, this scheme was allowed to drop.¹

8. Finland.

As the result of a decision by the Council of State, an *Economic Council* was established in Finland on November 30th, 1928, consisting of sixteen voting members together with four ministerial representatives acting as advisers.

When the Economic Council was appointed, the interests of agriculture, industry, trade, transport, the banks and the building industry were taken into account; consequently it is truly representative of Finnish economic life. Its meetings are also attended by representatives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Finance Ministry, the Ministry of Commerce and Industry and the Ministry of Agriculture.

The Director-General of Forestry, Professor A. K. Cajander—*i.e.*, a representative of the Administration—was appointed President.

The duties of the Economic Council are defined as follows in the instrument by which it was established: It is to investigate, or institute enquiries into, particular problems from the standpoint of the general economic life of the country, at the request of other bodies or on its own initiative, and to report to the Government the result of its investigations. The following groups of questions were submitted for consideration: the financial position and, in connection therewith, the system of taxation; forestry and agriculture; exportation and importation; and social policy.

Seven sections were established accordingly to prepare and work up the material for the investigations before the Economic Council dealt with it. These sections are as follows:

- Section for Political Economy;
- Section for Customs Duties and Taxes;
- Section for Agriculture;
- Section for Forestry and the Timber Industry;
- Section for Industry in its General Aspect;
- Section for Trade and Transport;
- Section for Social Policy.

Apart from these there is a central section, to which the chairmen of the various sections belong and which comes into operation when general economic questions of wide scope, or specially urgent matters, come up for consideration.

The Economic Council has been very active since its establishment and has issued seventeen publications. Some of these are expert opinions, others economic treaties, and others final reports on the results of enquiries. The volume entitled *The Economic Situation* is of the latter description. It embodies the results of an enquiry

¹ In view of the fact that I am not in possession of the latest material concerning the Economic Councils in Estonia and that there do not appear to have been any new modifications in this country since 1931, the present report is drawn from my publication entitled, *Die Wirtschaftsräte in Europa*, Berlin, 1931, page 12.

among economic associations regarding proposals for the improvement of economic conditions. The replies were published together with a report as to the attitude adopted by the Economic Council. The causes of the depression were investigated more particularly by the Secretary-General of the Economic Council, Dr. Suviranta. The publications of the Economic Council which have so far appeared show that that body has devoted itself more and more to *research work*.

The proposal to establish a *Permanent Economic Council* with wider powers, which the present President, Professor A. K. Cajander, brought forward in the Chamber of Deputies in the autumn of 1930, aroused much interest. In consequence of more urgent problems, it would appear to have been shelved for the moment.

9. France.

1. Even in the Middle Ages, France recognised the importance of participation by the working and trading classes in the development of the State. In 1601, Henry IV set up a "Conseil supérieur du Commerce",¹ to which, it is said, the introduction of the silk industry in France is to be attributed. Even such an autocrat as Louis XIV attempted to buttress his mercantilist policy by enlisting the advice and support of a body which was representative in the truest sense of the word, constituted as it was by the votes of the trading community. Councils have followed one another in long succession up to modern times.

The social revolution in the middle of the nineteenth century led to new ideas, and concrete proposals to give a share in the government to trade and industry, whose influence was increasing every year. The most original of these plans was the three-chamber system of Count de Saint-Simon.

2. Since the war, the idea of giving representation to trade associations continued to hold the field and has been the subject of constant discussion. In 1924, under the Herriot Ministry, the project of bringing economic circles within the mechanism of the State finally took shape. A Preparatory Commission was set up, which drafted a scheme for the creation of an Economic Council. The Commission was presided over by M. Jouhaux, the Secretary-General of the General Federation of Labour. The scheme prepared by the Commission was afterwards revised at the Ministry of Labour and was issued as a decree on January 16th, 1925.²

The preamble to this decree states that "the Council has been created with the intention of bringing all the productive and social forces of France into closer union. Like the Council for National Defence, the Economic Council's sphere will extend to all economic and social problems of vital national interest, give the Government the expert advice of persons who, apart from their competence in special and technical questions, can be regarded as representing the great occupational associations, and constitute a link between the various economic departments. There will thus be every guarantee that the Government is pursuing a policy of co-ordination and uniformity. The various economic groups will both support and supplement one another. The Council is a new departure, as it differs entirely from the occupational bodies set up in some countries. It will not encroach either on the sovereignty of Parliament

¹ Information regarding these early, as well as later, developments can be found in *La représentation professionnelle*, by Camille LAUTAUD and André POUDEX.

² *Journal officiel*, January 17th, 1925, page 698.

or on the authority of the Government. It will, however, differ from the departmental advisory bodies in that it will seek for general solutions only, and will be freely elected by representatives of the trade associations. It will reflect public opinion, but it will also be an important centre of economic information for the Ministerial departments, the Legislative Chambers and its own members."

3. From the standpoint of constitutional law, the *Conseil national économique* is an autonomous advisory organ of the Government directly subordinate to the President of the Council. Its powers are enumerated in the preamble. It will give expert opinions on questions submitted to it by the Government, but may, on its own initiative, if two-thirds of the members present so demand, request its Bureau to place on the agenda of its next meeting questions which it considers it important to investigate from the national or international standpoint. It co-operates in the preparation of economic measures by collecting the necessary material to serve as a basis for the Bill and later giving an expert opinion on it. Several laws have already materialised as a result of reports submitted by the Council.¹ Further, the Council's co-operation in the drafting of the executory provisions for economic laws may be required by the law itself. The time-limit for obtaining an opinion must in this case be fixed by the particular law. In this way the Council supplements the work of the "Conseil d'Etat" in the economic sphere, as its advisory opinion must be attached to the report laid before the latter body.

4. The organs composing the Economic Council are :

1. The General Assembly ;
2. The Permanent Commission ;
3. The Secretariat.

The *General Assembly* of the Economic Council consists of forty-seven ordinary, and twice as many deputy, members. To allow for the factors concerned in production and distribution, three groups were formed :

- (a) Population and consumption ;
- (b) Labour ;
- (c) Capital.

The labour group is the largest and consists of thirty members.

The seats held by the above three groups are allotted as follows :

(a) *Population and Consumption.*

	Ordinary members	Deputy members
Consumers' Co-operative Societies and Leagues of Purchasers.	3	6
Union of Mayors and Communes.	2	4
Public services and transport undertakings	1	2
Touring Club of France	1	2
National Federation of Large Families .	1	2
Mutual Insurance Federation.	1	2
	9	18

¹ e.g., Draft Law concerning the Improvement of the National Equipment.

(b) *Labour.*

<i>Intellectual Workers and Teachers:</i>	Ordinary members	Deputy members
Confederation of Intellectual Workers. . .	2	4
Union of Men and Women Teachers . . .	1	2
<i>Administrative Work:</i>		
1. Industry	3	6
2. Agriculture	2	4
3. Agricultural development	1	2
Trade	2	4
Transport	1	2
Co-operative societies	1	2
Public services (electricity).	1	2
<i>Wage-earners:</i>		
1. Clerical workers.	2	4
2. Technical workers	2	4
3. Manual labourers:		
(a) Agriculture.	1	2
(b) Industry.	5	10
(c) Trade	2	4
(d) Transport	2	4
<i>Rural and Urban Handicrafts</i>	2	4
	<u>30</u>	<u>60</u>

(c) *Capital.*

1. Trade and industry	3	6
2. Rural and urban estate owners. . .	2	4
3. Banks, Stock Exchange, insurance and savings banks	3	6
	<u>8</u>	<u>16</u>

Ordinary members are nominated by their organisations, which are selected by the Government on the proposal of the Minister of Labour after consultation with the Minister concerned. The Prime Minister fixes the number of members to be sent by each organisation. Disputes are decided by the Economic Council itself. Both ordinary and deputy members hold office for two years. Candidates for election must be of French nationality, twenty-five years of age and in possession of civic rights. Women may be elected on the same conditions.¹ Only ordinary members are entitled to vote. Subsistence allowances are not paid, but travelling expenses are refunded.

¹ Women have thus absolutely equal rights in this parliamentary organisation, although they have not yet been given the parliamentary vote. At present, the "Teachers" Group has a woman delegate—the Superintendent of the *Ecole maternelle*.

In addition to the ordinary and deputy members, provision is also made for *experts*, a list of whom is compiled by the Secretariat. Ministerial departments dealing with economic questions delegate two experts each as statutory members of the Economic Council. In addition, two senior officials of the Council for National Defence and the French Government representative on the Governing Body of the International Labour Office may attend meetings. Article 13 of the Decree further empowers all Ministers, Under-Secretaries of State and the competent Committees of the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate to send representatives to the proceedings of the Council, which may itself ask Ministers for a hearing. It may make the same request to the Economic Commissions of both the political Chambers.

The Economic Council holds four ordinary sessions annually, which may extend over ten days. They should, if possible, be held on the second Monday of the first month of every quarter. Later legislative amendments have made this provision more elastic in its operation. Extraordinary sessions may, with the Chairman's consent, be convened by the Permanent Commission. The Economic Council draws up its own standing orders.

The Prime Minister is the statutory Chairman, and the Vice-Chairmen are elected from the members. It was originally intended to have only two Vice-Chairmen, but, under an ordinance of February 4th, 1926, two more were elected, so that there are now four Vice-Chairmen altogether. These, together with ten additional members, form the *Permanent Commission*, which conducts the Council's business in the intervals between sessions, convenes the meetings, prepares reports on the questions to be discussed and arranges for the forwarding of the Council's advisory opinions. It also decides the agenda of the sessions.

5. *Advisory opinions* are submitted in the form of "reports" or "recommendations". The usual arrangement is that the Permanent Commission, with the assistance of the Secretariat, draws up a report which is then discussed in the General Assembly and voted on by that body. Recommendations must be adopted by a two-thirds majority of the members present. In practice, however, they are almost always adopted unanimously.

The Secretariat communicates advisory opinions direct to the President of the Council; in other words, the Vice-Chairman notifies them to the Prime Minister, who, under Article 17, section 2, of the Decree, must *either report within one month the action taken on the opinion given or refer it back to the Council for reconsideration*. This is a very important provision which gives the Council a definite standing; it should be incorporated in other countries' legislation, as it is the only way in which recommendations of Economic Councils can be assured of practical effect. The writers LAUTAUD & POUDENX, already referred to, remark in this connection:

" . . . a provision of extreme importance for the future development of the Council; it is only in so far as the National Economic Council is transformed from a mere advisory body into a giver of orders, or, at any rate, an inspirer of decisions enforced, that it will be able to exert a salutary influence on the national economy. The exercise of this prerogative, which enables the Council to require of the Government a report on the action taken upon its suggestions, seems to us fundamental for the Council's future." ¹

The Council's advisory opinions are published in the *Journal Officiel* (Article 16). This also is an important provision, as it secures the widest publicity for the Council's

¹ *Op. cit.*, page 146.

opinions and thus draws attention to its work. This rule regarding compulsory publication, and that, too, in an official organ, deserves to be imitated, since at present the public in almost all countries hears too little of the work done by the Economic Councils, which are, therefore, frequently misjudged and whose work is often incorrectly appreciated.

Up to the present, the following reports of the Economic Council have been published :

1. Report on the Housing Problem, adopted February 8th, 1926 (*Journal Officiel*, February 20th, 1926).

2. Report on a Programme of Work with a view to the Solution of the Unemployment Problem, adopted by the National Economic Council on February 8th, 1927 (*Journal Officiel*, February 23rd, 1927).

3. The Problem of National Equipment : First series of reports (*Journal Officiel*, March 24th, 1927).

4. The Problem of National Equipment : Second series of reports (*Journal Officiel*, September 15th, 1927).

5. The Problem of National Equipment : Third series of reports (*Journal Officiel*, April 28th, 1928).

6. The Problem of National Equipment : Fourth series of reports (*Journal Officiel*, January 17th, 1929).

7. Opinion on the Draft Law concerning the Improvement of National Equipment, adopted by the National Economic Council, December 20th and 21st, 1929 (*Journal Officiel*, January 5th, 1930).

8. The Position in the Main Branches of National Economy : (1) Agriculture, first series (*Journal Officiel*, April 25th, 1931).

9. The Position in the Main Branches of National Economy : (1) Agriculture, second series ; (2) Industry, first series (*Journal Officiel*, July 28th, 1931 ; second series (*Journal Officiel*, January 12th, 1932) ; third series cotton and wool (*Journal Officiel*, April 26th, 1932).

6. As these publications show, the French National Economic Council has already done a great deal of very important work, which has materialised in the shape of concrete measures. A prominent part in this work was taken by the Secretariat, more particularly owing to its admirably developed system of documentation. The Council has, nevertheless, been severely criticised for its membership and generally for the way in which the idea of giving economic circles representation was carried into effect. In his preface to the publication already mentioned, *La représentation professionnelle*, M. Fougère remarks in regard to its work :

“ The institution has already proved a practical proposition. It only remains to invest it with legal authority. . . ”

The Economic Council was sanctioned by the Law of 1926, which fixed the amount of its budget. There has also been in existence, since 1928, a Bill ¹ for giving the National Economic Council its proper place among the organs of government in France. This Bill was approved by the Chamber in principle, but has not been further discussed since as this paper is based only on the existing situation, the author does not consider it necessary here to consider this bill in detail.

¹ Bill for the Creation, Organisation and Operation of a National Economic Council, No. 325. Chamber of Deputies, 1928 Session.

10. Germany.

At the time of the reorganisation of the Reich, Germany undertook an experiment which broke new ground in the matter of the development of the relations between the State and economic circles in modern democracies. A bridge was thrown between the conservative bourgeois conceptions, which were rooted in the old community of the various estates of the realm, and the extremist demands of revolutionary socialism. The experiment was at once bold and novel. In 1880, it is true, Bismarck had, through the Prussian Economic Council, allowed economic interests—that is to say, agriculture, industry, commerce, trade, and even labour—to make themselves heard in the discussion of economic legislation; and it is equally true that, in 1917 and 1918, a scheme was on foot for the transformation of the Prussian Upper Chamber (*Herrenhaus*) in the direction of occupational representation. Nevertheless, the idea of a real association of all the factors concerned in production was not translated into fact until the adoption, on August 11th, 1919, of Article 165 of the Constitution of the Reich.

1. In origin, this article was a concession to the influences which were anxious to force Germany along the road leading to a proletarian Soviet State on the Russian model. But the economic basis given to the idea of workers' councils hindered its political application and safeguarded democracy in the Reich. The workers were granted representation of their interests *vis-à-vis* employers in the regulation of wages and conditions of labour; they were required, however, to demonstrate the common interest shared by all the factors of production in the promotion of the national economy. Both these aims were to be attained through freely elected representative bodies (*Betriebsarbeiterräte*) inside the individual concerns, and these were to be linked together on a regional basis (*Bezirksarbeiterräte*) in accordance with economic, instead of geographical or political, considerations. Further objects were to be pursued through district workers' councils, and the whole edifice was to be crowned by the Reich Workers' Council (*Reichsarbeiterrat*).

First and foremost, however, provision was made for co-operation of the workers with the representatives of the employers and other interested sections of the community in district economic councils (*Bezirkswirtschaftsräte*) which were to be invested with administrative and supervisory powers. A threefold division of the economic world into workers, employers and other interested sections of the community (by which consumers were principally meant) was thus deliberately introduced, and the same division is to be found in the composition of the provisional Reich Economic Council.

The *Reich Economic Council* was intended to act as a supreme central organ on which all occupational groups should be represented in proportion to their economic and social importance, and which was granted the right to express an opinion on and to initiate economic and social legislation.

Article 165 of the Constitution of the Reich has given rise to a great deal of controversy and to the most varied interpretations. The construction of this economic organisation, which is so imbued with the modern spirit, has not progressed beyond the laying of the foundations and the placing of the roof, the former through the Law on Works' Councils (*Betriebsrätegesetz*) of February 4th, 1920,¹ and the latter through the Decree of May 4th, 1920,² setting up the *provisional Economic Council of the Reich*. This is merely a temporary structure, as it was intended that, in its final form, the Council should be built up on a number of systematically constructed intermediate organisations. The latter, however, have not as yet materialised.

¹ *Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1920, page 417.

² *Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1920, page 858.

In the meantime, *the provisional Economic Council*—even though lacking an organic substructure—has rendered valuable services to the German economic system, despite the fact that it has had to struggle throughout its existence against political opposition and material difficulties.

Its activities may be divided into three phases.

The first extends from its foundation until the year 1923, and represents a brilliant period marked by great outward strength and intensive creative effort. It was marked by the importance attached to the new institution by the leaders of economic life, who accordingly gave it their full support and lent it the weight of their personal authority,¹ and by the prestige possessed by trade and industry in post-war Germany owing to the political situation and, in the early inflation period, to their financial resources in the shape of the export trade. Questions of great and even of political significance were, at that time, discussed both in private and public committee meetings.

The second phase was quieter. There was less publicity and less public applause. But the Council's activities were more concentrated as the experience gained could now be turned to account. As the result of inflation, its budget had to be reduced, and, from June 29th, 1923, onwards, no further plenary meetings were summoned on account of the expense involved.

This second phase may be regarded as extending until 1930, to which period belongs the struggle over the Council's ultimate form. On July 14th, 1928,² the Minister for Economic Affairs laid before the Reichstag a Bill which, as it took no account of the substructure on which, according to the Constitution, the Economic Council was to be based, was in the nature of a constitutional amendment and therefore required a two-thirds majority and the presence, when the vote was taken, of at least two-thirds of the members. On July 5th, 1930, after long and warm debates, the second reading was passed in the Reichstag by almost all parties. On July 14th, however, a third reading failed to obtain the necessary majority. Since that date, the provisional arrangement previously in force has been maintained, since the political position has precluded the reintroduction of the measure in the Reichstag.

The third phase is, therefore, marked by the adverse effects of the general political position, with a consequent narrowing of the Council's sphere of influence, just as the Reichstag has been relegated to the background by the fact that urgent problems have necessitated prompt solution by means of emergency decrees. This process was carried so far that, for a time, the Council was completely and unwarrantably overshadowed by an Economic Advisory Committee attached to the Government of the Reich.³ It has nevertheless continued to perform its task in a spirit of complete objectivity.

2. As the provisional Economic Council has not undergone any essential changes since its foundation, the present enquiry into its functions and constitution will be based upon the Decree of May 4th, 1920, and upon the practice which has grown up

¹ Dr. Max HACHENBURG, member of the provisional Reich Economic Council, mentions this point in his "Lebenserinnerungen eines Rechtsanwalts" (Neue Brücke Verlag, Dusseldorf, 1927) :

"It was from their individual personalities that emerged the corporate spirit of the whole".

² "Reichstagsdrucksache" No. 398 IV, Electoral period 1928.

³ In October 1931, the Government, presided over by the President of the Reich, set up an Economic Advisory Council consisting of outstanding personalities in economic affairs, to lay down the guiding principles of a Government economic programme. This Council included representatives of both the employers and the workers, though not in equal numbers. As the outcome of its deliberations, certain proposals were made known, at its final meeting on November 23rd, 1931, regarding the general reduction of costs (rents, prices, tariffs and interest).

during the twelve years of its existence. Any fundamental changes contemplated in the new Bill will, of course, be mentioned.

The constitutional status of the provisional Economic Council of the Reich has complete independence, since the Constitution of the Reich expressly assigns to the Economic Council in its final form the character of an immediate organ of government. Under the decree by which it was set up, the same applies to the provisional Economic Council. The Government of the Reich is obliged to submit all economic and social measures of fundamental importance for consideration by the Council before their introduction into the Reichstag. The Council also has the right to propose such measures on its own initiative, but, whereas the provisional Economic Council requires the assent of the Government, both the Constitution and the Bill provide that, when finally constituted, the Council will be entitled to call upon the Government to submit proposals for legislation to the Reichstag even when it does not approve of them. The Economic Council can also delegate one of its members to take charge of its proposals in the Reichstag. In its early years, Bills were sometimes not laid before the Economic Council until they had already been discussed in the Reichsrat, and often even in the Reichstag Commissions, which was plainly not the most suitable way of taking advantage of the Council's expert knowledge. The Bill therefore contains a clause to the effect that, "whenever practicable", the Government shall obtain the Council's opinion on new measures during the preliminary stages of drafting, and in recent years that procedure has frequently been followed in the case of the provisional Economic Council also. From the outset, the Council's members claimed such parliamentary privileges as the right to put questions to the Government and initiate debates. The latter right was, however, refused on the grounds that it was not consonant with the Council's constitutional standing, while, as the result of a protest by the Government, it was decided that questions would require the signature of at least ten of the members. In practice, however, little use has been made of this right. The Council's activities have in the main been confined to advisory opinions, proposals and decisions dealing with economic, financial and social matters.

Its principal commissions (*Hauptausschüsse*) have to be consulted by the Government prior to the promulgation of all important economic and social decrees.

The provisional Economic Council was also intended to be instrumental in the organisation of the district workers' councils and district economic councils provided for in Article 165. Its Constitutional Committee devoted itself to this task with great assiduity, and as early as 1923 worked out the main lines of a scheme. As a result, however, of the difficult economic position, it was decided that this project should not be immediately carried into effect, though all idea of its future application has not been abandoned.¹

Finally, the Economic Council was empowered to establish a committee to settle disputes arising out of the law on Works' Councils (*Betriebsrätegesetz*). Latterly, however, this committee has discontinued its work.

3. The Reich Economic Council works through the following organs :

- (a) The plenary assembly ;
- (b) The managing committee ;
- (c) The principal commissions ;
- (d) The permanent special committees.

¹ Cf. the comprehensive and suggestive monograph by the late head of the Bureau of the Provisional Economic Council, Dr. HAUSCHILD : " Der vorläufige Reichswirtschaftsrat, 1920-1926 " ; E. S. Mittler and Son, Berlin, 1926, page 6.

(a) The plenary assembly consists of 326 members. It is divided into ten groups, the first six of which consist of employers and workers in strictly equal numbers.

Group I :	68 representatives of agriculture.
Group II :	6 representatives of horticulture and fisheries.
Group III :	68 representatives of industry.
Group IV :	44 representatives of commerce, banking and insurance.
Group V :	34 representatives of transport and public undertakings.
Group VI :	36 representatives of handicrafts.
Group VII :	30 representatives of consumers.
Group VIII :	16 representatives of the Civil Service.
Group IX :	12 authorities on the economic life of the various parts of the country.
Group X :	12 persons to be nominated at the discretion of the Government of the Reich.

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The members of Groups I to VIII were appointed by their own organisations and convened by the Government. The Government drew up a list of the nominating bodies with due regard, in the case of industry and commerce, to sectional and geographical organisation. All branches of the nation's economic life are represented : production, distribution, consumption, the liberal professions and science (the latter principally in Group X). The Reich Economic Council thus faithfully represents the economic life of Germany, even if certain individual groups are as yet unrepresented or insufficiently represented. The producers, for example, preponderate over the other groups.

In this organisation, an important part is played by the two classes of " capital " and " labour ". In Groups I to VI, in which both have an equal number of members, each forms a compact section, the members of which, in the workers' case especially, unite on almost all questions. In many cases, moreover, and especially in regard to social legislation, the two sections are divided by irreconcilable differences of outlook. Groups VII to X compose a third section which on many occasions has interposed between employers and workers and has helped them to reach a compromise.

The importance of these sections was, moreover, enhanced in the draft law already mentioned, which makes them the determining factor in the allotment of representatives. This is of considerable importance to the workers' section, because the bodies responsible for the nomination of their representatives on all groups are the three big trade-union federations and the principal employees' associations. To the employers' section, however, the point is of minor importance, as both in such statutory bodies as the Chambers of Agriculture, Chambers of Commerce and Industry, etc., and in the leading sectional associations such as the Reichsverband der deutschen Industrie, the Reichslandbund, etc.—which are also nominating bodies—the various corporate groups are separately organised in accordance with the nature of their economic activities. In section 3 (Groups VII to X) the nominating bodies are the following : communes, consumers' associations, housewives' and domestic servants' associations, caterers' associations, waiters' unions and professional organisations of architects, doctors, engineers, artists, authors, barristers, composers and the civil servants' federations. In these cases, the representatives are drawn from the members of the bodies represented. The members of Groups IX and X, who, however, number only 24, are nominated by the Government of the Reich and the Reichsrat (acting on behalf of the Governments of the various *Länder*).

All members have the right to vote, while from time to time experts may be called in, but have no vote. (The draft law provides for non-permanent members and experts with voting powers.) Government representatives are entitled to take part at any time in the meetings of all the Council's organs in an advisory capacity; the Council can, moreover, require them to attend in order to explain draft laws, etc.

The plenary Assembly is presided over by a chairman elected by the members, or by one of the two vice-chairmen. The meetings of the plenary Assembly are public. Fifty-eight plenary meetings were held down to 1923.¹

The members are the representatives of the economic interests of the German people.² They are expected to act exclusively as their conscience dictates, and are not bound by any instructions (to a certain extent, however, they are dependent on the organisations which they represent). They enjoy parliamentary immunity and the right to refuse to give evidence in a court of law. They are entitled to free railway travel and subsistence allowances. Members are forbidden to make improper use of information obtained in the performance of their duties or to divulge the nature of proceedings specified as confidential.

(b) Under the standing orders of June 10th, 1921, the managing committee consists of the acting chairman, the two vice-chairmen, six other deputy-chairmen and nine secretaries. It decides questions of organisation and, since the discontinuation of the plenary meetings, gives its assent, in accordance with the standing orders, to the transmission of opinions. Each of the three sections (viz. : (1) the section of the employers, (2) the section of the workers, (3) the section of all the other interested circles) must be represented on the managing committee in equal numbers.

The chairmen and first vice-chairman change offices half-yearly on July 1st and January 1st, the arrangement being that the Economic Council is presided over by an employer and a workman alternately.

(c) The principal commissions—viz., *the economic and social commissions*—are presided over by one of their own members. These commissions were set up as far back as 1920, and consist of thirty members with an equal number of deputy-members. *The activities of the Economic Council are at present conducted through them.*

(d) In addition there are, at present, the following special committees :³

- (1) Standing orders ;
- (2) Constitutional questions ;
- (3) Supervision of export trade ;
- (4) Agriculture and foodstuffs ;
- (5) Transport ;
- (6) Land settlement and housing ;
- (7) Financial policy ;
- (8) Turnover tax ;
- (9) The economic promotion of intellectual work.

Small sub-committees are also set up to deal with special questions.

¹ Cf. HAUSCHILD, *op. cit.*, page 4.

² Conditions as for election to the Reichstag : age 20, German subject for the previous twelve months at least, possession of full rights of citizenship and the unrestricted right to engage in trade. Women on exactly the same footing as men. At the present time there are six women members of Group VII, representing consumers' interests.

³ By 1923, fifty-three committees had been set up. (Cf. HAUSCHILD, *op. cit.*, page 3.)

4. This brings us to the Economic Council's *methods of work*. They are characterised by a keen sense of responsibility and constant impartiality.

The first step in regard to each individual problem is the setting up of a sub-committee which probes every aspect of the question through the examination of technical experts, including representatives of interests which are apparently only indirectly concerned.¹

After a careful sifting of the evidence, the essentials are embodied in an opinion and take the form of either general recommendations or detailed clauses. Since 1923, the former method has been preferred.

A decision is then taken in the principal commissions by a majority vote of the individual members, the quorum being half the total number. A group vote may also be taken if called for. Minority views must be mentioned in the text of the opinion.

Verbatim reports are drawn up of the proceedings in all the organs of the Economic Council. In addition, the Council issues an information bulletin which is edited in its own office; the latter possesses a well-stocked library and a comprehensive and specialised records service.

5. The Council's activities are so far-reaching and many-sided that it is impossible to do them justice in a brief survey.² The multiple problems with which it has dealt touch upon every aspect of economic and social life. Most of them originated in Government proposals, though in a large number of instances the Economic Council proceeded on its own initiative. It played a decisive part in the stabilisation of the currency, the reform of taxation, labour legislation, the elaboration of the Customs tariff, measures against price agreements and for price reductions, the preparation of a programme for the provision of employment, etc. It has formulated opinions on many international problems, such as the resolutions of the 1927 World Economic Conference, the recommendations of the League of Nations Economic Committee in regard to commercial policy, etc.

6. In 1926, the *research Committee* (Committee for Research into Economic Conditions in Germany with special reference to production and marketing) was attached to the Economic Council. Its activities resulted in the publication of a long series of volumes, after which it was dissolved. Under the draft law for the final organisation of the Economic Council, the latter is invested with the right to conduct enquiries.

11. Greece.

Owing to the political uncertainty of post-war years in Greece, the question arose as to how economic interests could best be represented in the political life of the country, independently of the day-to-day strife of political parties, so as to achieve at least some measure of stability in economic policy.

Numerous plans for the realisation of this idea have been discussed since 1920 and have given rise to the sharpest controversies. Among the better known proposals were the Bill of the Prime Minister, M. Gunaris, for the establishment of an occupational parliament side by side with the political Chamber, and the scheme

¹ During the consideration of the Unemployment Insurance Law, experts representing even the smallest economic units were examined. The sub-committee held twenty-one meetings. (Cf. HAUSCHILD, *op. cit.*, page 354.)

² The first comprehensive report for the years 1920 to 1926, already mentioned, covers 640 pages. In the six years which have elapsed since then, the work done has not grown less. A second memorandum is in preparation.

which the Secretary-General of the French National Economic Council, M. Cahen-Salvador, worked out for Greece at the invitation of the Greek Government in the years 1929 to 1930.

These ideas were first embodied in practical form in the *Law concerning the Constitution of the Senate* of January 14th, 1929.¹ For the first time in Greek constitutional history (the two-Chamber system was first introduced in 1925), this law granted to the occupational associations the right to elect eighteen out of the 120 statutory members of the Senate for a period of three years.

The following were appointed as electoral bodies to represent the various occupational interests: the Chambers of Commerce and Industry in respect of two seats, the Chambers of Artisans and Craftsmen in respect of three seats, the Chambers of Agriculture in respect of five seats, and the Chambers of Labour, which have not yet been established, in respect of four seats. In the meantime, the right of election was conferred by decree upon certain associations of workers. In addition, the Union of Greek Shipowners was given the right to elect one senator, and three seats were allotted to the Chambers of Arts and Sciences which are to be set up and whose voting rights are at present exercised by the regular members of the Academy of Athens and the professors of the higher educational establishments.

The right both to elect and to be elected is conditional upon membership of an occupational association. The prescribed ages are 21 and 40 respectively.

In spite of the fact that this new constitution of the Senate made possible the direct participation of occupational interests in the work of legislation, these interests have not yet achieved the influence to which they are entitled as the productive factors in the State. If we examine the constitutional development and the history of the political Chambers, we see again and again that a small group of occupational representatives in the First Chamber is unable to enforce its views because the scales are always weighed down by political considerations.² The right to elect members of the Senate constituted, in fact, a success for the occupational movement, but was of little importance for the circles concerned themselves.

In order to secure due consideration for their interests, other methods had to be devised. The necessity of establishing an organisation devoted purely to economic aims within which the views of all occupational circles would receive attention again impressed itself upon the Government. The Bill concerning the *constitution of a Supreme Economic Council* which had occupied the public mind since 1930, after approval by the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies, was signed by President Zaimis on March 30th, 1932, and thus acquired force of law.

In the interval, as a result of the most diverse influences, the Council had acquired quite a different physiognomy. On the basis of the new law, it has become an *Advisory Council of Experts*, whereas, in the Bill, the idea of securing representation for economic organisations was dominant. The view which had been pressed during the discussions on the Bill that direct election by the occupational associations would lead to difficulties in practice in consequence of the lack of a uniform organisation of occupational interests has therefore prevailed. The members are to be selected or appointed by the

¹ No. 3786 of the statute-book of the Greek State, *Ephimeristis Kyvernisseos*, 1929.

² BRAUNIAS writes in his work which has already been quoted, *Das parlamentarische Wahlrecht*, with regard to the Greek Senate (page 196):

“ . . . The eighteen senators to be elected by the occupational associations proved to be not sufficiently numerous to represent more specialised interests in the Senate than those of the political parties.

“ The Senate has become a second edition of the Chamber.”

Government. No provisions regarding the submission of lists of appointment by the occupational organisations are contained in the text of the law. It merely contains the statement (Article 2, No. 3) that the members are to be representative of science, occupational interests and national administration, and are to be selected on the ground of their special knowledge and experience. As may be seen from the list drawn up in accordance with a Cabinet decision dated April 25th, 1932, the members who have been appointed include nine representatives of learning such as Professor Svolos, Professor of Constitutional Law in the University of Athens, who was one of the supporters of the Bill, five representatives of the National Bank and other banks, two former Finance Ministers, one industrialist, and the President of the Athens Commercial Federation. The seats were obviously not evenly distributed among the individual occupational groups, and banking interests are predominantly represented, probably as a result of the threatening financial situation of the State. There is also no longer any question of appointing workers' representatives, although the Bill strictly maintained the principle of parity between the two chief categories of occupations. Social questions receive consideration in the establishment of a section for "Social and Labour Policy".

The interests of consumers will presumably be cared for in the section for "Political Economy".

The number of members has been reduced to twenty, as compared with fifty-two in the Bill. They must be Greek nationals. In addition to the regular members, the Secretaries-General of the Ministries and the heads of the competent sections of the Administration may take part in the meetings of the Economic Council as extraordinary members for the discussion of special questions.

The President of the Council is the Prime Minister. The Vice-President is chosen by a decision of the Council of Ministers from among the members of the Government. The Vice-President and the members are appointed for three years. The work is honorary and unpaid.

The duties of the Economic Council, whose work was described by M. Papanastasiou, the Prime Minister, at the opening meeting on June 2nd, 1932, as of the greatest importance for the Government, consist in investigating all problems connected with the economic, social and financial policy of the State (Article 1), in the carrying out of necessary enquiries and in giving opinions on principles of economic policy.

In particular, it has to advise the Government on all questions which the latter may submit to it, especially as regards the laws and the administrative regulations of the various Ministries.

The Supreme Economic Council is established at Athens. It draws up its own rules of procedure. It holds ordinary meetings once a month. Extraordinary meetings can be summoned, at the request of the Government, by the President or Vice-President. The quorum for taking decisions is fixed at more than half the total number of members. If a decision is not adopted by a two-thirds majority, the numbers voting for and against must be stated in the Minutes, which must immediately be transmitted by the Secretary-General to the President, together with any opinions, recommendations and resolutions which may have been adopted.

The Law also provides for the appointment of two kinds of *special committees* (Article 3 and Article 8, No. II).

The President of the Economic Council can, if he sees fit, appoint a committee of five or more members selected on account of their special knowledge from a list established by the General Secretariat. Such committees are always presided over by members of the Economic Council appointed by the President or his representative. The list referred to contains only the names of persons who possess special experience

of economic problems, who have done scientific work or who are familiar with labour questions.

The Council in plenary session can also decide that sub-committees should be appointed in order thoroughly to investigate some special question ; in such cases, the report must be submitted to the plenary body for approval.

The Economic Council is, moreover, divided for the purposes of its work into six sections. They correspond to those provided for in the earlier Bill :

- (1) Section for agriculture ;
- (2) Section for industry and handicraft ;
- (3) Section for trade and transport ;
- (4) Section for economic policy ;
- (5) Section for social policy and labour questions.

It is a sign of the times that a sixth section has been added to deal with questions of foreign exchange transactions and the fixing of prices.

The work of these sections is supervised by the General Secretariat, which moreover collects documents on economic questions, prepares the financial, political and sociological material for the consideration of the Council and acts as the link between the Economic Council and the public authorities.

The Secretary-General is chosen from among the higher officials of the Ministries concerned with economic questions or the public bodies placed under the control of those Ministries. The head of the Bureau of the Economic Council, who is also an official, may act as his substitute.

All Government and municipal authorities, together with all public corporations and economic and social organisations, are required to supply the Economic Council in writing, within not more than one month, with any information which it has asked for and needs for the fulfilment of its tasks. If they should refuse to do so, they render themselves guilty of dereliction of duty.

Such are the provisions of the law ;¹ experience will show how it is interpreted. Executory regulations have not yet been issued. It is clear from the proceedings at the first session of the Economic Council that the Government is sincerely desirous of hearing the views of representatives of industry and trade and of giving effect to them. As soon as the agenda had been reached at the first meeting, the problem, which is so much to the fore at the moment, of the direct interchange of goods (barter) with other countries was discussed. An exhaustive report was submitted by the Deputy-Governor of the National Bank, M. Coryzis, in which he put forward definite proposals for the organisation of the import trade.

The proposals in question were at once considered by the members of the Council, and it was decided to appoint a committee of six members to examine the matter more thoroughly and to lay its conclusions before the Economic Council at one of its next meetings. It is worth noting that the Prime Minister, who was present, declared that " the Government reserves the right to express its views later in order not to influence the Economic Council ".² The Council was thus afforded an opportunity of developing its power of initiative. The Bill on the subject, to which reference has been made, is to be worked out by the Economic Council. The labours of the Council thus seem to have had a most promising beginning.

¹ Law No. 5354, contained in the *Ephimeristis Kyvernisseos*, of Athens, of April 29th, 1932, A. N^o 139.

² Report on the first meeting of the Supreme Economic Council, contained in the *Messageur d'Athènes* of June 3rd, 1932, No. 3119.

12. Hungary.

In the spring of 1932, the Hungarian Prime Minister, Count Karolyi, laid a Bill before the House of Deputies providing for the institution of a *National Council for Social Policy*. Both Houses of Parliament, the Ministries, the various economic groups and the organisations of capital and labour will be represented on this Council. It will have advisory powers in the sphere of social policy and be under the orders of the Prime Minister.¹

There are *economic committees* attached to the Ministries. Furthermore, current problems are discussed by the heads of the economic departments at weekly conferences to which prominent specialists and experts are invited. There is a *National Statistical Office*, with headquarters at Budapest.

13. Irish Free State.

In the Irish Constitution of October 25th, 1922, provision is made for an occupational body with a right to propose the appointment of extra-parliamentary technical ministers.² In practice, no action has ever been taken under this provision.

Other *advisory bodies*, however, have been appointed, but are not combined in any central association. Their purpose is only to advise on special questions and to assist the competent Ministries in the execution of laws.

1. In the case of agriculture, an Advisory Council on agricultural questions in general may be appointed under the Agriculture Act of 1931.³ Under the Dairy Produce Act⁴ of 1924, there is an Assessor Council for questions relating to *milk products*, and another for questions relating to *stock-breeding* under the Live-stock Breeding Act⁵ of 1925. An Advisory Committee for questions of *egg production* was also appointed under the Agriculture Act, and has subsequently been developed into a *Council*.

The relevant passages in the above-mentioned Acts (Articles 11, 45 and 16 respectively) lay down identical directives for these advisory bodies. The Minister of Agriculture is empowered, after hearing persons and bodies belonging to the industry concerned, to summon representatives of those interests concerned to meet as an Assessor Council and discuss problems arising under the legislation concerned, or any other matters relating to the particular industry in question. Members are appointed for two years and receive travelling and maintenance allowances.

The Assessor Councils are summoned by the Minister. A Council is also empowered to decide at its own discretion to meet for the discussion of urgent questions when it so desires.

2. The Minister of Industry and Commerce has also appointed, for his assistance, *Advisory Committees* for more than thirty industries. They consist of five or six representatives of firms in the industries concerned, and are summoned from time to

¹ 203 Szám. Törvényjavaslat, Budapest, April 15th, 1932.

² Cf. BRAUNIAS, *op. cit.*, Vol. I, page 268.

³ Saorstát Eireann, No. 8, of 1931.

⁴ Saorstát Eireann, No. 58, of 1924.

⁵ Saorstát Eireann, No. 3, of 1925.

time to throw light on questions relating to their respective industries. The Administration is in this way kept informed as to the affairs of the various industries, made acquainted with the difficulties with which they have to contend, and enabled to take the necessary steps with a view to improvement, as and when found necessary. Joint sittings of two or more Committees may take place as required.

14. Italy.

1. In order to understand the Italian *National Council of Corporations* ("Consiglio Nazionale delle Corporazioni"), some knowledge of the corporative system of the Fascist State is required; for the Council is only the crowning point of the system of representation by occupations, in which each section of the whole structure finds support in the section below. The Council is the apex in which the pyramid of economic co-ordination culminates. It is the only economic body in Europe, or indeed in the whole world, which has been evolved organically out of the economic life of the nation. What Germany set before herself as the goal of her economic development in Article 165 of her Constitution, what is still being discussed by other countries as a vague ideal, Italy has already brought to a condition of virtual perfection. That is a creative achievement of which M. Bottai, Minister of Corporations, was fully entitled to claim that it will take rank as such in the economic history of mankind.¹

A new conception of the interconnection of economic functions, the interdependence of individual factors, and the consequent necessity for co-operation and for that unity of effort by which alone the progress of the individual in the economic and moral domain can be assured has been developed by the corporative system. This progress, however, can take effect in relation to the individual only *through the medium of the State*, which protects the individual and provides for his welfare. Consequently, the individual must identify himself with the State and must subordinate his own interests to the higher purpose of the State. He must acknowledge the State's authority, and submit himself to its discipline in all domains of political life, including the economic domain. Private initiative, the freedom of the individual, is an inviolable principle of the Fascist economic system. It has been asserted again and again by the head of the Government, Mussolini, and by his Ministers. But the Government reserves the right to supervise the activities of the various "economic units", and to intervene, as and when these activities run counter to the interests of the national economy—*i.e.*, when they do not conduce to the common good. The free play of forces is disciplined by the State so that the "blind egoistic interest of current economic tendencies" may not exclude or outweigh all moral considerations. The conscience of the producer must be awakened: he must not lose sight of his responsibility towards his fellow-men. This strong emphasis on moral values, *even in economics*, differentiates the Fascist corporative system from the Marxist conception, which is the exact opposite of Fascism in that it views all human relationships in terms of economics. This idealism, which is not confined to words but is effectively translated into action—as, for instance, when industrialists who infringe its principles are given a reminder in the shape of penalties—is no doubt responsible for the fact that the system has established itself as successfully as it has.

The corporative system is as far removed from the conceptions of Liberalism as it is from the theories of Bolshevism. But the Government never ceases to insist

¹ "Italiens korporative Organisation", by Giuseppe BOTTAI, in the *Berliner Tageblatt*, No. 210, of May 4th, 1932.

that its activities are not based on any preconceived dogma or theory, but simply and solely on practical considerations. Its method is the method of induction, of experiment, of *Realpolitik*. It watches the economic life of the country, and adjusts its decisions accordingly. As a result, economic development in Italy can only be gradual, and is bound to proceed by progressive steps.

Capital and Labour are placed on an equal footing, and the principle of parity and equality of representation is systematically applied in every organ of the national economy. Employers and employed are required alike, without respect of persons, to conform to the regulations of the State, though they are free to voice their point of view in the Corporations.

The Government, for example, encroached on the rights of the workers in 1929 and 1930, when it proposed to reduce wages so as to correspond with the fall in wholesale prices, and again when, in view of the serious economic situation, it amended Article 17 of the *Carta del Lavoro* (Labour Charter), under which employees dismissed through no fault of their own are entitled to the payment of an indemnity corresponding to their years of service.

On the other hand, the new Law on the *Formation and Operation of Combines* (employer's associations) *within the Same Branch of the National Economy* was an encroachment on the rights of the employers. The formation of combines in a *particular* branch of the national industry may in certain circumstances be decreed in order to regulate production and competition.¹ The Law thus favours the horizontal grouping of undertakings under State supervision as a means of averting crises. M. Bottai, when introducing the Bill in the Chamber of Deputies on April 30th last, contended that "the tendency towards combines is always in contradiction to the corporative spirit" and that combines must therefore be supervised and regulated by the directing and discriminating hand of the State.²

The second article of the Law further allows the conclusion of combines for the control of *interdependent* branches of the national economy, subject to the assent of the competent Corporations. This additional advance in the direction of co-ordination permits of concentration along vertical lines.³

The powers of the Corporations remain intact in all these cases.

This tendency towards a vertical development of industry, when once the horizontal development is complete, is characteristic of the latest evolution of the corporative system as reflected in the structure of the more recently formed Corporations and in the proceedings at the last session of the Council of Corporations.

2. The underlying ideas of the corporative system having thus been indicated, the structure of the Corporations, their sphere of activity and their close connection with the Council of Corporations may now be considered.

(a) The basic Law on Federations and Syndicates is dated April 3rd, 1926.⁴ It was supplemented by the Executory Regulations of July 1st, 1926.⁵ It lays down

¹ The exercise of compulsion in connection with the formation of combines is to be regarded as an exceptional measure, to be resorted to only where the desired object cannot be attained by voluntary agreement.

² *Journal of the Fascist Corporations*, Rome, IVth year Nos. 4 and 5 (April-May 1932), page 3.

³ The agreement recently concluded between the associations of the cotton manufacturers and those of the textile trade concerning uniform conditions of sale and payment shows that efforts are being made to promote closer co-operation in the case of textiles in a vertical direction.

⁴ No. 563, Legge della disciplina giuridica dei rapporti collettivi del lavoro (*Official Gazette* of April 14th, 1926, No. 87).

⁵ No. 1130 (*Official Gazette* of July 7th, 1926, No. 155).

the conditions under which an association or syndicate of whatever kind—*i.e.*, for employers or employed, for manual or intellectual workers, etc.—is to receive legal recognition. Each man is free to choose his syndicate, but he must belong to an organisation recognised by the State in order to have a claim on the protection and care of the association and a vote in the elections to it. Only recognised associations can send delegates to the corporative organisations. Syndical associations may be organised in various ways; they may be communal, provincial, national, inter-regional, or grouped together as *federazioni* or *confederazioni*. They have legal personality, are regarded as the representatives of the whole branch of the national economy concerned in their respective districts, and may levy contributions from registered and non-registered members. They are obliged to protect the economic and moral interests of their members and to promote their welfare, instruction and moral and national education. For this purpose, they may affiliate institutes and social organisations, including co-operatives; but they are not allowed to engage in commercial operations. These associations or syndicates must consist either of *employers only* or of *workers only*, and there is thus only one approved Fascist organisation of employers and one of workers for each branch of the national economy in each district. The principal task of these organisations is *the conclusion of collective agreements between the two*. The subject-matter of these agreements is prescribed by the various provisions of the *Carta del Lavoro*¹ published in the year 1927 on April 21st (the birthday of Rome). The collective agreements must be communicated to the Prefects in the case of provincial districts and to the Minister of Corporations in the case of the larger districts, and must be published in the *Official Gazette* and in the local official journals. The workers were quicker to take advantage of the Law of 1926 than the employers.

(b) The next grade in the pyramid is the union of *all* the Fascist employers' associations or *all* the workers' syndicates in a particular branch of the national economy (*e.g.*, in industry or agriculture) in a *National Fascist Confederation* representing capital or labour, as the case may be, in the whole branch of the national economy concerned throughout the State. The Confederations represent the interests of their respective branches of the national economy *vis-à-vis* the Government and *vis-à-vis* the other Confederations, in their Corporation and in the National Council of Corporations, for the purpose of the discussion of legislative and the execution of administrative measures.

The next stage in the structure is the *Corporation*. In its present form, the Corporation is a committee or council of representatives of the Confederations of the various branches of the national economy—there is, *e.g.*, a Corporation of Industry, a Corporation of Forwarding Agents, etc.—including *both employers and employed*. This is the first stage at which the synthesis between the two factors of production, Capital and Labour, is achieved. The principle of parity is strictly observed in the composition of the Corporations. The Corporations are groupings of the thirteen existing Confederations (six of the employers and six of the workers, and one of the liberal professions and arts).

The Corporation is not, however, an autonomous body, but an *organ of the State*. Its meetings are presided over by a representative of the Government, generally an Under-Secretary of State of the Ministry of Corporations or of whatever Ministry is competent for the discussion of the matter in hand.

The Corporations, it will be seen, are organised *horizontally*; and the same is true of the seven sections of the Council of Corporations. The most recently created

¹ *Official Gazette* of April 30th, 1927, No. 100.

Corporation, on the other hand, the «Corporazione dello Spettacolo», founded by Ministerial Decree on December 6th, 1930, is organised *vertically*. It comprises all groups concerned with the drama : authors, theatrical managers, actors, film performers, employers and workers. This new form of Corporation, which represents another step towards the integration of all economic factors, is likely to be extended in the future to as many spheres of national economy as possible. A proposal, for instance, has been discussed at length in the «Comitato corporativo centrale»,¹ the managing committee of the Council of Corporations, to form a *Book Corporation*. The formation of a *Bread Corporation* to include all groups concerned with the production of bread is also under consideration. It is significant that, at the last meeting of the Council of Corporations, on June 11th, 1932, the Minister of Corporations, M. Bottai, was able to announce² that the Duce, in his capacity as President of the Council of Corporations, had authorised him to form a *Silk Corporation*. This will be the second Corporation of a particular branch of the national economy «*corporazione di categoria*» to be formed.

(c) The following is an account of how the corporative system works.

First, the material to be dealt with is very carefully prepared in a Commission of the Ministry of Corporations. Political, economic and technical institutes are called upon to co-operate. A whole series of such institutes has been created under the corporative system—for instance, the National Export Institute, the National Institute for the Housing of State Employees, the National Institute for the Utilisation of Spare Time (the so-called *Dopolavoro*), the National Institute for the normalisation of Industry, the National Institute of the Theatre, the National Association for Social Insurance, the Inspectorate of Social Hygiene, etc.

The report produced is then submitted to the Confederations, who, in their turn, prepare memoranda in which they put their point of view. The Corporation then meets at the Ministry of Corporations under the chairmanship of the Minister of Corporations or of an Under-Secretary of State, and discusses the question from the point of view of the interests of the employers and the workmen jointly. As a rule, the question is first discussed by each Corporation separately. Whether an agreement is reached or not, the question is brought up again for final decision in the Council of Corporations, together with the resolutions adopted by the Corporations.

The decisions of the Council of Corporations have then to obtain the assent of the head of the Government, Mussolini, who has a right of veto—*i.e.*, he can forbid the publication of the resolution. If the question under discussion is such as to form the basis for a law, it must be approved also by the legislative bodies (the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies).

In any case, however, it is *the Government which decides at what moment the resolution should be carried out*. The resolution only acquires force of law when it has been published in the *Official Gazette*. The underlying idea is that, through the discussions in the Corporations and especially in the Council of Corporations, the Government is enabled to get an insight into the requirements of the national economy and into the situation of its various branches, and is thus in a position to take measures for their protection and support. Each branch can freely express its opinion both in the Corporations and in the National Council.

The idea of the Corporation is to weigh and reconcile the various interests concerned : this explains why the resolutions of the Corporations are commonly unanimous.

¹ At a meeting on March 1st, 1932. See *Journal of the Fascist Corporations*, April and May, 1932, Nos. 4 and 5, page 7.

² *Giornale d'Italia* of June 14th, 1932, No. 141.

The following are examples of questions which have been dealt with in the manner described: the foreign trade problem, the reform of accident insurance, the Patents Law, etc. In the Overland Transport Corporation, general directions have been laid down in regard to the economic, technical and moral conditions which consigning agents must fulfil in order to qualify for admission to a special list. If they fail to comply with these conditions, they are penalised by restrictions of their activities and confiscation of the security they are compelled to deposit.

The proposal for the electrification of agriculture has been considered both by the Industrial Corporation and by the Agricultural Corporation. When on occasion a conflict of opinion became apparent between the agricultural and industrial interests, in particular on the subject of tariff protection, Mussolini pointed out that "the two are the right and the left hand of the same body".

The Commercial Corporation, considering that further division of labour was required, has instituted a Retail Trade Section, with technical committees in the case of special trade (goldsmiths' wares, boots and shoes, foodstuffs, etc.).

(d) The Corporations promote their objects by congresses, exhibitions, training courses, inter-confederational committees, etc. The Theatre Corporation has a very wide field of activities. For instance, it has made possible the opening of a number of theatres by the grant of financial support; it has arranged for the adjustment of the charges for the rent of theatres to the economic situation; it has formed a special operatic company, obtained facilities for companies going abroad, taken steps for the issue of a corporative workers' card, drawn up a model wage agreement for operatic artistes, created a provident fund for members of orchestras, choirs, ballets, etc.

In this way, the individual producer obtains a share in the shaping of the economic policy of the State through the intermediary of the Syndicate (which can submit proposals), the Corporation (which centralises the various interests concerned) and, finally, the National Council of Corporations (which can take decisions).

3. This *Council of Corporations*, regarding which Mussolini, at the opening meeting on April 21st, 1930, said that "as the general staff is the brain of the army, so the Council should be the brain of the national economy, preparing and giving orders",¹ became, under the Law of March 20th, 1930,² the keystone of the corporative fabric.

(a) A Council of Corporations was already in existence. It had been created by two Royal Decrees, of July 2nd, 1926, and July 14th, 1927, on the occasion of the institution of the Ministry of Corporations. It was subordinate to the Ministry of Corporations and purely consultative in character. It could only give advice on questions which were submitted to it by the Ministry, in particular, questions relating to the *various* Corporations and associations. Its composition, was similar to that as laid down in the Law of 1930, of the present Council.

As a result of its reorganisation, the Council of Corporations became an important independent organ of the State administration, whose duty is to ensure a unified policy of national production, by giving advice, taking decisions and drawing up

¹ From a speech made on April 21st, 1930, in the Palazzo dei Conservatori on the Capitol, recorded in the volume: "Consiglio Nazionale delle Corporazioni, Raccolta coordinata delle disposizioni Vigenti con note indici compilata a cura del Segretariato Generale del Consiglio Nazionale delle Corporazioni 1932," 10, U.S.I.L.A., Rome, Via del Tritone 201.

² *Official Gazette* of March 28th, 1930, No. 74.

regulations. Its independence is, however, limited in many matters by the prerogatives of the Duce.

(b) The organs of the Council of Corporations are :

- (1) Sections and Sub-Sections (*Sezioni e Sottosezioni*) ;
- (2) The Corporation Central Committee (*Comitato corporativo centrale*) ;
- (3) Special Permanent Commissions (*Commissioni speciale permanenti*) ;
- (4) General Assembly (*Assemblea generale*).

The Chairmanship of the Council of Corporations and of its organs is held by the head of the Government, Mussolini. The Minister of Corporations can preside over the meetings in his stead by delegation. In the Sections and Sub-Sections, and in the Special Commissions, one of the Under-Secretaries of State of the Ministry of Corporations can act for him. The Secretary-General of the Council of Corporations is the Director-General of Corporations. He may be assisted in his duties by a delegate of the Corporations.

(c) The seven Sections of the National Council are as follows :

- (1) Section for Liberal Professions and Arts, divided into two Sub-Sections ;
- (2) Section for Industry and Manual Labour, also divided into two Sub-Sections ;
- (3) Agricultural Section ;
- (4) Commercial Section ;
- (5) Section for Water and Air Transport, which also contains two Sub-Sections ;
- (6) Section for Land Transport and Inland Navigation. ;¹
- (7) Credit and Insurance Section. ²

The National Fascist Confederations of the different branches of the National Economy and the National Confederations of the Fascist Syndicates send their representatives to these Sections. These representatives are appointed by their several associations and are accepted as members by Royal Decree on the proposal of the head of the Government. They must fulfil all the conditions laid down in the law on political elections in regard to the eligibility of deputies ;³ if they fail to do so, their appointment may be invalidated. On taking office, members are sworn in by the head of the Government. They are appointed for three years, and may thereafter have their appointment renewed. Membership is honorary, but travelling expenses are paid.

The composition of the Sections is open to amendment. It may be altered, on the proposal of the Minister of Corporations after hearing the Council of Corporations, by decree of the head of the Government. Sections and Sub-Sections may discuss questions coming exclusively within their competence either separately or in conjunction with other questions of general significance. Similarly, in special cases determined by the Standing Orders, questions may be discussed by the employers' representatives (whether of some or all of the Sections) alone or by the workers' representatives alone.

¹ Reorganised by a Government Decree of December 20th, 1931 (*Official Gazette* of February 13th, 1932, No. 36).

² Modified by Government Decrees of December 20th, 1931 (*Official Gazette* as above), and of February 29th, 1932 (*Official Gazette* of March 30th, 1932, No. 74).

³ Italian nationality, minimum age 25 years, possession of civil and political rights.

When the subject of the discussions is the expansion of the Corporative system, or other cases determined by law, a General Assembly of the Council is called.

(d) The following representatives of the various Sections are convoked to form the General Assembly:

SECTION I. — SECTION FOR LIBERAL PROFESSIONS AND ARTS.

Sub-Section for Liberal Professions.

- I Chairman of the National Confederation of Fascist Syndicates for the Liberal Professions and Arts.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Advocates and Attorneys.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Doctors of Political Economy, Commerce and Sociology.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Tradesmen holding diplomas.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Engineers.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Architects.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Chemists.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Surveyors.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Commercial Experts.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Doctors of Medicine.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Veterinary Surgeons.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Druggists.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Notaries.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Journalists.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Industrial Experts.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Midwives.

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Arts Sub-Section.

- I Chairman of the National Confederation of Fascist Syndicates for the Liberal Professions and Arts.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Authors.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Musicians.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Architects.
- I representative of the Syndicate of Journalists.
- I representative of the Federation of Publishing Firms.
- I representative of the Association of Newspaper Publishers.
- I representative of the Theatrical Industry Association.
- I representative of the Handicraftsmen's Union.

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SECTION II. — SECTION FOR INDUSTRY AND HANDICRAFTS.

Industry Sub-Section.

- 1 Chairman of the National Fascist Confederation of Industry.
- 5 representatives of the National Fascist Confederation of Industry.
- 2 representatives of the managers.
- 1 Commissioner of the Confederation of Fascist Industrial Syndicates.
- 6 representatives of the Confederation of Fascist Industrial Syndicates.
- 2 representatives of the Co-operatives.

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Handicrafts Sub-Section.

- 1 Chairman of the National Fascist Confederation of Industry.
- 3 representatives of the Handicraftsmen's Association.
- 1 Commissioner of the National Confederation of Fascist Industrial Syndicates.

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SECTION III. — AGRICULTURAL SECTION.

- 1 Chairman of the National Fascist Confederation of Agriculture.
- 5 representatives of the National Fascist Confederation of Agriculture.
- 2 representatives of the managers.
- 1 Chairman of the National Confederation of Fascist Agricultural Syndicates.
- 5 representatives of the National Fascist Agricultural Syndicates.
- 2 representatives of agricultural experts.
- 2 representatives of the co-operatives.

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SECTION IV. — COMMERCIAL SECTION.

- 1 Chairman of the National Fascist Confederation of Commerce.
- 5 representatives of the National Fascist Confederation of Commerce.
- 2 representatives of the managers.
- 1 Chairman of the National Confederation of Fascist Commercial Syndicates.
- 7 representatives of the National Confederation of Fascist Commercial Syndicates.
- 2 representatives of the co-operatives.

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SECTION V. — SECTION FOR WATER AND AIR TRANSPORT.

Sub-Section for Water Transport.

- 1 Chairman of the National Fascist Confederation of Water and Air Transport Undertakings.
- 3 representatives of National Fascist Confederation of Water and Air Transport Undertakings.
- 1 representative of the managers.
- 1 Chairman of the National Fascist Seamen's Confederation.
- 3 representatives of the seamen.
- 1 representative of the engineers.
- 1 representative of the Co-operatives.

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Sub-Section for Air Transport.

- I Chairman of the National Fascist Confederation of Water and Air Transport Undertakings.
 - 2 representatives of the National Fascist Confederation of Water and Air Transport Undertakings.
 - I representative of the managers.
 - I Chairman of the National Fascist Confederation of Aircraft Crews.
 - I representative of the pilots.
 - 2 representatives of aircraft crews.
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SECTION VI. — SECTION FOR LAND TRANSPORT AND INLAND NAVIGATION.

- I Chairman of the National Fascist Confederation for Land Transport and Inland Navigation.
 - 4 representatives of the National Fascist Confederation for Land Transport and Inland Navigation.
 - I representative of the managers.
 - I Chairman of the National Confederation of Fascist Syndicates for Land Transport and Inland Navigation.
 - I representative of the National Confederation of Fascist Syndicates for Land Transport and Inland Navigation.
 - I representative of the employees.
 - 3 representatives of the workers.
 - I representative of the co-operatives.
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SECTION VII. — CREDIT AND INSURANCE SECTION.

- I Chairman of the National Fascist Confederation of Credit and Insurance.
 - 3 representatives of the National Fascist Confederation of Credit and Insurance.
 - I Chairman of the National Fascist Association of Tax-Collectors.
 - I Chairman of the National Fascist Confederation of Insurance Undertakings.
 - I representative of the managers.
 - I Chairman of the National Fascist Confederation of Fascist Syndicates for Credit and Insurance.
 - 6 representatives of the employees.
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In addition to these 129 corporation members, there are twenty-eight members who belong to the Council *ex officio*, namely:

- 1 Minister of Corporations.
- 1 Minister of Agriculture.
- 1 Minister of Transport.
- 1 Minister of Public Works.
- 1 Finance Minister.
- 1 Minister of Justice and Public Worship.
- 2 Under-Secretaries of State of the Ministry of Corporations.
- 1 Under-Secretary of State of the Ministry of Marine.
- 1 Under-Secretary of State of the Finance Ministry.
- 1 Under-Secretary of State for Land Development.
- 6 Directors of the Ministry of Corporations.
- 3 Directors of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forests.
- 1 General Secretary of the National Fascist Party.
- 2 other Secretaries of the National Fascist Party.
- 1 Chairman of the Union of War Victims.
- 1 Chairman of the National Union of Ex-Servicemen.
- 1 Chairman of the National Association for Social Insurance.
- 1 Commander of the Foresters' Legion.
- 1 Chairman of the Corporation of the Theatre.

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The Government has further appointed ten experts in economics, corporation law and international problems, which brings the total number of members of the Council of Corporations up to 167.

(e) The Council of Corporations has certain duties which are compulsory and others which are delegated to it from time to time by the head of the Government on the proposal of the Minister of Corporations, or by the associations concerned with the consent of the head of the Government.

Among the *compulsory duties* in virtue of Article 10 of the Law of March 20th, 1930, is the submission of reports on the following subjects:

- (1) Organisation and activities of the syndical and corporative associations in relation to national production in accordance with the principles contained in the *Carta del Lavoro*;
- (2) Proposals in regard to legislation and the drafting of regulations for the discipline of production and labour;
- (3) Representation of the interests of the several syndicates and associations as well as the interests of the State;
- (4) Welfare measures of the federations or of the institutes maintained by them with a view to carrying out the principles laid down in the *Carta del Lavoro* with regard to the free initiative of the employers;
- (5) Activities of the corporative organisations and institutes in regard to the improvement and systematisation of production, culture and national art;
- (6) Relations between various syndicates, institutions and corporative organisations;
- (7) Questions relating to the syndical organisation of the various professional organisations;

- (8) Recognition of the Confederations ;
- (9) Approval of Confederations other than those enumerated in the Decree of July 1st, 1926 ;
- (10) Appeals against decisions of the Ministry of Corporations refusing applications for admission to a regularly approved federation, etc. ;
- (11) Regulations for drawing up the balance-sheets of occupational organisations ;
- (12) Regional and national labour exchange organisations ;
- (13) Establishment of the various Corporations ;
- (14) Scientific and popular propaganda for the corporative system ;
- (15) Supervision of the payment of contributions by the federation.

In addition, the Council of Corporations may formulate its opinion on any questions regarding national production, but may not, in so doing, usurp the functions of other constitutional organs of the State.

The federations of an economic group may, with the authorisation of the Confederation of which they form part, request the Council of Corporations to draw up a tariff of *wages* for their members and to issue *compulsory regulations* governing them. Such a decision, however, may be taken only by the General Assembly of the Council of Corporations on the proposal of the competent Sections or Sub-Sections. The regulations thus issued must be approved by the Ministry of Corporations before being published.

Other important provisions concerning the functions of the National Council of Corporations are contained in Article 12 of the Law, namely :

- (1) The establishment of rules for the welfare work of regularly recognised federations and corporative institutions ;
- (2) The establishment of rules for relations arising out of labour contracts ;
- (3) The establishment of rules for the relations of the different branches of the national economy with one another.

The federations may further submit agreements concluded among themselves to the Council of Corporations for approval, but the latter has a right of amendment.

The individual Sections of the Council of Corporations may, in so far as a corporation for the branch in question does not yet exist, take over tasks which would have had to be performed by the corporation of this branch of production. These tasks must, however, be explicitly assigned to them by decree of the Head of the Government on the proposal of the Minister of Corporations. As there is not always an equal representation at meetings of the Sections, equality between the employers' and workers' interests must in these particular cases be arranged for through the intermediary of the Ministry of Corporations.

(f) When the Council of Corporations is not in session, the work is carried on by the *Corporative Central Committee*, which consists of the Minister of Corporations, the Minister of the Interior, the Minister of Agriculture and Forests, the Secretary-General of the National Fascist Party, the Under-Secretaries of State of the Ministry of Corporations, the Presidents of the National Confederations of Employers and Employed and of the Liberal Professions and Arts, the Chairman of the National Institute for Co-operation, the Chairman of the National Association of Social Insurance, and the Secretary-General of the National Council of Corporations. It arranges the work of the Council of Corporations, deals with all urgent matters, and reports on questions concerning the political direction of the economic associations and the moral aims of the corporative system.

Permanent Special Commissions of the Council of Corporations may be instituted by decree of the Head of the Government, on the proposal of the Ministry of Corporations, to deal with special questions. There are special decrees regulating their competence *vis-à-vis* the plenary Council and the Sections. The questions discussed by the Special Commissions must, like those discussed by the Sections, be submitted to the Council of Corporations for approval.

Since the inception of the National Council of Corporations, three Special Commissions have been set up.

The first Special Commission was appointed to draw up the *Standing Orders* of the Council of Corporations. It has now completed this task and been dissolved accordingly.

A second Commission discussed the *reform of labour legislation* at numerous meetings held almost weekly, and submitted its decisions to the Council of Corporations at its last meeting, to which reference will be made below, for its opinion. At that meeting it was decided to make this Commission a permanent institution.

The third Permanent Commission was instituted by a Government Decree of November 27th, 1931, in the shape of the Commission for *Foreign Commerce, Customs and Commercial Treaties* ("Commissione Speciale Permanente Consultiva per gli Scambi con l'Estero, la Politica Doganale ed i Trattati di Commercio").

Each Commission appoints a rapporteur to submit and support its resolutions to the Council of Corporations.

(g) Meetings of the various organisations of the Council of Corporations may be attended, with the consent of the Head of the Government, by the Ministers or Under-Secretaries of State of the administrations competent for the questions under discussion and by the Directors-General. In addition, experts and representatives of the associations of the different branches of the national economy may be called in. The Head of the Government may invite to the meetings of all the organisations representatives of permanent international organisations on which Italy is represented by delegates, or which have been approved by the Royal Government.

(h) An ordinary plenary meeting of the National Council is called by the Chief of Government twice a year, once in the spring (in March, April or May) and once in the autumn (in September, October or November). An extraordinary plenary meeting is called by the Chief of Government if the Chairman considers it necessary or if one-third of the members demand it in writing, for the purpose of discussing some special group of questions. Members must be given eight days' notice of the meeting.

The Chairman presides over the meetings and sees that the standing orders are observed. He distributes the documents for discussion to the various organs of the National Council of Corporations, draws up the agenda for the meetings, and arranges for the conveyance to the proper quarters of the advisory opinions of the Council, the publication of the wage-rates and regulations which the Council has fixed and the agreements ratified by it. He may also give instructions for the co-operation of particular members of the National Council with different organisations in an advisory capacity.

The General Assembly is public—*i.e.*, the Press and a number of invited persons are admitted. Stenographic reports of the meetings are published.

So far, three sessions of the General Assembly have been held. The first of these was on October 1st to 3rd, 1930. The agenda included: (1) grouping of the syndicates, (2) co-operatives, (3) Corporation of the Theatre, (4) reform of labour legislation. The second session took place on November 9th to 13th, 1931. Its agenda included:

(1) reports on the collective agreement concerning the sale of milk in the City of Rome and on insurance agents, (2) drafting of a model collective contract, (3) the foreign trade problem, (4) revision of labour legislation. This session was of particular importance because, at the invitation of the Ministry of Corporations, representatives were present of the Economic Councils of Germany, France, Spain, Belgium and Czechoslovakia. The third session, which took place on June 8th to 11th, 1932, dealt with the very important problem of the *Standing Orders of the National Council of Corporations*. It had to be decided whether voting was to be by *groups* or by *individuals*. The Council of Corporations accepted the proposal worked out by the Commission, with the proviso that the Standing Orders were to be treated elastically—that is to say, to be adapted to practical requirements. In principle, voting by groups was preferred; but the decision as to the method of voting was left to the Chairman, and was to depend on what questions were under discussion—for instance, whether it was a question of relations between Capital and Labour or relations between different economic federations.

In connection with this subject, that of the procedure with regard to questions asked of the Government in the Council of Corporations was also discussed, and it was decided that the manner in which such interpellations should be answered would depend on whom they were addressed to, what subject they referred to, whether the answer was given verbally or in writing, and, lastly, whether the meeting was public or private.

The quorum of the Council of Corporations is fixed by the Decree of May 12th, 1930; there is a quorum if at least half of the members are present at the first convocation, and at least one-third at the second convocation. Subjects not placed on the agenda communicated beforehand to the members may not be discussed.

Another subject discussed at the third session was the Bill concerning Industrial Property (patents). After hearing the various opinions expressed by the co-operative members, the Head of the Government, Mussolini, who had opened the meeting, declared that the subject should be dealt with (as proposed) in a State law. At the following meetings, the third point on the agenda was discussed—namely, the reform of accident insurance and questions relating to the protection of mothers. The only female member of the Council of Corporations, who represents the Association of Midwives, took part in the discussion on the latter subject. Finally, the protection of young people, the shortening of the working day and similar social questions were discussed.

(i) The activities of the Council of Corporations, like those of the Corporations themselves, are manifold and include railway and road construction, reconstruction in regions devastated by earthquakes, and drainage of marshes—*e.g.*, in the Po Delta. These works are undertaken to reduce unemployment. In addition, credits have been granted to undertakings and support has been given to banks and industries. The Minister, M. Bottai, pointed out in his speech on the balance-sheets of the Corporations in the Chamber of Deputies¹ that, in a number of branches of industry—for instance, steel, electricity and, above all, artificial silk—production has been doubled. A total of 8,659 collective contracts were declared compulsory in the different provinces to which they related.

4. There is an *Economic Council in every Province*. These Councils (Consigli Provinciali dell'Economia Corporativa) were brought into line with the corporative system by the Law of June 18th, 1931, which cancelled all previous legal provisions

¹ See *Journal of the Fascist National Council of Corporations*, 4th Year, No. 3, March 1932.

on the subject. They represent the productive organisations of their respective provinces and promote their development in harmony with the general interests of the nation. They are advisory bodies for the district and State administration. In addition, they supervise the organs and institutions of an economic and technical nature in their district. Their Chairman is the Prefect of the Province. Their organs are the Presidential Committee ("Comitato di Presidenza"), General Council, Sections and Special Commissions. In them also the principle of parity as between employers and workers is strictly observed, and the liberal professions and arts are represented in equal numbers. The members are representatives of the associations approved by law and the heads of economic or social organisations and provincial institutions. They are appointed by a decree of the Prefect, and their number is determined by the Minister of Corporations. Most of them have two sections, one for agriculture and one for commerce and industry.

The activities of these provincial economic councils are similar to those of the industrial councils in other countries, but their powers are greater. A number of provincial councils may, with the consent of the Minister of Corporations, hold a joint discussion for matters of mutual interest. In addition, there are inter-syndical provincial committees in the provinces.

15. Latvia.

In Latvia there are three advisory bodies: (1) the National Economic Council; (2) the Commercial Treaties Commission, (3) the Council for Customs Tariffs.

1. *The National Economic Council* was formed in 1929 by an ordinance of the Council of Ministers, to act as an advisory body of experts for economic questions. The Council furnishes expert opinions on all questions submitted to it by the Ministry of Finance, which is likewise responsible for national economic administration. The membership includes, in addition to officials of the Finance Ministry, persons with practical experience or scientific knowledge, appointed by the Minister of Finance. The latter acts as Chairman of the Council, or may nominate another person to hold this office. Membership of the National Economic Council is honorary.

2. *The Commercial Treaties Commission* is a special body attached to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and originated from a delegation appointed originally to carry into effect the Customs union concluded between Latvia and Estonia. For this purpose, it was to consist of persons possessing a thorough knowledge of Customs tariffs and home trade, as well as of the basic principles of Latvian economic policy.

This Commission has now become a permanent advisory body, its function being to express its opinion on economic questions in connection with the preparation of commercial treaties.

It consists of the chairmans, Minister for Foreign Affairs and the Minister of Finance, eight members of the Legislature, the Secretary-General of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Deputy Minister of Finance, the Directors of the Department of Trade and Industry and of the Customs Department in the Ministry of Finance, and the Director of the Government Statistical Office.

3. *The Council for Customs Tariffs* is an advisory body attached to the Customs Department in the Ministry of Finance. Its meetings are attended by representatives of Government departments—e.g., those for Customs and for Trade and Industry, the Public Audit Office, the Riga Customs Authorities, and representatives of trade

organisations, such as the Association of Manufacturers, Riga, the Riga Chamber of Commerce, the Federation of Latvian Merchants, the Federation of Manufacturers and Handicraftsmen and representatives of export firms.

In specific cases, the Committees of the Riga, Liepaja (Libau), and Ventspils (Windau) Stock Exchanges are asked for advice on economic questions.

The creation of an Economic Council as a second legislative Chamber was suggested even in the Constituent Assembly and again in October 1931.

16. Lithuania.

Lithuania provided, in the Constitution of 1922, for the systematic creation of Chambers of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry and also of Labour Chambers, with the object of having advisory bodies of the particular branches of trade which could be consulted on economic problems.

The Chamber of Agriculture was constituted by the Law of April 21st, 1926. It consists of members elected by agricultural undertakings and by social organisations and institutions concerned in the development of agriculture. It must have not less than twelve and not more than thirty-six members, elected for a period of three years. The Council of Ministers decides as to the number of members and the composition of the Chamber. At the request of the Minister of Agriculture, the Chamber must give its opinion on all questions concerning agriculture, furnish all requisite information and provide experts on agricultural questions. The Chamber is entitled to express its opinion on draft laws and other measures concerning agriculture and, in particular, on the effects of Customs tariffs and transport rates on the exportation and importation of agricultural products. The Chamber is autonomous and possesses legal personality.

The Chamber of Industry and Commerce was created by the Law of February 2nd, 1925. It too is autonomous and consists of not less than nine and not more than twenty-one members, chosen from among manufacturers and merchants by their organisations. In its own sphere, it possesses the same duties and powers as the Chamber of Agriculture.

It is not clear from the available information whether Labour Chambers have been created.

17. Luxemburg.

The League Assembly's recommendation of September 24th, 1931, concerning the creation and development of Economic Councils in the various countries was carried into effect only a few months later in Luxemburg. An Economic Council to act as an advisory body was instituted under the Grand-Ducal Decree of December 3rd, 1931, "*portant création d'un Conseil économique*",¹ which in the preamble refers expressly to the Assembly resolution. The preamble further emphasised that, in addition to the international functions mentioned in the above Assembly resolution, the body to be set up was specially qualified to investigate economic problems and, as a supreme advisory body, was to collaborate for purposes of co-ordination with existing organisations, including the occupational Chambers.

The Economic Council has to give an opinion on all economic questions laid before it by the Government. It has, however, also certain powers of initiative; it can decide

¹ Mémorial du Grand-Duché du Luxembourg, No. 59, of December 5th, 1931, page 893.

by a majority vote to place on its agenda any economic problem which it considers to be important from the national or international standpoint.

The Economic Council is composed of not more than fifteen ordinary members and also includes members who sit in an advisory capacity. The members are appointed for two years by ministerial decree (Articles 3 and 5). Further, the Government can appoint experts to investigate special questions; they too attend the Council's discussions in an advisory capacity (Article 6).

The Government appoints the Chairman from among the ordinary members of the Council. In addition, the Government appoints a Secretary-General, a deputy-secretary, and, as required, one or more officials to carry on the Council's business.

The Council is summoned by the Chairman or by the Government. A quorum is constituted by at least half the ordinary members. Members receive no salary (Article 7), but their expenses are paid when they have to travel to attend the meetings or on other business of the Council.

Under Article 9 the Prime Minister is entrusted with the execution of the Decree. By a ministerial ordinance dated September 7th, 1931, he carried out this function by publishing the names of the members appointed. Members with voting powers include the Presidents of:

- (1) The Industrial Union;
- (2) the Chamber of Labour;
- (3) the Chamber of Commerce;
- (4) the Chamber of Agriculture;
- (5) the Chamber of Private Employees;
- (6) the Chamber of Handicrafts.
- (7) The State Commissioner attached to the International Bank at Luxemburg.
- (8) One member of the Supreme Council of the Economic Union of Belgium and Luxemburg.
- (9) The Vice-President of the Chamber of Agriculture.
- (10) The Director of the Union of Agricultural Associations.
- (11) One member of the Chamber of Commerce.

Only four members were appointed in an advisory capacity, and these are officials or secretaries of corporations.

The ordinary members are mainly representatives of the occupational associations; among them those which represent the interests of employees. Since, in Luxemburg, occupational Chambers were instituted as far back as 1924, and were centralised and developed further by the Law of June 3rd, 1926, so that they provide an organic substructure for an Economic Council,¹ their representatives are specially qualified for membership of a supreme national economic body dealing with matters affecting the individual occupational organisations, and for the unification of the interests of the separate groups to the benefit of the community as a whole.

The close connection of the Economic Council with the occupational associations is also proved by the fact that the Economic Council's Minutes are communicated to the occupational associations for information, but are not otherwise published. The Council has so far held six meetings. Little, unfortunately, has been published concerning the way in which it works. As appears from the proceedings of the

¹ This point is brought out in my pamphlet, *Die Wirtschaftsräte in Europa*, from which I have already quoted, and where I deal at length with the system of occupational associations in Luxemburg (pages 25 *et seq.*).

Luxemburg Chamber of Deputies of March 15th, 1932, a scheme by M. Hennebicq, the Belgian expert on political economy, for a European Ten-Year Plan was to be submitted to the Council. It has been impossible to discover whether this has already been done or with what results. Nor is it known if the Council has yet drawn up its rules of procedure.

18. Netherlands.

In the Netherlands, the principle of the representation of occupational bodies within the State administration has taken various forms. Since the war, several economic organs have been created to advise the Government. These bodies have enabled the most important branches of Netherlands industry to secure a hearing.

One of these is the *Council of Industry* ("Nijverheidsraad") founded by Royal Decree of September 4th, 1929, and composed of representatives of the four major industrial organisations: the Netherlands Association for Commerce and Industry, with 1,525 members; the Netherlands Employers' Association, with 3,500 members; the Catholic Employers' Association, with 740 members; and the Christian Employers' Association, with 319 members. The Council deals with economic and technical questions affecting manufacturers and traders; its object is to be able at all times to furnish Ministers and the competent departmental authorities with expert and practical advice. It is therefore a purely consultative body and its activities are confined to the professional aspect of the questions under discussion. The Chairman is elected by the Council itself in agreement with the Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry.

Next, as long ago as 1927, a Royal Decree of October 26th, amended on April 12th, 1929, set up a *Committee for Political Economy* which is concerned with the national and international aspects of questions affecting the national economy and communicates its views thereon to the Government.

This Committee is presided over by the Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry, and comprises, in addition to representative members, *ex officio* members like the Minister for the Interior and for Agriculture, the Minister for the Colonies, the Minister for the *Waterstaat*, the Minister for Finance and the Minister for Foreign Affairs. The members representing occupations belong to all the various branches of trade and industry. Agriculture, for example, is represented by members of the dairying and market-gardening industries, in addition to general farming; industry, by the Amsterdam and Rotterdam Chambers of Industry and Commerce, and the employers' federations of the various confessional denominations; commerce, by the Federation of Wholesalers, the Middle-Class Trade and Industry Federation, and the Middle Classes Federation, a representative of the Chambers of Foreign Commerce, a representative of the Netherlands Bank and a representative of banking generally, a representative of the State and the private railways, the Federation of Shipowners, the Federation of Overseas Shipping Companies, the Federation of *Schuttevaar* Shippers, the Union for the Protection of Netherlands Shipping Interests; two representatives each of the Workers' Trades Unions, and two each of the denominational Workers' Unions, the "Handelskamer" Wholesale Co-operative Societies, and a representative of the Council of Employers for the Netherlands Indies.

The composition of this Committee—so far as an outsider can judge—reflects the comparative economic importance of the national industries. (Shipping is of special significance to the economic life of the Netherlands and is therefore more strongly represented.) In contrast, however, to the French, German and Italian central economic organisations, there are no representatives of the liberal professions and of consumers. The large number of its members confers on the Committee a scope

which goes beyond that of a consultative body, so that, were it possessed of wider powers, it might well be classified as an economic council.

The steps which the Netherlands Government has taken in recent months to secure still more effective participation by economic circles in the life of the State indicate that the creation of the Committee for Political Economy has been justified. The 1932-33 budget of the Ministry of Labour, Commerce and Industry now provides for a new Department of Economic Affairs. Hitherto such a department existed only at the Ministry for Foreign Affairs. Whether this means that the *Committee for the Revision of Commercial Treaties*, which comes under the Foreign Office, will also be reorganised, is not known. Economic organisations also are represented on the latter body. Further, since 1921, a *Commercial Treaties Commission* has been in existence which carries out the preliminary work for the conclusion of commercial treaties.

This over-organisation in the economic sphere, involving as it does the danger of disintegration, is now to be obviated by the creation of an economic council. The reorganisation of the Ministry of Labour, Commerce and Industry was the introductory step in this reform and was followed by the tabling of a Bill for the establishment of an economic council (*Instelling van een Economischen Raad*) through a Royal Message dated February 5th, 1932.¹ The Second Chamber began immediately the discussion of this Bill.

The measure aims primarily at introducing uniformity in the treatment of economic questions by means of a central corporation. This aim finds expression more particularly in the provision that existing advisory bodies may be recognised as subordinate organs of the Economic Council and as working in conjunction with the latter under specific rules. Applications for advisory opinions are passed by the Economic Council—in the first place, as the higher instance, to the advisory bodies. The powers of the Economic Council are those of an advisory body to the *State administration*. The Council cannot apply direct to the Legislature although it has a limited right to initiate proposals. This right, however, can be exercised only for the purpose of advising the Council of Ministers and departmental chiefs of the general administration regarding Bills of an economic nature “in the widest sense of the term” (Article 2). Next, it may be asked by the said authorities for an advisory opinion; thirdly, it carries out work entrusted to it by or in virtue of legislation (Article 3). No details are given as to the nature of this work, but the article certainly leaves a wide field of activity open to the Economic Council.

The number of members is to be not less than ten and not more than fifteen. They will be appointed by the Queen, on the commendation of the Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry, for four years, after which period they may be immediately reappointed. A chairman and a vice-chairman will be appointed annually from the members of the Economic Council, also on the proposal of the Minister mentioned.

In addition to the advisory bodies already referred to, the Economic Council will, if the need arises and on the proposal of the Minister of Labour in pursuance of a Royal Message, also have *Permanent Commissions* attached to it to deal with special problems. In their particular field, they will have the same powers as the Economic Council in respect of departmental chiefs. A Royal Decree will regulate in greater detail the actual composition of these Commissions. The Council will entrust the competent Permanent Commission with the preparation of advisory opinions requested regarding matters which come within the Commission's sphere. The opinion thus given will be regarded as the advisory opinion of the Economic Council. If the Economic Council is called upon to deal with questions which do not come within the purview

¹ *Zitting* 1931-32, No. 290.

either of the Permanent Commission or of a recognised advisory body, it may appoint special commissions for such questions. Another important provision is that the Economic Council and the Commissions are empowered to invite to their meetings, for purposes of information, experts who are not members.

Both bodies may also require public officials to attend the meetings for the purpose of supplying information. Unless urgently detained, the officials are bound to comply with this request. The Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry must regularly be represented by one or more officials appointed by him. The Ministers for Foreign Affairs, Finance, Public Works (*Waterstaat*) and the Colonies have the same privileges and obligations in respect of their departments. Similarly, departmental chiefs are entitled to attend the meetings of the Economic Council and the Commissions. The Commissions may be represented by not more than three members at meetings of the Economic Council at which questions within their province are being discussed (Article 9). A pledge of secrecy may be required of the persons attending the proceedings either of the Economic Council or of the Commissions, and the members of both bodies are obliged to maintain secrecy regarding any facts or documents which have been confidentially communicated to them by the heads of the Administration (Article 10, paragraph 2).

The Economic Council and the Permanent Commissions will draw up for the execution of their business standing orders, which must be approved by the Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry. Advisory opinions are adopted by the Economic Council or a Commission by a majority vote. Minority opinions will, on request, be mentioned in the advisory opinion. Further, members of both bodies may append special observations to the advisory opinion if they have, during the discussion, maintained such views. The officials taking part in the proceedings, the representatives of the Commissions, and the Secretary-General, who is appointed by the Crown to conduct the business of the Economic Council, attend in an advisory capacity. The Secretary-General, who may also be a member of the Economic Council and be paid a salary, will be given a staff of assistant secretaries and other officials. Members of the Economic Council and of the Commissions will receive travelling and subsistence allowances and may also be compensated for loss of time (Article 14).

The Economic Council must submit to the Minister for Labour, Commerce and Industry, and also to the competent departments, a report on its work during the past calendar year. The Minister for Labour is empowered to publish the whole or part of this report.

The Minutes of the meetings of the Economic Council and Commissions will be signed by the Chairman and the Secretary-General and communicated to the Minister for Labour, Commerce and Industry and the heads of the competent departments. The Commissions will report in the first place to the Economic Council.

Copies of advisory opinions will be sent by the Economic Council to the above-mentioned Minister, to the competent Commissions, and to the advisory bodies.

The Economic Council will have its headquarters at The Hague.

The provisions analysed above are taken from the legislative proposals submitted, which are still open to amendment.¹ From the discussions hitherto held, however, it would appear that no drastic alterations need be expected. Apprehensions were voiced as to the position of the Commissions, and the desire was expressed that their powers should be limited in order not to detract from the influence of the Economic

¹ The Bill has since been passed—on July 6th, 1932—by both Chambers. It now only needs the Queen's signature and publication to acquire force of law.

Council which will represent general considerations. It may be assumed that, in constituting the Economic Council and the Commissions, the guiding idea will be the representation of occupational bodies, as the accompanying report¹ recognises the necessity of bringing the administration into closer contact with economic life. Moreover, there is an amendment tabled by M. Kuiper, on April 28th, 1932, pressing for equal representation of employers and workers in the membership of Commissions. As it is within the Government's discretion whether or no action shall be taken on an advisory opinion of the Economic Council, the Government is responsible if it gives effect thereto.² Nevertheless, the chair may not be occupied by the Minister concerned, the idea being that, if possible, the Economic Council's right of initiative should have full play. Nor may the Minister take too prominent a part in the discussions, in order that the latter may be unhampered and the Minister himself remain uncommitted.³ The Minister for Labour, Trade and Industry does not consider it necessary that the Economic Council should have the right to carry out investigations.⁴

Mention should be made of another Bill which was laid before the Second Chamber in November 1931 and will be discussed under the title of Industrial Councils Law (*Bedrijfsradenwet*).⁵ As it was the Higher Council of Labour (*Hoogen Raad van Arbeid*) which raised the question treated in the Bill, the latter was submitted to that body for an opinion. It deals with the creation of joint industrial councils in the various branches of industry, to consist of from six to twenty members. They are to be appointed in equal numbers by the organisations of employers and workers; they would carry out technical economic and socio-political duties and promote the creation of factory boards.

There is apparently no intention to link these autonomous bodies, which have still to be created, to the Economic Council, but they might conceivably develop in this direction in the future. There was certainly a good deal said during the discussions on the Economic Council about its further expansion.

In conclusion, it might be pointed out that the Socialists in the Netherlands support the creation of an advisory Economic Council.

19. Norway.

There is no organisation in Norway specially responsible for advising the Government in economic matters. Nevertheless, the Government can at any time avail itself of a number of economic organisations in order to obtain an expert opinion on individual questions or to obtain the services of persons to be sent as delegates to international negotiations concerning economic problems.

LAUTAUD AND POUDEX state in their work⁶ that the Conference of Norwegian Trade Organisations proposed in 1925 that an Economic Council should be established.

¹ *Zitting* 1930-32, No. 290, 4.

² *Zitting* 1931-32, No. 290, 5 (*Memorie van Antwoord*). Reply by the Minister for Labour, Commerce and Industry, April 12th, 1932.

³ *Zitting* 1931-32, No. 290, 4. Interim Proposal made by the Rapporteurs to the Second Chamber on March 4th, 1932.

⁴ Cf. page 5 of the above-mentioned reply (*Memorie van Antwoord*).

⁵ No. 15 of the German *Reichsarbeitsblatt*, of May 25th, 1932, contains an article on this Bill in which, more particularly as regards the above-mentioned Economic Council, the bodies to be set up are rather inaccurately described as "Economic Councils". "Joint Industrial Councils" would be a more correct translation.

⁶ *Op. cit.*, page 120.

20. Poland.

It has been repeatedly announced in the Press for some years that Poland was about to set up an Economic Council. Actually, a Bill has been in existence since 1925 dealing with the formation of a provisional Supreme Economic Council, but has not progressed beyond the preliminary stages. No effect has been given to the measure, although it was intended to be only the first step towards setting up the Supreme Economic Chamber provided for in Article 68 of the Constitution of March 17th, 1921. The Constitution stipulates expressly that the Chambers representing the various branches of economic activity are to form the basis of this Economic Chamber, which would hold an autonomous position. The Chambers of Commerce and Industry have been developed since 1927. The four Chambers of Agriculture were constituted on uniform lines by a Decree of March 22nd, 1928. There are, in addition, Chambers of Handicrafts and Chambers of Workers. Their powers are very comprehensive; they discharge advisory functions and furnish expert opinions. Under a Decree of the President of the Republic, all economic legislation must be submitted to them for consideration. They may hear experts on particular questions.

On April 26th, 1932, a congress of occupational organisations constituted under public law was held in Warsaw to discuss the problem of economic autonomy. The Secretary-General of the Association of Chambers of Agriculture, after stating that economic autonomy would be a great boon to the country, pointed out at this meeting that Chambers of Agriculture would carry greater weight as economic autonomous bodies if the elections to the Chambers could be freed from political influence and if some compulsion could be brought to bear on members to supply information about their businesses, etc. Furthermore, there should be an extensive network of Chambers or branches thereof throughout the whole country. He regretted also that at the present moment there was no legal basis for collaboration between the various economic bodies constituted under private or public law in Poland. He was, however, convinced that the increasing pressure of the economic situation would make a joint solution necessary. As it is impossible for the moment to form a Chamber which would be an organic offshoot of the national economic system, these functions should be assumed by the body which it was proposed to create under the above-mentioned Bill of the Finance Minister, M. Grabski.

This Bill apparently still continues to be the basis of all proposals and discussions, and will therefore be analysed here. It is dated May 27th, 1925.¹ According to Article 1, the Economic Council will represent the economic interests of the country and (Article 2) collaborate in the following ways. It will:

- (1) Co-operate in farming Bills to give effect to Article 68 of the Constitution;
- (2) Submit advisory opinions on Bills drafted by the Government and the Diet dealing with economic, financial or social matters;
- (3) Make proposals for an economic programme;
- (4) Carry out investigations of the conditions prevailing generally or in specific branches;
- (5) Assist the Government in drawing up commercial treaties;
- (6) Furnish advisory opinions on all questions submitted by the Government to the Economic Council.

¹ Sejm. Term I; No. 1332-25. K.E.

The Government has to submit Bills to the Economic Council for opinion before introducing them into the Diet; the Council must submit such opinion within one month, any extension of this period to be agreed upon jointly with the Government.

The number of members is to be 100, divided (Article 5) as follows among the various branches of trade and industry :

Agriculture	18
Industry	18
Handicrafts	4
Commerce	6
Transport	4
Stock Exchanges and Credit Organisations	7
Labour	28
Consumers' Co-operative Societies	3
Town property-owners	2
Autonomous agricultural bodies	3
Liberal professions	2
Scientific institutions and associations	5
	<hr/>
	100

Members must be Polish nationals and over thirty-five years of age; they will not be bound by the instructions of their associations; they will be appointed for a period of two years and receive travelling and subsistence allowances.

A list of the organisations entitled to make appointments will be published by the Council of Ministers one month after the law comes into force; the Council of Ministers can order fresh elections of members to be held before the two years have expired.

Ten additional members will be appointed by the Council of Ministers. The Chairman will be the Minister of Finance, and three vice-chairmen will be appointed. The Chairman will convene the Council and draw up the agenda. Resolutions will be adopted by a majority of those present. Minority resolutions supported by at least one-fifth of those qualified to vote will be forwarded to the Government together with the majority resolution. A General Commission, consisting of fifteen members, will be formed to take decisions independently in urgent cases, but the Economic Council must subsequently confirm the opinions expressed by the Commission.

Experts may attend meetings of the Economic Council. The Ministries (of the Interior, Finance, Commerce and Industry, Agriculture, Labour and Social Welfare, Public Works and Railways) will each delegate two representatives to act in an advisory capacity. The Economic Council may, for purposes of information, call for the attendance of the officials concerned.

Meetings will not be public and all meetings may be declared secret.

Official reports will be published of the meetings of both the Council and the General Commission. Members are required to give a pledge of secrecy. Provision is made for four plenary meetings annually and extraordinary sessions may also be convened (on the request of one-third of the members or on the proposal of the Chairman).

For the performance of the duties entrusted to him, the Chairman may, with the assistance of the central Government departments, summon any individuals and corporations to submit information. False evidence or refusal to give information will be punished by a money fine or imprisonment.

Members of the Economic Council are also liable to heavy penalties if they divulge confidential information.

The business of the Economic Council is to be conducted by a Secretary-General holding the status of a civil servant.

Although this Bill would appear to be in suspense for the moment, other economic associations have discharged some of its functions. These include the Economic Committee of the Council of Ministers, which links up the various Ministries concerned with economic affairs, its advisory commissions and, likewise, the Committee of Enquiry and the Institute for Economic Research described in detail in Sir Arthur Salter's report.¹

There are in addition the following advisory bodies for economic questions:

- The Council for Commerce and Industry;
- An advisory body attached to the Ministry for Commerce and Industry;
- An advisory body attached to the Ministry for Agriculture;
- An advisory body attached to the Ministry for Labour and Social Welfare;
- An advisory body attached to the Ministry for Finance;
- The State Railway Council;
- The Consumers' Council.

The various papers read at the above-mentioned session² of occupational associations constituted under public law, held at Warsaw in April last, clearly show that the idea of expanding the autonomous economic administration of the country meets with the entire support of the circles concerned.

21. Portugal.

Portugal created an Economic Council (*Conselho Superior de Economia Nacional*) by Decree of April 12th, 1927; but the Council has never been summoned to meet.

On the other hand, there is a Supreme Council for Foreign Trade (*Conselho Superior de Commercio Externo*) which has been very active and has been further developed by a Decree of September 10th, 1929.³

The purpose of this Council for Foreign Trade is to find ways and means of placing the surplus production of the country — in particular, wines, preserves, cork and colonial — produce, on foreign markets, and to foster foreign trade in every way.

It is attached to the Ministry for Foreign Affairs as an *advisory body*, and is composed of the Minister for Foreign Affairs, as Chairman, the Director-General of Foreign Affairs, as Vice-Chairman, the Secretary, who is an official of the latter department, and is proposed by the Director-General, and of the following members: The Director-General of Customs, the Director-General of Industry and Commerce, the heads of the Sections for Economic Affairs and Information in the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, the Professor of Colonial Administration in the Legal Faculty of Lisbon University, the Professors of Economics in the Lisbon Commercial Academy, the Professor of Agricultural Research in the Agronomic Institute, the Professor of Colonial Fiscal Jurisprudence in the Colonial High School, the Presidents of the Merchants' Association in Lisbon and Oporto, the President of the Central Association

¹ *Op. cit.*, page 52.

² Report on the First Conference of the Economic Autonomous Organisation of the Polish Republic, Warsaw, 1932. (Published by the Chambers of Trade and Industry, Agriculture and Handicrafts.)

³ Decree No. 17 : 400 in the *Boletim Comercial* of October 5th, 1929, reprinted from the *Diario do Governo*, No. 224, 1st Series, of September 30th, 1929.

of Portuguese Agriculture, the President of the Commission of Viticulture in the Douro district, the President of the Agricultural League of Northern Portugal, the Presidents of the two industrial associations in Portugal, the President of the Union of Portuguese Shippers, a delegate of the local organisations representing the production and trade of the islands belonging to Portugal (Madeira, etc.) and the President of the Centro Colonial—making twenty-two members in all. The Minister is empowered to appoint in addition three experts from commercial circles.

The object of the Council is to give opinions on all matters relating to foreign trade, and in particular on commercial treaties which are submitted to it for consideration before they are concluded, and of which it publishes a collected edition, as well as on all other matters of importance for the export trade. It is accordingly empowered further to conduct enquiries into economic and commercial matters.

With the aid of the Commercial Information Service, it has to keep in touch with changes in the commercial policy of countries maintaining trade relations with Portugal and with the import requirements of foreign markets. Its members have, further, to place their expert knowledge at the disposal of the *Boletim Commercial*. The Council has also to deal with emigration questions and to enquire into the possibilities of organising credits for fostering exports and taking action to protect products of Portuguese origin and trade-marks.

The Minister of Foreign Affairs selects four of the members of the Council, who, with the Vice-Chairman, constitute a Managing Committee. The members of the Managing Committee are appointed for three years.

Membership of the Council is honorary. Only the members of the Managing Committee receive allowances. The members of the Council rank for the period of their office as higher officials of the Ministry.

The Council for Foreign Trade meets in ordinary session when the Minister considers it necessary. The Managing Committee is summoned by the Vice-Chairman, who is also empowered to call plenary meetings on behalf of the Minister.

Opinions have to be submitted to the Minister of Foreign Affairs in writing, with complete documentary material. A rapporteur is appointed for the purpose from among the members.

The Directors-General and other officials of the Ministry may take part in the meetings of the Council, if the Minister thinks it necessary, and are also entitled to vote. Both in the Council and in the Committee, a quorum is constituted only if more than a third of the members are present. Decisions are taken by majority votes. The members are under obligation to observe secrecy as to the matters which come to their knowledge at the meetings.

Nothing can be said as to the activities of this Supreme Council for Foreign Trade, as there is no material available.

22. Roumania.

The idea of giving the various trades and occupations representation commensurate with their importance in the national life met, in Roumania, with a favourable reception and manifested itself in two forms: in the reconstitution of the Upper House in pursuance of the Electoral Law of March 27th, 1926,¹ and in the National Economic Council ("Consiliului economiei nationale") created under the Law of April 15th, 1932.²

¹ Cf. BRAUNIAS, *Das parlamentarische Wahlrecht*, Vol. 1, pages 469 to 471.

² *Monitorul Oficial*, No. 98, of April 26th, 1932.

1. The Upper House, as at present constituted, contains 200 elected senators, out of a total membership of 250; sixteen of these are appointed by the associations of the various branches of commerce and industry.

Occupational organisations constituted under public law are represented in the Chambers of Commerce, which were reorganised for certain districts under the Law of February 14th, 1929, and consist of two sections—industry and commerce. They are also represented in the Chambers of Agriculture, which are based on the Law of April 14th, 1925. Both classes of organisation have been working successfully for a number of years. They are formed into federations. A Law of April 14th, 1927, approved the creation of Chambers of Labour, which were to represent workers, but these have not yet been constituted.

These three Chambers are now to form electoral colleges for the senatorial elections. Four senators are to be elected by both sections of the Chambers of Commerce and four each by the Chambers of Agriculture and Labour respectively. Four more are to be appointed by the universities of the country. The right to vote is held by the elected members of occupational Chambers and the nominated members belonging to the Councils of those Chambers. Candidates must be men actively engaged in an occupation or trade, over forty years of age and members of the Chamber in question. For election purposes, the Chambers form four territorial groups. On a ballot, a relative majority is decisive.¹

This expansion of the Senate on the occupational side finds a parallel in the changes which are now being made in the Hungarian Upper House, the former House of Magnates. Both constitute, if we disregard the entirely different state of affairs in Italy, novel attempts in Europe to secure the political co-operation of economic circles. Under the Jorga Cabinet, occupational movements met with a very sympathetic response from the Government, and this is doubtless why the Prime Minister has decided to set up a Roumanian Economic Council.

2. The newly-created *National Economic Council*, which derives its origin from the Law concerning the Organisation of Ministries of August 2nd, 1929, Article 124, took over the duties of the Economic Delegation,² which had, until then, acted as the Government's advisory organ for economic questions. It was dissolved, although the law in question provided for co-operation between the two bodies. In addition to the functions of the Delegation, which comprised the discussion of questions determining the principles of economic policy and affecting more than one of the economic departments of the Government, the *Economic Council* has been invested with very wide powers. It can :

(a) Frame and propose Bills of an economic or financial character affecting the national economy or foreign economic relations. It has thus the right to initiate legislation. Furthermore, its duty is :

(b) To give an advisory opinion on all other Bills of an economic and financial character.

It is specifically stated in Article 2, paragraph 3, that Bills which have not been submitted by the Government to the Economic Council for its opinion may not be laid before the Legislature. This provision is therefore binding on the Government.

¹ These data are taken from Dr. Karl BRAUNIAS's admirable and comprehensive work, *Das parlamentarische Wahlrecht*, already referred to.

² LINDNER, *op. cit.*, pages 30 and 31.

It is, however, restricted to the extent that the Council must give its advisory opinion within fifteen days after the proposal has been submitted, otherwise the Government has the right to introduce the Bill into Parliament immediately.

A further function of the Economic Council as laid down in the Law is the rendering of expert opinions on questions which have been submitted to it by the Government or various departments.

Finally, the Economic Council may also intervene in administration by giving the public economic organs directions regarding the application of the principles of rationalisation and normalisation.

In its composition, the Council forms a contrast to existing Councils. The number of members has been raised to twenty-five, although Article 124 of the Law of August 2nd, 1929, provided for only twelve. The membership is divided into *ex officio* members numbering nine, and sixteen appointed members. The former include five Ministers—viz., the Ministers for Finance, Agriculture and Domains, Industry and Commerce, Public Works and Communications, Labour, Public Health and Social Welfare. The sixth member is the Governor of the National Bank of Roumania, the seventh the President of the Association of Chambers of Commerce, the eighth the President of the Association of Chambers of Agriculture, and the ninth the delegate of the Central Union of Co-operative Societies.

The other members, appointed, on the proposal of the Prime Minister, by Royal Decree for a period of seven years, must be two former Finance Ministers, two former Ministers of Industry and Commerce and two former Ministers of Agriculture, together with two representatives each of banking, industry, agriculture and trade, an expert on transport questions and an expert on social insurance questions. Nothing is stated as to whether the two representatives of banking, industry, etc., are to be chosen in equal numbers from employers' and employees' groups, but it may be assumed that only the former will be considered. After the expiry of seven years, the terms of office of individual members may be renewed.

The Chairman of the Economic Council is appointed by Royal Decree, on the Prime Minister's recommendation, for a specified period. He receives a salary fixed by the Economic Council. He convenes the Economic Council when necessary or on the application of an *ex officio* member. While he is presiding over meetings, he can speak only in an advisory capacity. In his absence, the chair is taken by the senior Minister present. This would seem to imply that the regular Chairman is also one of the Ministers in charge of an economic department. In the Law concerning the Organisation of Ministries, the Minister of Finance was designated for this purpose, and it was he who framed the Bill.

Members hold office in an honorary capacity. *Ex officio* members may delegate other members of the same group who are present, or the Under-Secretaries of State in office, to represent them. Members of the second group who fail to attend three successive meetings without adequate reason are deprived of their office.

A quorum consists of at least two-thirds of the members, and resolutions are adopted by an absolute majority of the members present.

The Secretary-General is appointed by Royal Decree and holds the rank of Secretary-General of a Ministry. He takes part in the meetings of the Economic Council in an advisory capacity, and is responsible for the direction of the Council's business and for supervising the departments subordinate to it. These departments, which were hitherto under the jurisdiction of the individual Ministries, are, as laid down in the Law concerning the Organisation of the Ministries already mentioned, the following: Department for Financial Investigations, for Financial Statistics, for Commercial and Industrial Enquiries, the National Statistical Office, the Commission

for the Preparation of Treaties of Commerce and International Agreements, the Commission for Rationalisation and Normalisation. All official information of an economic and statistical character is collected by the Bureau of the Economic Council, which decides regarding its publication.

Twelve members were appointed by Royal Decree of April 27th, 1932. These include, as laid down in the law, former Ministers of and experts on agriculture, industry, transport and social insurance. The present Chairman of the Economic Council is the Minister of Finance, M. Mironescu. The Council has thus been constituted. Its procedure will be determined by orders to be issued by the President of the Council of Ministers.

23. Spain.

I. The period 1923 to 1930 was that of the dictatorship of Primo de Rivera, who recognised the capital importance of industry to the State and, following the example of Italy, sought to advance in the direction of a corporate State. The first step towards that end was the Decreto de la regulación corporativa of November 26th, 1926,¹ which established *Paritary Committees*, while the structure, rising from a broad foundation, was later completed by the Council of Corporations.

These corporate bodies were not, however, organisations of the State as in Italy, but were under the authority of the Ministry of Labour. There was moreover, no organic connection between them and the *Council of National Economy*, established in 1924, as there is in Italy between the Consiglio Nazionale delle Corporazioni and the various Confederations. The Council of National Economy, although it came to an end with the revolution in 1931, deserves mention in this report, chiefly because the new Republican Government, in establishing a similar but differently constructed body, makes comparisons with that Council in its statement of reasons.

The Economic Council, which was one of the first achievements of the Dictatorship, subsequently underwent various transformations.

The chief object of the Economic Council was to strengthen the power of Primo de Rivera, who had dissolved Parliament and who then wished to create, by means of the Economic Council, a system of representation for the country whereby he could obtain support for his measures—at any rate, until the frequently advertised National Assembly had been convened.

Apart from this, the aims which he had in view were calculated to be of advantage to the economic life of the country. He granted subsidies *inter alia* and closed the frontiers to foreign products by increases in Customs duties. An important point—and one which definitely distinguishes the Council of National Economy of that date from the present one—is that it allowed commercial and industrial circles to choose their own representatives—*i.e.*, they could select from among their associations or public occupational organisations, the Chambers of Commerce and Industry, the Chambers of Agriculture, etc., men enjoying their confidence, who would represent their interests on the public platform and before the Executive. This measure won the Dictator many new adherents.

To-day, the democratic principle in Spain is in opposition to the occupational system—as is apparent in the new economic organisation—although, shortly after

¹ Amended by the Law of March 8th, 1929.

the proclamation of the Republic, responsible statesmen suggested that, side by side with the Cortes, a second Chamber composed of representatives of the economic life of the country should act as a technical advisory body.

2. The setting up of the Council of National Economy met the wishes of the great industrial centres round Bilbao and in Catalonia, which, as young industries, had been able to establish themselves in the home market owing to the elimination of the competition of the belligerent States in 1914 to 1918, but which suffered a setback when that market was again opened to foreign products. Their desire for the protection of national labour by means of increased Customs duties and subsidies of all kinds was satisfied by the Dictator, who granted to the industrial groups a right of decision in economic questions within the National Economic Council. The work of the newly-founded organisation was thus clearly defined.

The Economic Council had a semi-official character, and undertook tasks which had hitherto been performed by economic institutions and administrative authorities. It had to make proposals to the Government on all questions of commercial policy, advise on commercial treaties, keep home and foreign economic affairs under continual observation, and make periodical reports on the development of the different branches. Furthermore, it was made responsible for the establishment of a new Customs tariff and also had to examine the effect of Customs measures and decide upon petitions and complaints regarding Customs questions. In order to obtain the necessary information, it had extensive powers of investigation. It had to draw up annual statistics on Spain's foreign trade and compile statistics on a new basis. The work of this body was therefore mainly devoted to questions of Customs and commercial policy. In this field, the Economic Council exercised a great influence during the period which ensued and achieved positive results. *Special committees* entitled the *Commission for the Negotiation of Treaties* and the *Commission for the Defence of Production* were appointed to assist the Economic Council in carrying out this task, together with another of equal importance—namely, the protection of home production by subsidies, export bonuses, reductions in taxation, etc. Subsequently, its power was further extended by the creation of the *Committee to regulate Industrial Production* (by a Decree of November 4th, 1926), which was placed under its authority. This body controlled the establishment of new and the extension of existing undertakings, and could impose its veto in the interest of the community.

The Economic Council was intended to act as a bulwark for the activities of individual economic groups, especially those engaged in industry. It was therefore mainly composed of representatives of the various branches of production appointed by their own organisations. They were corporate members. The appointing bodies were the Chambers of Agriculture, Mining, Industry, Trade and Navigation and the great industrial associations such as the Unions of Textile Manufacturers, Oil Producers, Orange-Growers, etc., but the socialistic trade unions and associations were also represented.

Among the members, there were also experts (assessors) selected by the industrial or other associations concerned on the ground of their special knowledge of the various groups of merchandise included in the Customs tariff, and higher officials belonging to the competent economic branches of the Administration.

The number of members was changed on several occasions. In 1926, there were sixty-four members representing organisations and thirty-eight elected members, together with twenty officials of the Administration. For the accomplishment of the manifold tasks of the Economic Council, other State and corporate organisations were appointed to assist it with expert information and advice—organisations which,

in some cases, already existed and, in other cases, were created in order to meet particular requirements. Their number gradually became so large that there was hardly any branch of production that was not organised; the Economic Council thus constituted for several years a complete representation of the productive forces of the country. Its object was to be an instrument of reconciliation and harmony, and at the same time of Government action.

The President was Primo de Rivera himself, or, in his absence, the Finance Minister and, later, the Minister for Foreign Affairs. The actual control of the work of the Council, however, was in the hands of a Vice-President appointed by the Dictator, — M. Castedo. Reports concerning the work were published monthly.

The Council of National Economy, which was established as a permanent body, came to the fore in the period 1924 to 1928, and was then designedly thrust into the background by the creation by Primo de Rivera of the Ministry of National Economy. After the overthrow of the Dictatorship, its radius of activity was still further restricted on the basis of the Decree of April 5th, 1930, reorganising the powers of the Ministry and of the Economic Council, and, in the following months, up to the proclamation of the Republic on April 14th, 1931, it possessed merely a shadow of its former power.

The numerous economic organisations (about twenty-three) established to assist it were also dissolved, one after the other, in 1930.

3. Before this last development, however, another opportunity was afforded to industrial circles of collaborating in the reconstruction of the State, through the summoning of the National Assembly on September 13th, 1927, which was partly constituted on an occupational basis. The representatives of agriculture, industry, trade and the Press were, however, selected by Primo de Rivera, and the National Assembly itself had very limited powers. It could only be an advisory body, as the Dictator reserved the final decision for the King and his body of directors. According to the draft Constitution framed by it in 1929, elected representatives of the occupational organisation were to have seats both in the Political Chamber (the Cortes) and in the Council of the Realm ("Consejo del Reino"), which was a kind of first Chamber. This draft Constitution, however, suffered the same fate as the Dictatorship.

4. A new era of constitutional law begins with the consolidation of the Republic. The democracy decided, on December 8th, 1931, to establish a "democratic Republic of workers of all classes", which bears clear signs of its German model. It does not, however, contain any provisions with regard to the establishment of an economic organisation such as the German Reich Constitution does in Article 165. A reference to the matter can, however, be found in Article 93, which reads:

"A special law shall regulate the creation and operation of expert organs and the economic organisation of the Administration, the Government and the Cortes."

A year after the establishment of the Republic the *new Economic Council* was instituted (by a Decree dated April 23rd, 1932), under the title of "Consejo Ordenador de la Economía Nacional" (Regulating Council of National Economy) for which, only a limited period of existence is prescribed, inasmuch as Article 12, the last article of the Decree, states: "The Government shall order it to be dissolved when, in agreement with that body, it considers that the task entrusted to it has been fulfilled". Article 3 also declares that the Economic Council is to carry out its work "in the shortest possible time", as the Government may prescribe. It is therefore not to be a permanent organisation like the former Council, but merely an *ad hoc* body. Nevertheless, it is an organisation of outstanding importance.

The Minister for Agriculture, Industry and Trade, M. Domingo, to whose sphere of activity the Economic Council belongs, declared, before publishing the text of the Decree, that the establishment of the Economic Council was a fundamental accomplishment of the Republic. He emphasised that its success would depend mainly upon the persons who were chosen to be members, and that they ought therefore to be selected with the utmost care. The statement of reasons which precedes the Decree in the *Gaceta de Madrid* of April 24th, 1932, contains the following sentences :

“ It is the duty of the Republic to establish an organisation and to lay down principles for the regular development of Spanish economic life. For this purpose, all branches of production must be unified and co-ordinated, and the duty incumbent upon each must be duly assigned to it. States must be made independent of the fluctuations of their industry. While private interests need a full measure of freedom for their development, they must nevertheless be subjected to the authority of the State. The State, however, must bring private interests into harmony with the interests of the community. All States to-day must organise their economic life if they are to guarantee the necessary yield and satisfy the needs of consumption. A body is therefore required which will scientifically examine the economic situation of the country, determine its production and consumption requirements at home and abroad, and draw up a plan of economic organisation. If this plan is accepted, everything must be subordinated to making its accomplishment possible : agriculture and industry, Customs duties and credit system, exportation and importation. The plan must not constitute a short-lived reform, but a gradual development towards higher forms of economic life, a transformation of available energies.”

It is also emphasised that the Economic Council is not a continuation or imitation of the former one and that it is not comparable with the Committee for Trade and Industry set up in the United Kingdom in February 1927 or with the technical committees customary in that country, but only, if at all, with the Commission (*Enquête-Ausschuss*) which was established in Germany by a law dated April 15th, 1926, to study conditions of production and consumption in German economic life.

It is similarly the duty of the Economic Council to investigate the value of Spanish production and to determine consumption capacity, in order that the articles produced may all find a market. The aim of the Council is to make accessible and secure the raw-material-producing areas of the country with a view to safeguarding independence in relation to foreign countries, rationalising industrial life and ensuring the production of goods of high quality for the world market. It is to help in carrying through systematically-worked-out schemes of economic development. It seems reasonable to recognise here the influence of the Russian Five-Year Plan.

The text of the few articles of which the Decree consists brings out the details of the scheme. The duties of the Economic Council are enumerated in Article 2 as follows :

- (a) To determine exactly the present situation as regards the production and sale of national products at home and abroad ;
- (b) To define clearly the possibilities regarding the production and sale of national products at home and abroad ; and
- (c) To draw up a plan for the rationalisation of national economic life.

The Economic Council may associate with its work all organisations which are concerned with the economic life of the nation and which are capable of co-operation.

All persons, undertakings or corporate bodies engaged in industrial activity in Spain are required to supply any information which may be necessary to the Economic Council or its representatives and to make available for inspection all books and necessary documents; any person who knowingly supplies false information or fails to disclose important circumstances or facts which it is desired to ascertain is guilty of a punishable offence. The members of the Economic Council are bound to secrecy. They are themselves liable to punishment if they misuse their office for purposes of gain. Precautionary measures are to be instituted in order that trade secrets may not be disclosed.

Article 9. — Offices directly dependent upon the Economic Council shall be set up, composed of two different groups: the one consisting of representatives of the Economic Council itself and officials in the service of the commissions or scientific bodies, who are to be nominated; the other consisting of independent authorities to whom the duty of dealing with special questions shall be entrusted. The questions being dealt with at the moment are statistics, the organisation of imports and exports, propaganda, and the new plan.

The Economic Council is to be composed of fifteen members appointed by the Government on the recommendation of the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry and Commerce (*i.e.*, not by the organisations to which they belong, as previously).

The members are to receive salaries. Of the fifteen members, one is to be appointed president by the Minister for Agriculture, Industry and Commerce, while a vice-president and a secretary are to be chosen by the Council itself. The other members have the right to vote.

The President and members of the Economic Council have since been appointed by two Decrees, dated June 2nd, 1932. Don Santiago Valiente Oroquieta is the President. The other members include representatives of industrial bodies, such as the "Fomento de Trabajo Nacional". The "Consejo Ordenador de la Economía Nacional" (Regulating Council of National Economy) can recommend to the Minister for Agriculture, Industry and Commerce:

- (a) The appointment of new members for the examination of a particular question (experts);
- (b) The nomination of special commissions;
- (c) The drafting of reports;
- (d) The appointment of substitute members.

The Minister for Agriculture, Industry and Commerce has to take a decision with regard to the proposals of the «Consejo Ordenador» within a period of eight days.

The Rules of Procedure, which the Economic Council must draw up for itself fifteen days after it meets, are to be submitted to the Minister for Agriculture, Industry and Commerce for approval. Reports of the meetings may be published. The Decree does not state who is to summon the Economic Council or how the voting is to be carried out.

The Council has a right of initiative in the drawing up of the plan. Subject to certain conditions, therefore, it possesses considerable freedom of action, inasmuch as it can include in the plan anything covered by the wide term "national economy". Its character, however, is essentially informatory. It has no direct power to carry out the plan. At the same time, the new body is a more important organ than the former «Consejo de la Economía Nacional». Its work is more difficult and more responsible, since much more important tasks are entrusted to it.

As soon as the Decree of April 23rd, 1932, was published, it raised a storm of opposition in industrial circles. It was attacked on two grounds: the elimination of the representational rights of occupational interests,¹ which is all the more serious in view of the fact that the circles concerned are accustomed to this privilege on account of the earlier long-established practice, and the threat of intrusion into the most private and secret concerns of industrial management.

Whether the mixed reception accorded to the Decree will lead in future to a modification in structure of the new Economic Council is not yet clear. The criticism which has been expressed, however, is proof of the interest which the setting up of such an economic body arouses in Spain and of the necessity for its creation.

24. Sweden.

In the years 1920 and 1921 a body called the "Economic Council" existed in Sweden, which advised the Government mainly in financial questions and carried out enquiries.

At the present time, the Government or the administrative authorities ascertain the views of industrial and trade circles before introducing legislative measures relating to economic matters.

25. Switzerland.

The establishment of an Economic Council was eagerly canvassed in Switzerland in the years 1923 to 1925. The scheme was then allowed to drop, as it was impossible to arrive at an agreement as to the form which it should take. Certain circles are, however, still in favour of the idea being carried into effect.

26. Turkey.

When Turkey succeeded in consolidating her political position after the war, she began to reorganise her economic situation as well. Although an occupational association existed only in the case of a few economic groups, this did not prevent a *Supreme Economic Council* ("Ali İktisat Meclisi"), with headquarters in Ankara,² from being established by a Law on June 26th, 1927.³ The organisation thus established

¹ The *Unión Económica* wrote in this connection:

"As there is still so much to be done with regard to the drawing up of statistics concerning production and consumption, index numbers relating to our balance of payments, market transactions, etc., that this domain may almost be said to be unexplored, the *Unión Económica* is of opinion that an organ dealing with these questions could accomplish a most useful mission for the community, provided that the circles concerned were directly represented on the said body by persons appointed by the various trade organisations".

The *Federación de Círculos Mercantiles* demands the creation of a *bloc* of all industrial groups to protest against the scheme (*El Sol*, April 30th, 1932).

² Since more up-to-date material is not available, I have quoted this section with slight alterations from my pamphlet *Die Wirtschaftsräte in Europa*, page 36.

³ *Resmî Dscheride*, No. 640, July 24th, 1927. In German: Verlag Ritgen & Co., Constantinople, 1928.

exhibits, however, the constructive tendencies of an assembly of economists rather than those of a body actually representing the combined economic interests of the country. It does not represent these interests, because labour is conspicuous by its absence among the members. Otherwise, and apart from consumers, all important economic groups, including production and distribution, are represented. These are specified in detail in the regulations for the execution of the Law, which are dated January 21st, 1928.

The Economic Council has in all twenty-four members. The Secretary-General also, who was appointed to direct the Council's current business, has the status of member. Twelve members were appointed by the Council of Ministers for the first four years (Article 5)—namely, eleven experts and one member of the army. The other twelve members were elected by economic concerns and organisations. The seats were allocated according to the following system: four members (*viz.*, one importer, one exporter, one shipowner and one factory owner) were appointed by the Chambers of Commerce. The banks and the railway companies elected one representative each; two members for agriculture, one each for the co-operative societies, for the trade exchanges, for the Stock Exchanges, and for the mineowners. The electoral colleges are constituted according to definite rules; for instance, the representative of the trade exchanges is elected at a meeting composed of representatives of the managing committees of the trade exchanges in the main towns in the *vilayet*, one for each committee. The railway companies hold a meeting, to which companies with less than 250 kilometres of lines each send one representative and those with more than 250 kilometres one representative for each 250 kilometres (Article 4 of the Regulations).

In addition, each group elects deputies who fill the seats as they fall vacant. Departmental directors, by order of the Government, attend some of the meetings as experts, if the subject under discussion is of interest to one of the Ministries concerned. They are not entitled to a vote. The first honorary chairman is the Prime Minister, the Minister of Commerce acting as his deputy. The Council elects by secret ballot from among its members a Chairman and a Vice-Chairman for two sessions. The quorum for this purpose is thirteen members. The Chairman and Vice-Chairman conduct the proceedings.

The Council is under the Prime Minister's Office at Ankara. The latter arranges its agenda and programme of work. Questions not on the agenda cannot be discussed (Article 8). Should such questions be proposed by members, they must first be handed in to the Secretariat with a detailed explanation of the reasons in support, and submitted to the Prime Minister through the Secretariat for approval. The agenda must be communicated to the members one month at latest before the opening of the session.

The Council meets every six months. The sessions usually last a fortnight, but can be prolonged for a further fortnight if the Council of Ministers so decides. The Economic Council held fifteen meetings in the first half of 1928.

Its functions include :

(1) To give expert opinions on economic Bills and draft decrees drawn up by the Government, to verify the legal validity of provisions of law from the point of view of their effects on the country's economic system and to make certain that such forms are consistent with each other. It is the express duty of the Council to bring forward reasoned proposals for the revision of laws (Article 4, Nos. 1 and 2). Proposals for action by members can, if approved by the Prime Minister, also be referred back to the Council for further discussion.

(2) Another side to the Council's activity consists of the investigation of the methods and systems required by conditions in Turkey, and observation of the development of business cycles and their influence on the national economic system.

Its conclusions have to be notified to the Government (Article 4, Nos. 3 and 4).

A quorum is constituted by more than half the total number of members. Minutes are kept of the proceedings, and copies thereof, together with the Council's decisions, are communicated through the Secretary-General to the Prime Minister within a fortnight after the meeting. Opinions requested by the Government must be sent in at the end of the session following the submission of the Bill.

If the Council considers it necessary, it can appoint committees for various purposes. Decisions on such points can, however, be taken only by the plenary Council.

The Secretary-General plays an important part in the Council. Apart from the conduct of current business and the preparation of the meetings, he has, in the intervals between the sessions, to study all items on the agenda for the next session, to obtain opinions from all official and private quarters concerned and to make extracts from them.

Moreover—and this is a point to be emphasised—he has to make a collection of the various foreign systems, laws, and decrees existing on similar questions, to carry out a comparative study of them and of scientific works on the same subjects, and to communicate the result of this preliminary work in the form of a report on each point to the members of the Council before the latter meets. Considerable demands are made on the Secretary-General, and these cannot be met without a thorough scientific grounding. For these reasons the regulations require that he shall have received a complete university training.

During the time it has been in existence, the Economic Council has dealt with certain fundamental issues.

In 1928, it enquired into the causes of the rise in prices, methods of stabilisation and questions of commercial and Customs policy. During the past year, it drew up the Turkish balance of payments on the general lines recommended by the International Chamber of Commerce. The Secretariat publishes regular reports (*Raporlari*) on its work.

The five years' activity of the Turkish Economic Council constitutes proof of its vitality and usefulness.

27. Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

The new order in Russia is being built up on an economic basis. The idea of a State constituted by councils representing the working population had a repercussion in other countries, and in Germany, for instance, was one of the causes of the institution of an Economic Council. The Soviet Union's schemes of economic planning are affecting public opinion outside Russia as well and, in certain countries, the Economic Council is to be summoned to give effect to similar ideas (China, Spain). A short description might therefore be given here of the main features, at least, of this economic system.

1. The Russian State is based on the *Soviets*. These consist of representatives of the units of production—*i.e.*, works and factories, villages and barracks—and are elected directly by the workers, peasants and soldiers. They represent, therefore,

the will of the working population, the proletariat. The delegates are elected for one year but may be removed at any moment, and have to account for their actions to the workers, peasants and soldiers. In Soviet Russia, therefore, the electoral system is organised, not on a territorial basis, but on that of the producing establishment.

“ This arrangement ensures the election to Soviets of delegates and representatives who come from the works—*i.e.*, direct from working occupations in town or country . . . The members of the Soviets include the best workers and peasants whose efficiency at their work has won them the confidence of their electors and who concentrate their efforts on promoting the interests of their constituents . . . In this way, the working masses are brought into direct association with the machinery of public administration . . . ”¹

Under the Constitution of July 10th, 1918, the franchise and the right to stand for election are enjoyed by all *workers* over 18 years of age, irrespective of sex, nationality, religion or residence, and also by old-age pensioners and disabled workers, persons who keep house for workers, members of the Red Army, and officials of the Soviet Administration. It is a condition that none of these persons must employ the labour of others. Since 1925, however, persons who employ hired labourers and persons who derive an income from the interest on Government securities have also been given the franchise.

According to Stalin, “ the power of the Soviets lies in the combination and expansion of the local Soviets into one single, common State organisation . . . the State organisation of the proletariat . . . of federation in a Soviet Republic ”. This union is accomplished by the rural and urban Soviets, the district and regional Soviets throughout the provinces, areas, governments, autonomous territories and republics.

2. *The Soviet organisation comprises:*

- (a) *The Congresses with which decisions rest, and,*
- (b) *The Executive Committees.*

The supreme authority is the *Congress of Soviets of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics* and its *Executive Committee*, which combines both legislative and executive.

“ The Soviets, however, constitute not only the political but, at the same time, the economic administration of the State, and have the direct conduct of the whole national economy ”.²

3. The *Supreme Economic Council* was mentioned in the 1918 Constitution (Chapter 8, No. 43 (g)) among the seventeen People's Commissariats then instituted.³

¹ This passage is taken from pages 55 and 77 of Hermann REMMELE's book, *Die Sowjetunion* (published in 1932 by Karl Hoym, Nachf., Berlin). On page 62, he writes further:

“ The Soviets are the universal mass organisations of the proletarian revolution and they comprise the whole people... but they are non-party organisations. The party is the front-rank organisation, the body which leads in the revolutionary class conflict, which gives the direction . . . ”

Remmele is himself a Communist; his book accordingly gives a one-sided view but affords a clear picture of the constitution of the Soviet Union.

² Cf. REMMELE, *op. cit.*, page 86.

³ *Das Grundgesetz der Russischen Sowjetrepublik*, by Karl GRÜNBERG, published by C. L. Hirschfeld, Leipzig, 1919.

It has been reconstituted on several occasions. In the beginning of 1932, it was divided into the People's Commissariats for the heavy, light and timber industries. *The Supreme Economic Council* has set up forty-four *Regional Administrations*, which consist, like the Council's own Managing Board, of workers, employees and managers. It controls only the *industrial* syndicates and trusts and not the whole economic system; in March 1931 there were eighty-four such bodies. It supervises the *Rayonisierung* of industrial centres and industrial combines,¹ and acts as a tribunal of appeal for differences of opinion in the managing boards of industrial combines. It can issue orders and instructions in this connection.

4. Next, the *State Planning Committee* prepares the annual economic plan, the figures fixed in advance for production (*Kontrolziffern*), the general directions for production and the long-term schemes, such as the Five-Year Plan.² On February 5th, 1932, the main lines of the second Five-Year Plan covering the years 1933 to 1937 were laid down.

28. Yugoslavia.

The antecedents of the Economic Council that has now been set up in the Kingdom of Yugoslavia were both interesting and eventful. The Council was first announced in Article 44 of the Constitution of June 28th, 1921, and it soon seemed likely to play an important part in the new State. At different times, the most varied plans and schemes were published for the creation of an Economic Council, and the Government took more than one preparatory step in this direction. Owing to divergencies between the political parties, however, public interest was constantly diverted into other channels, so that this question was never definitely settled. Only after economic circles had united in powerful groups with a definite policy and taken up the cudgels in defence of their mutual interests could they prepare the ground for the creation of an Economic Council; this idea they then propagated with all the means at their disposal. The result was that the new Constitution, which was granted to the Kingdom of Yugoslavia on September 3rd, 1931, again contained an article (Article 24) promising the establishment of an Economic Council. This Constitution went further than the former one in that it laid down in advance the Council's structure and its position in the State. Article 24 reads as follows:

“An “Economic Council” shall be set up as an advisory body for economic and social questions, to give expert opinions when requested by His Majesty's Government or by Parliament.

“The Economic Council shall be composed of representatives of Economic circles and experts on economic and social questions.

“The composition of the Economic Council and the organisation of its work will be laid down in a special law.”

A few months later King Alexander declared, in his speech from the throne on January 18th, 1932, that an Economic Council would be created to assist the Government and Parliament in carrying out economic reforms and laws. He mentioned thirty

¹ The trusts combine the various branches and industries in the different districts; factory administrations are in turn subordinate to them. The industrial combines represent the amalgamation of interdependent branches of production, based mostly on electric power works, mines, etc.

² Julius HAYDU, *Russland 1932* (Phaidon Verlag, Wien, 1932, pages 42 *et seq.*), gives a graphic description of the origin of the Five-Year Plan (1928 to 1933).

as the prospective number of members, who would be chosen from the representatives of economic organisations and prominent business men. Thereafter, the Economic Council developed without difficulty. By February 4th of this year, a Bill was laid before Parliament, granting very extensive rights to the body to be set up, more especially a considerable measure of independence and, most important of all, power to initiate proposals.

The Bill was discussed by Parliament very rapidly on account of the general economic situation, and has already been passed. The Law has not yet been published in the *Official Gazette*, since it still needs the ratification of the Senate, but there is no doubt that it will soon enter into force, since there is general agreement that an economic advisory body is more necessary at present than ever before, in order to settle the complicated questions raised by recent economic developments. As appears from an article on the Council in the periodical *Glasnik*, of February 15th, 1932,¹ much is expected from this new organisation and it is to be hoped that it will contribute to a real improvement in present conditions.

The law on the Economic Council (*Privredno Veće*) was framed by the Minister of Commerce. Before discussing the different provisions, let me quote its most significant clause, that guaranteeing the Council's power to influence events. It reads: "Economic and social draft laws *must* be submitted to the Economic Council for an opinion before they are introduced in the Skupshtina and the Senate." Hence, such Bills, endorsed with the Council's considered opinion based on practical experience, can be regarded from a general point of view. The economic world has in this way acquired its right for position. Moreover, the Chamber of Deputies or the Senate can also decide, *proprio motu*, that the expert opinion of the economic representatives shall be consulted before proposals are dealt with by the political Chambers.

It is also of importance that the Council, on its own initiative, but with the Government's approval, can place economic questions on the agenda and, *proprio motu*, recommend the Government to adopt certain economic or social measures. This is the basis of its independence.

Again, the Government can ask for its opinion on economic and social Bills and, by decision of the Cabinet, on draft decrees and regulations for the execution of laws. Its province also includes financial matters, traffic questions, taxation, Customs tariffs, etc., and concrete questions of general economic and social policy. Its principal character, therefore, is that of an advisory body, although it possesses an extensive sphere of competence. It assists both the legislature and the executive.

Its sixty members, together with the same number of deputies, who are all appointed by the Government for three years, are recruited from the following occupations:

Agriculture and forestry	24
Commerce and Industry and craftsmen, navigation, mining, banking	16
Workers and private employees	5
Representatives of the public administration, lawyers, engineers, doctors and journalists	15
	<u>60</u>

¹ *Glasnik*, "Zavoda za unapredivanje spoljne trgovine". Belograd, Milosa Velikog, 42, Godina III.

The members are spokesmen of an organisation or experts in particular fields. Upon accepting appointment they pledge themselves to attend regularly; on the other hand, they enjoy parliamentary privileges during the exercise of their functions. Their work is honorary; only those members who live outside Belgrade receive travelling and subsistence allowances.

The Council's organs are : the plenary Council, the Chairman and Vice-Chairman, the Standing (Managing) Committee and any other special Committees.

The Council meets at least once a year on October 1st.

All the south-eastern European States have therefore set up Economic Councils this year ; although there is much similarity between them, nevertheless, there are also differences which may be of decisive importance. Generally speaking, however, it may be said that the newly founded economic organisations are likely to be of great service in the reconstruction of Eastern Europe.

IV. SYNOPSIS.

Having examined the economic councils of the various countries in form and substance, we may observe the constant recurrence of certain general features and structural details. The systematic classification appended will afford a clearer idea of what is termed an "Economic Council".

1. It has already been frequently stated in the preceding observations that there is still no country with a Parliament consisting of representatives of trades and callings which is absolutely homogeneous in structure, though repeated attempts have been made and embryonic Parliaments of this kind do exist. Even the Italian Chamber of Deputies, in spite of the considerable influence exercised by the occupational corporations over its composition, cannot be so designated. The description is still less appropriate to the Upper Chambers or Senates of various countries (Greece, Hungary, Roumania) in which an occupational section exists. Nor can the existing economic councils, though the majority of them combine the most important occupational groups, be likened to such a Parliament, partly because of their structure and partly because of their limited powers. Nowhere does an economic council represent the supreme authority in the State; none has sovereign power or co-operates with Parliament or the executive in the exercise of public administration. They merely share certain legislative and executive functions, though some (*e.g.*, in Germany, Italy and Yugoslavia) act side by side with parliament as a department of State with equal status.

Their position is thus clear. They are partly independent bodies, but only within the limits of the national Constitution, which in almost all European and non-European countries is democratic. Economic councils are now a firmly established part of modern, *post-war* Constitutions: their existence is therefore guaranteed, so long as these Constitutions remain in force and are not altered. Another essential condition, of course, is that effect has been or will be given to the relevant article of the Constitution. Provisions of this kind are to be found in the Constitutions of Germany, 1919 (Article 165), Yugoslavia (Article 44 of the earlier 1921, and Article 24 of the recent 1931; Constitution), Poland (Article 68 of the 1921 Constitution) and Danzig (Articles 46 and 115 of the 1920 Constitution). In the latter two States, the articles have so far not been put into effect.

Nevertheless, not all the economic councils dealt with here are autonomous bodies. Most of them are subordinate to the Government, and certain economic councils for special questions come under Government departments. Furthermore, a distinction must be drawn between economic councils which really represent the interests of trade and industry—*i.e.*, the productive forces of the nation—and those which are merely a council of experts for economic questions. We have already tried to make this point clear in the preface.

2. A systematic survey will best bring out the similarity of these bodies, notwithstanding their diversity. For this purpose, we must differentiate between *central economic councils*, which are capable of *really* influencing the *general* economic policy of the country—the so-called supreme or national or imperial economic councils, which are the only bodies ultimately germane to this enquiry—and other councils,

with numerous variations, limited to individual *occupational groups or special questions*. The membership of the former is drawn mainly from economic circles, while the latter are usually assemblies of experts. In the case of the former representative corporations, a further distinction must be drawn between bodies *independent* of and bodies subordinate to the Government and between those which act as advisers to the Government *as a whole* and those which advise *one* Minister only. Finally, there must be a separate classification for committees of experts of an *official* character consisting of Government representatives only.

The following arrangement is an attempt to cover all species and sub-species of economic council, and where possible to classify them systematically. We find, accordingly, in the different countries :

(a) *Representative Economic Councils :*

Central Body independent of Government :

Czechoslovakia
Germany
Italy
Yugoslavia

Central Body Subordinate to Government :

Cuba
Estonia
Finland
France
Poland (Bill)
Turkey
United States of America (La Follette Bill)

(b) *Advisory Councils of Experts :*

Belgium
United Kingdom
China
Cuba (Comisión de Defensa Económica)
Denmark
Greece
Japan
Latvia
Luxemburg
Netherlands
Roumania
Spain
United States of America (Economic Committee)

(c) *Permanent Special Councils for Specific Trades and Occupations :*

Argentine (industry, sugar, wine)
Belgium (industry and trade, labour, agriculture, middle classes)
Brazil (trade, labour)
Bulgaria (agriculture)
Netherlands (industry, middle classes)

(d) *Committees or Councils for Special Questions:*

Belgium (inland navigation, foreign trade, fairs, credit)
Hungary (social policy)
Irish Free State (milk, cattle, eggs)
Japan (rice)
New Zealand (*ad hoc*)
Portugal (foreign trade)
Uruguay (*ad hoc*)

(e) *Advisory Councils attached to a Particular Ministry:*

Hungary
Irish Free State (agriculture, industry and trade)
Japan (industry and trade)
Latvia (customs tariffs)
Poland (trade, agriculture, labour, finance)

(f) *Committees formed from Economic Departments or other Authorities:*

Argentine (Customs, foreign trade)
Latvia (Commercial Treaties Committee)
Netherlands (commercial treaties)
Poland (inter-departmental)

(g) *Occupational Chambers:*

Austria
Bulgaria
France
Germany
Greece
Italy (Provincial Councils of Corporations)
Lithuania
Luxemburg
Poland
Roumania

3. *Government influence* is strong in all these bodies, the most independent being the Economic Council of the Reich. Its chairmen are elected by the members direct and the Government has no influence at all in the election. The preamble to the Bill regarding the Netherlands Economic Council contains a similar provision. In the other economic councils, the *Prime Minister* is almost invariably the statutory Chairman (United Kingdom, China, Denmark, Estonia, France, Greece, Italy, Japan, Turkey) or else the *Government appoints* the Chairman, who, in such cases, is usually the Minister who is in charge of an economic department and who therefore represents the Government (Argentine, Belgium [for special Councils], Brazil, Bulgaria, Cuba, Irish Free State, Latvia, Poland [Bill], Portugal), or is in some way closely connected with the Government (Czechoslovakia, Finland [the Director-General of the Forest Administration], Luxemburg, Netherlands [Industrial Council and Economic Committee], Roumania).

In other directions also the Government wields a far-reaching influence. It decides *what questions* will be submitted to the economic council for an advisory opinion.

This applies to all economic corporations without exception (unless special provision is made in the Constitution or legislation). The Government also decides *when* legislative proposals will be laid before the economic council.¹

Proposals brought forward by the economic councils themselves require Government approval, either (as in France) for their actual consideration (such proposals can, as in Yugoslavia also, only be placed on the agenda with the Government's consent) or for their introduction into Parliament (in Germany in the case of the provisional Economic Council for the Reich). In all countries the Government has the right to participate in meetings at any time, but the economic council too may summon a representative of the Government to attend (France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands [Bill], Poland [Bill]). Subject to certain restrictions, the Government has the option (France) of saying whether and how it will give effect to the council's advisory opinions. In Italy, the Prime Minister may *veto* the decisions of the Council of Corporations. In every country, the Government is responsible for the measures adopted in pursuance of the council's advisory opinions. In certain cases, the Government convenes the council. Where it does not appoint the members itself, it decides which bodies may make such appointments.

It is therefore clear that the relation between economic councils and Governments is very close, and that, in the great majority of cases, the former are to some extent dependent on the latter.

4. *The relation of the economic councils to Parliament* is a more or less subordinate one. Stress is indeed laid on this point in all the preambles to the relevant laws and ordinances, doubtless in order to create a friendlier feeling in Parliaments towards the economic councils, since a certain rivalry between the two bodies has undoubtedly been noticeable. In some countries, the Parliamentary Economic Committees delegate members to consult with the economic council and *vice versa* (Czechoslovakia, France, Germany [proposed and partly practised already]). In other countries, representatives of the legislature are regular members of the economic council (Belgium, Denmark, Estonia).

Nowhere is there an express proviso against simultaneous membership of both bodies.

5. *The relation to other advisory bodies* is frequently so arranged as to ensure collaboration, though on rational lines in order to avoid overlapping. In the Netherlands, for instance, the co-operation of the existing *Advisory Councils* is enlisted. The Luxemburg Economic Council is based on a substructure of *occupational chambers*. In Roumania, the Economic Council has a number of *important economic institutions* as subsidiary organs, and the same is true of Spain (Departments for Economic Questions).

The representative councils are in permanent contact with the *appointing bodies* and are thus always informed of the desiderata of and the tendencies prevalent in the occupational groups.

6. *The rights and duties of economic councils* are manifold, but differ in the various countries. All councils without exception are *advisory* bodies; their main object is therefore to furnish *advisory opinions* on economic questions in general. In most cases, financial and social problems are automatically included—sometimes they are

¹ But *cf.* Czechoslovakia and Germany.

specifically enumerated (Germany, Greece, Roumania and the United States of America [political and financial questions], Yugoslavia [social questions]). Advisory opinions are required more particularly for *legislative proposals*. A distinction must be made here between :

(a) Participation in the *preparation* of the Bill, as provided for in the Czechoslovak law and in the German Bill, and as already realised in practice in France, Germany and Italy.

(b) Discussion of the Bill itself *prior* to its *being laid before* Parliament. This is the custom in the economic councils of Czechoslovakia, France, Germany and Italy and also in the occupational Chambers of Austria and Poland. It is a provision of the Roumanian law (where proposals must be submitted to the council), of the Yugoslav law and in Hungary (for social and political legislation).

(c) Co-operation in the *execution* of laws—this is required in France (specially emphasised) and Germany.

(d) Finally, the right to *follow up* laws and their *practical application* (British and Turkish laws).

The right to *initiate proposals* is conferred on all economic councils, though it is sometimes bound up with specific conditions (France, Japan, Turkey [consent of the Prime Minister]).

Advisory councils of experts, more especially, have been granted *power to carry out investigations*, more particularly in Belgium, the United Kingdom, Finland, Greece and Spain ; in Germany, however, no such right is possessed by the provisional Economic Council of the Reich (the ultimate Council will have it), and it is even excluded in the preamble to the Netherlands Bill.

A feature which has only taken shape in recent months is the assignment to economic councils of the framing of a *plan* for the whole national economy. This task has been entrusted to the economic councils in China (where it supervises the execution of the plan also) Cuba and Spain. The Luxemburg Economic Council is to study a similar scheme for Europe.

Other tasks of various kinds are also allotted to the economic council. In Portugal, the Council will deal with all questions of foreign trade ; in Germany it drew up Customs tariffs and was at one time empowered to investigate the possibility of measures of socialisation. In Denmark, Greece and Roumania, the economic councils have to deal with currency questions, while international problems are given special prominence in the British, French and Luxemburg laws.

7. The economic councils differ fundamentally in *composition*. The number of members varies between six (Irish Free State) and 326 (Germany). The latter figure, reminiscent as it is of a political chamber, has since been recognised as inappropriate, and the Bill therefore provides that the economic council ultimately to be established will have only 151 members. This would appear to be the proper number for large countries and for representative bodies, if all economic circles are to be given adequate consideration.

The following table shows the number of members composing the Economic Councils of the various countries :

Germany (at present)	326
Italy	162
Germany (Bill)	151
France (Bill)	150

Czechoslovakia	150
Japan	111
Poland (proposed)	110
Yugoslavia.	60
France (at present)	47
Belgium	35
Denmark	30
Roumania	25
Turkey	24
Portugal	22
United Kingdom	20
Finland	20
Greece	20
China	19
Luxemburg.	15
Spain	15
Netherlands (proposed)	10—15
United States of America (Economic Committee)	12
Irish Free State	6

Members are appointed in most cases for two years only, the reason being that in this period a certain amount of experience regarding the composition (which may call for alterations) of the economic council can be acquired. This is the case in France, the Irish Free State, Luxemburg and Poland. The period is three years in Greece, Italy and Portugal, and four years in the Netherlands and Turkey. Frequently no specific period is laid down (United Kingdom and Spain). In Germany, the members have already been twelve years in office.

Members are appointed in the following ways:

- (a) *Election* (Belgium and Turkey for Special Councils ; other countries for Occupational Chambers).
- (b) *Delegation* by organisations designated by the Government (Brazil [partly], Estonia, France, Germany).
- (c) *Appointment* by the Government on the basis of proposals made by the occupational associations (Czechoslovakia, Cuba, Italy, Netherlands [Bill], Poland [Bill], Yugoslavia).
- (d) *Appointment* by the Government direct (Argentine, Belgium, the United Kingdom, China, Finland, Greece, Irish Free State, Japan, Latvia, Luxemburg (mainly the Chairmen of occupational chambers), New Zealand, Portugal, Roumania, Spain, Uruguay, United States of America and partly in Germany).
- (e) *Appointment ex officio* (Argentine [for the Foreign Trade Committee], Poland [for the Interdepartmental Economic Committee], partly in the United Kingdom, China, Finland, Roumania).

The legal status of members is, so far as information is available, everywhere identical. They must be nationals of the country and eligible for election to Parliament. In France, Germany and Yugoslavia, the special privilege of immunity is accorded. The French and German laws provide that members are not bound by any special

mandate. In Germany there is a provision that they are entitled to refuse to give evidence in a court of law. In England and Spain, the members may, in the discharge of their duties, call for information to be furnished.

Membership is honorary in all countries. In principle, the right of members to claim refund of travelling expenses is everywhere recognised. Subsistence allowances, on the other hand, are paid only in Czechoslovakia (up to a specified standard of income), Germany, Irish Free State, Netherlands (Bill), Portugal, Spain and Yugoslavia (in the case of members residing outside Belgrade).

The duties of members are regular attendance at meetings (in Czechoslovakia and Roumania repeated absence without excuse involves loss of office), secrecy regarding facts and proposals communicated to them during discussions (Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Poland [Bill], Spain). Membership is terminated in all countries by death, resignation or removal.

8. *The composition of the individual economic councils* is to a large degree identical. The same interests are always represented—viz., those which play a leading part in production, such as agriculture, industry, trade, transport, banking, etc. This is the case even in the smallest bodies. Consumers, however, are not always provided for. Usually, production of importance to foreign trade is given special consideration, but it is, of course, impossible to ascertain whether in every country seats are allocated in proportion to the comparative importance of the national economic resources. Except in the case of economic councils which are specifically formed on the basis of occupational associations, as in France, Germany, Italy and Yugoslavia, there does not seem to be any uniform plan for the allocation of seats, particularly in cases where members are appointed by the Governments only.

The liberal professions, intellectual workers, artists, etc., are represented on the economic councils of France, Germany, Italy and Yugoslavia only, whereas all countries give representation to science, often in comparatively large numbers, in particular on advisory councils of experts (*cf.* Greece and Portugal).

Representatives of labour are always found among the members of European economic councils, except in Finland, Roumania and Turkey, though this representation is allotted on a proportional basis only in the case of Czechoslovakia, France (labour group), Germany and Italy. In most of the councils, consumers are represented by the co-operative societies (Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Italy and Turkey). In a few cases, other bodies such as communes, associations of housekeepers, purchasers' leagues, the Association of Large Families, etc., are included under the heading "consumers".

Women have equal rights in France, Germany and Italy. No reference is made to them in the laws of other countries. In Belgium, women are frequently represented on the special councils.

In the representative bodies, a distinction is made between members elected by their associations and nominated members. In addition there are the *ex-officio* members (China, Portugal, Roumania), particularly in the committees of experts. There are, further, permanent and non-permanent (German proposal) or titular and deputy members (Czechoslovakia, France, Turkey). *Experts* may in every country be cited for special questions. *Officials* may sit on economic councils both as Government delegates and also as members. In the former capacity, they can act only in an advisory capacity everywhere (except Portugal). It is, therefore, almost a universal practice to distinguish between voting members and advisory members. When the membership is large, it is divided up into groups or sections (Czechoslovakia, Italy, etc.).

9. In almost every country, the *Secretary-General* must be a man of high educational qualifications and comprehensive knowledge, more particularly in the United Kingdom, China, and Turkey, and his position is a very responsible and influential one. In some cases (Belgium, Italy, Netherlands [proposal]), he has the right to vote; in other cases (Luxemburg, Roumania), he takes part in meetings in an advisory capacity. He is usually a government official.

10. *The organisation* of the various economic councils is almost identical in form, in the sense that a triple subdivision of functions is the invariable rule :

(a) The *managing*, or standing, committee, which transacts business, transmits advisory opinions, etc. ;

(b) The *committees or sections*, which do the preliminary work or prepare resolutions, usually in agreement with the Secretary-General or the Bureau ;

(c) The *general assembly*, which, as the deciding body, gives a final decision on all questions.

11. *The working methods* of councils show many points of similarity.

Meetings are convened by the Chairman or Deputy-Chairman, who is usually chosen from among the members. In exceptional cases this is done by the Government or the Ministers concerned (Luxemburg, Portugal). Fixed *dates for sessions* are prescribed in China, France, Italy, Turkey and Yugoslavia.

Economic councils adopt their own *standing orders*, except in Yugoslavia.

The President or Bureau draws up the *agenda* of the session (in Turkey, this is done by the Government). Items proposed by members may be placed on the agenda of the next session (China, France, Luxemburg).

In all countries a *quorum is constituted* by one-half of the voting members and in exceptional cases by two-thirds (Roumania), or one-third (Czechoslovakia, Portugal). In Italy, a quorum of one-third of the members may adopt resolutions at the second meeting convened. *Voting* is decided by the absolute majority of members present (in France by a two-thirds majority), very frequently by groups as well (Germany, Italy). It is customary in all councils to attach minority reports to those adopted by the majority.

Plenary sessions are *public* in Germany and Italy. The meetings of committees are always *private*, and may on application be declared secret and confidential (Polish Bill).

12. *Advisory opinions* are in every case communicated to the Government or the Ministers concerned ; in Czechoslovakia direct to Parliament also, if necessary. Nothing is stipulated (except in France) as to their publication or the action to be taken to give effect to them.

Shorthand records of meetings are issued in Germany and Italy by the *general assemblies* and summarised reports in France, Spain and Turkey. *Communiqués* are also issued *to the Press* (Belgium, France, Germany, Greece, Italy). It would, nevertheless, be desirable to have a still more active, and, above all, a more systematic information and intelligence service, as, by this means, the economic councils would be assured of a greater measure of effectiveness in their work, for the views of economic circles generally would be afforded wide publicity.

V.

ANNEX A.

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ANNEX B.

ADDRESSES OF CERTAIN ECONOMIC COUNCILS.

- Belgium*. — Secretary-General : M. van Zeeland, Directeur de la Banque nationale belge, Conseil Economique, Brussels.
United Kingdom. — Secretary-General : C. H. T. Jones, Esq., Deputy Secretary of the Cabinet, The Economic Council, 2, Whitehall Gardens, London, S.W.1.
China. — Secretary-General : Dr. Chu-Chia-Hua, President of the Central University, Nanking.

Czechoslovakia. — Secretary-General : Poradri abor pro Lospaxdarske otazky, Ministry of Commerce, Prague, II.

Finland. — Secretary-General : Dr. B. Suviranta, Helsinki.

France. — Secretary-General : M. Cahen-Salvador, Conseiller d'Etat, Conseil national économique, Palais-Royal, Paris.

Germany. — Secretary-General : Oberregierungsrat Georg Mayer, Vorl. Reichswirtschaftsrat, Bellevuestrasse, 15, Berlin, W.

Greece. — Secretary-General : M. Coronis, Anotaton Oikonomikon Symvoulion, Athens.

Italy. — Secretary-General : M. Aselmo Anselmi, Direttore Generale del Ministero delle Corporazioni, Consiglio nazionale delle Corporazioni, Ministero delle Corporazioni, Via del Tritone, Rome.

Luxemburg. — Secretary-General : M. Albert Wehrer, Luxemburg.

Roumania. — President : M. Mironescu, Consiliului Economiei Nationale, Bucharest.

Spain. — President : Don Santiago Valiente Oroquieta, Consejo Ordenador de la Economía nacional, Ministerio de Agricultura, Industria y Comercio, Madrid.

Turkey. — Secretary-General : M. Salahaddin, Ali Iktisat Meclisi, Ankara.

ANNEX C.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE SHOWING THE LEGAL BASES OF ECONOMIC COUNCILS IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD.

Austria.

1920. Federal Law of February 25th, 1920, concerning Chambers of Commerce, Trade and Industry.

Federal Law of February 26th, 1920, concerning Wage-earners' Chambers.

1929. Article 35 of the second Amendment to the Federal Constitution of December 7th, 1929, provides for the creation of a *Länder und Ständerat*.

Belgium.

Before 1919. Supreme Council for Agriculture of 1834.

Supreme Council for Industry and Commerce of 1890.

Supreme Council of Labour of 1892.

1919. Royal Decree of September 13th, 1919, concerning the Supreme Council of Shipping.

1921. Law of August 7th, 1921, concerning the Commission of Export Credits.

1926. Royal Decree of December 4th, 1926, concerning the National Council for Foreign Trade.

1928. Royal Decree of January 24th, 1928, amending the Royal Decree of February 5th, 1909, concerning the Supreme Council of the Middle Classes.
1930. Royal Decree of August 27th, 1930, concerning the constitution of an Economic Council.

United Kingdom.

1930. Treasury Minute of January 27th, 1930, concerning the creation of the Economic Advisory Council.

Bulgaria.

- Before 1919. Law of December 20th, 1906, concerning the establishment of Chambers of Commerce and Industry.
1931. The Supreme Council of Bulgarian Agriculture held its first meeting on February 28th, 1931.

China.

1931. Decree of June 16th, 1931, concerning the organisation of the National Economic Council.
Decrees of September 26th, 1931, November 23rd, 1931, and December 15th, 1931, concerning the appointment of the members.

Czechoslovakia.

1919. Government Decree of November 5th, 1919, concerning the institution of an Advisory Committee for Economic Questions.
1921. Decree of December 29th, 1921, concerning the alteration of the composition of the Committee.
1922. Decree of December 11th, 1922, concerning the re-organisation of the Committee.
1926. Decree of January 19th, 1926, concerning the alteration of the Rules of Procedure.
1930. Decree of December 19th, 1930, concerning re-organisation of the Committee.
1931. Decree of July 10th, 1931, concerning the re-organisation of the Committee.

Denmark.

1931. Decree of the Ministry, dated December 11th, 1931, concerning the establishment of an Economic Council.

Estonia.

1919. Law of September 3rd, 1919, concerning the establishment of an Economic Council.

Finland.

1928. Decision by the Council of State of November 30th, 1928, concerning the establishment of an Economic Council.

France.

1926. Ordinance of February 4th, 1926, settling the questions of the vice-chairmen of the Economic Council.

1928. The Bill for the creation, organisation and operation of a National Economic Council was adopted by the Chamber of Deputies at the first reading.

Germany.

1919. Article 165 of the Constitution of August 11th, 1919, concerning the Economic Council of the Reich.

1920. Decree of May 4th, 1920, concerning the establishment of the Provisional Economic Council of the Reich.

Decrees of June 20th and 28th, 1920, and December 1st, 1920, concerning its convocation.

1922. Decree of August 8th, 1922, concerning the subsistence allowances of the members of the Provisional Economic Council.

1923. Decree of January 3rd, concerning the subsistence-allowances of the members of the Provisional Economic Council.

1924. Decrees of January 10th, March 26th, June 28th, September 10th, October 15th, 1924, concerning the subsistence allowances of the Provisional Economic Council.

1928. Presentation of a Bill to the Reichstag concerning the Council's ultimate form. Decree of October 8th, 1928, concerning the subsistence allowances of the Provisional Council's members.

1930. On July 14th, 1930, a third reading of the Bill concerning the Economic Council's ultimate form failed to obtain the necessary majority.

Greece.

1929. Law of January 14th, 1929, granting the Occupational Associations the right to elect 18 out of the 120 statutory members of the Senate.

1932. Law of March 30th, 1932, concerning the constitution of a Supreme Economic Council.

Hungary.

Before 1919. Law of July 29th, 1907, concerning the National Council of Industry.

1932. Bill, laid before the House of Deputies in the spring of 1932, concerning the constitution of a National Council for Social Policy.

Irish Free State.

1922. The Irish Constitution of October 25th 1922 provides for the establishment of an occupational body.
1924. Article 45 of the Dairy Produce Act of 1924 concerning the establishment of a Council for questions relating to milk products.
1925. Article 16 of the Live-stock Breeding Act of 1925 concerning the establishment of a Council for questions relating to stock-breeding.
1931. Article 11 of the Agriculture Act of 1931 provides for the constitution of a Council for agricultural questions of a general character.

Italy.

1926. The Basic Law on Federations and Syndicates of April 3rd, 1926.
Royal Decree of July 2nd, 1926, concerning the Council of Corporations.
1927. *Carta del Lavoro* of April 21st, 1927.
Royal Decree of July 14th, 1927, concerning the Council of Corporations.
1928. Royal Decree of May 6th, 1928, concerning collective agreements.
1930. Law of March 20th, 1930, concerning the re-organisation of the Council of Corporations.
Ministerial Decree on December 6th, 1930, concerning the creation of the *Corporazione dello Spettacolo*.
1931. Law of June 18th, 1931, concerning the re-organisation of the Economic Councils in every province.
Government Decree of November 27th, 1931, concerning the constitution of the Permanent Commission for foreign commerce, Customs and commercial treaties.

Japan.

1924. Imperial Decree of April 1st, 1924, concerning the National Economic Committee.

Latvia.

1929. Ordinance of the Council of Ministers of 1929, concerning the constitution of a National Economic Council.

Lithuania.

1925. Law of February 2nd, 1925, concerning the creation of the Chamber of Industry and Commerce.
1926. Law of April 21st, 1926, concerning the constitution of the Chamber of Agriculture.

Luxemburg.

1924. Law of April 4th, 1924, concerning the creation of Occupational Chambers.
1926. Law of June 3rd, 1926, concerning the re-organisation of Occupational Chambers.
1931. Ducal Decree of December 3rd, 1931, "*portant création d'un conseil économique*"
Ministerial Ordinance of December 7th, 1931, publishing the names of the members appointed.

Netherlands.

1927. Royal Decree of October 26th, 1927, setting up a Committee for Political Economy.
1929. Royal Decree of April 12th, 1929, concerning the re-organisation of the Committee for Political Economy.
Royal Decree of September 4th, 1929, concerning the constitution of the Council of Industry (*Nijverheidsraad*).
1932. Royal Message of February 5th, 1932 concerning the constitution of an Economic Council.

Poland.

1921. Article 68 of the Constitution of March 17th, 1921, providing for the setting up of a Supreme Economic Council.
1925. Bill dealing with the formation of a Provisional supreme Economic Council.
1927. Law of 1927 concerning the Chambers of Commerce and Industry.
1928. Decree of March 22nd, 1928, concerning the organisation of Chambers of Agriculture.

Portugal.

1929. Decree of September 10th, 1929, concerning the re-organisation of the Supreme Council for Foreign Trade.

Roumania.

1925. Law of April 14th, 1925, concerning the Chambers of Agriculture.
1926. Electoral Law of March 27th, 1926, empowering the associations of the various branches of commerce and industry to take part in the elections to the Senate.
1929. Law of February 14th, 1929, concerning the re-organisation of Chambers of Commerce.
Law of August 2nd, 1929, concerning the organisation of Ministries.
1932. Law of April 15th, 1932, concerning the constitution of the National Economic Council.
Royal Decree of April 27th, 1932, concerning the appointment of the members of the Economic Council.

Spain.

- 1924. Royal Decree of March 8th, 1924, concerning the establishment of the national Economic Council.
- 1927. Royal Decree of February 16th, 1927, concerning the re-organisation of the Economic Council.
- 1928. Royal Decree of November 3th, 1928, concerning the Ministry for Economic Affairs.
- 1929. Royal Decree of April 19th, 1929, concerning the re-organisation of the Chambers of Commerce.
- 1930. Decree of April 5th, 1930, re-organising the national Economic Council.
- 1932. Decree of April 23rd, 1932, concerning the establishment of the new Economic Council. (*Consejo. Ordenario de la Economía Nacional*).

Turkey.

- 1927. Law of June 26th, 1927, concerning the establishment of a Supreme Economic Council (*Ali Iktisat Meclisi*).
- 1928. Regulation for the execution of the Law of January 21st, 1928.

Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

- Before 1919. Constitution of July 10th, 1918, mentioning the Supreme Economic Council.
- 1925. Amendment to the Constitution of May 5th, 1925.
- 1927. Re-organisation of the Supreme Economic Council.
- 1929. Amendment to the Constitution of May 18th, 1929.
- 1932. Division of the Supreme Economic Council into the People's Commissariats for the Heavy, Light and Timber Industries.

Yugoslavia.

- 1921. Article 44 of the Constitution of June 28th, 1921, concerning the Economic Council.
 - 1931. Article 24 of the Constitution of September 3rd, 1931, promising the establishment of an Economic Council.
 - 1932. Law of March 18th, 1932, concerning the Economic Council. (*Privredno Vece*).
-

Genève, le 18 octobre 1932.

SOCIÉTÉ DES NATIONS

**CONVENTION
INTERNATIONALE POUR LA SIMPLIFICATION
DES FORMALITES DOUANIERES**

Signée à Genève le 3 novembre 1923.

Application des articles 10 et 11 de cette Convention.

QUATRIÈME SÉRIE¹

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

**INTERNATIONAL CONVENTION
RELATING TO THE SIMPLIFICATION
OF CUSTOMS FORMALITIES**

Signed at Geneva, November 3rd, 1923.

Application of Articles 10 and 11 of this Convention.

FOURTH SERIES¹

¹ Pour les séries précédentes, voir documents C.198.M.75.1929.II, C.563.M.224.1930.II et C.913.M.479.1931.II.B.
¹ For previous series, see documents C.198.M.75.1929.II, C.563.M.224.1930.II and C.913.M.479.1931.II.B.

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I.

MESURES PRISES PAR LES GOUVERNEMENTS RELATIVES A LA CARTE
DE LÉGITIMATION POUR VOYAGEURS DE COMMERCE, PRÉVUE
A L'ARTICLE 10, ALINÉA 2.

I. LISTE COMPLÉMENTAIRE DES ÉTATS QUI N'EXIGENT PAS LA PRODUCTION DE LA CARTE
DE LÉGITIMATION ¹.

Brésil
Colonies britanniques

Grèce
Perse

2. RÉSUMÉ DES COMMUNICATIONS DES GOUVERNEMENTS CONCERNANT LA CARTE
DE LÉGITIMATION.

BRÉSIL

Les voyageurs entrant avec leur collection d'échantillons ne sont pas tenus de présenter une carte de légitimation pour pouvoir bénéficier de la franchise douanière temporaire.

COLONIES BRITANNIQUES

La carte de légitimation n'est exigée dans aucune colonie britannique pour accorder le régime de la franchise douanière temporaire aux voyageurs entrant avec leur collection d'échantillons.

GRÈCE

La loi hellénique ne fait pas dépendre l'octroi des facilités douanières afférentes aux échantillons et modèles de la présentation d'une carte de légitimation.

PERSE

Aucune carte de légitimation n'est exigée des fabricants, commerçants ou voyageurs de commerce au moment de leur entrée en Perse.

II.

LISTE DES AUTORITÉS RECONNUES COMPÉTENTES POUR DÉLIVRER
LES CARTES DE LÉGITIMATION (ARTICLE 10, ALINÉA 8).

ALLEMAGNE.

Dans le document C.563.M.224.1930.II, au bas de la page 15, sous le titre « *Anhalt* », les quatre premiers sous-titres sont à annuler et à remplacer par le texte suivant:

L'Administration de police de:

Anhalt.

Dessau
Köthen
Jessnitz

Raguhn
Wörlitz
Oranienbaum

Gröbzig
Radegast

La Direction de cercle de (Kreisdirektion):

Dessau-Köthen à Dessau.

¹ A ajouter à la liste « B », page 4 du document C.913.M.479.1931.II.B.

I.

GOVERNMENTAL MEASURES PROVIDED FOR BY ARTICLE 10, PARAGRAPH 2, RELATING TO THE IDENTITY CARD FOR COMMERCIAL TRAVELLERS.

I. SUPPLEMENTARY LIST OF STATES WHICH DO NOT REQUIRE THE PRODUCTION OF THE IDENTITY CARD.¹

Brazil
British Colonies

Greece
Persia

2. SUMMARY OF COMMUNICATIONS FROM GOVERNMENTS CONCERNING THE IDENTITY CARD.

BRAZIL.

Travellers entering with their collection of samples are not required to produce an identity card in order to enjoy the benefit of temporary exemption from Customs duties.

BRITISH COLONIES.

Foreign travellers entering any British Colony with their collection of samples may obtain the privilege of temporary exemption from Customs duties without the production of an identity card.

GREECE.

According to Greek law, it is not necessary to produce an identity card in order to obtain Customs facilities with regard to samples and models.

PERSIA.

Manufacturers, merchants or commercial travellers are not required to produce an identity card on entering Persia.

II.

LIST OF THE AUTHORITIES RECOGNISED AS COMPETENT TO ISSUE IDENTITY CARDS (ARTICLE 10, PARAGRAPH 8).

GERMANY.

In document C.563.M.224.1930.II, at the bottom of page 15, under the heading "*Anhalt*", the first four sub-titles should be cancelled, and replaced by the following text:

Anhalt:

The Police authorities of:

Dessau
Köthen
Jessnitz

Raguhn
Wörlitz
Oranienbaum

Gröbzig
Radegast

The District authorities of:

Dessau-Köthen to Dessau.

¹ To be added to list B, page 4 of document C.913.M.479.1931.II.B.

III.

LISTE DES ORGANISMES HABILITÉS POUR LA DÉLIVRANCE
DES CERTIFICATS D'ORIGINE (ARTICLE II, N° 2).

CHINE

Province	Port	Bureau
Kiang Sou	Nankin	Direction des Douanes
Kiang Sou	Tchin-Kiang	Direction des Douanes
Kiang Sou	Sou Tchéou	Direction des Douanes
Kiang Sou	Chang-Haï	Bureau d'inspection et de contrôle des marchandises
Tché-Kiang	Hang-Tchéou	Direction des Douanes
Tché-Kiang	Ning-Po	Annexe du Bureau d'inspection et de contrôle des marchandises à Chang-Haï
Tché-Kiang	Ouen-Tchéou	Direction des Douanes
Ngan-Houei	Wou-Hou	Direction des Douanes
Kiang-Si	Kiou Kiang	Direction des Douanes
Hou-Pé	Hankéou	Bureau d'inspection et de contrôle des marchandises
Hou-Pé	Yi-Tchang	Direction des Douanes
Hou-Pé	Cha-Si	Direction des Douanes
Hou-Nan	Tchang-Cha	Direction des Douanes
Hou-Nan	Yo-Tchéou	Bureau des Douanes
Se-Tchouen	Tchoung King	Direction des Douanes
Se-Tchouen	Ouan-Sien	Annexe du bureau d'inspection et de contrôle des marchandises à Hankéou
Tche-Li	Tien-Tsin	Bureau d'inspection et de contrôle des marchandises
Tche-Li	Tchin Ouang Tao	Direction des Douanes
Chan-Toung	Tche-Fou	Direction des Douanes
Chan-Toung	Oueï Haï Oueï	Bureau des Douanes
Chan-Toung	Tsing Tao	Bureau d'inspection et de contrôle des marchandises
Fou Kien	Fou Tchéou	Direction des Douanes
Fou Kien	Amoy	Direction des Douanes
Fou Kien	San Touao	Bureau des Douanes
Kouang Toung	Canton	Bureau d'inspection et de contrôle des marchandises
Kouang Toung	Keou Loun	Bureau des Douanes
Kouang Toung	Lappa	Bureau des Douanes
Kouang Toung	Kong Moun	Annexe du Bureau d'inspection et de contrôle des marchandises à Canton
Kouang Toung	Sam Chouï	Bureau des Douanes
Kouang Toung	Swatow	Annexe du Bureau d'inspection et de contrôle des marchandises à Canton
Kouang Toung	Pak Hoï	Bureau des Douanes
Kouang Toung	King Tchéou	Direction des Douanes
Kouang Si	Nan-Ning	Direction des Douanes
Kouang Si	Loung Tchéou	Direction des Douanes
Kouang Si	Wou-Tchéou	Annexe du Bureau d'inspection et de contrôle des marchandises à Canton
Yun-Nan	Teng Tchoung	Direction des Douanes
Yun-Nan	Koun Ming	Direction des Douanes
Yun-Nan	Se Mao	Bureau des Douanes
Liaoning	Chen Yang	Direction des Douanes
Liaoning	Niou-Tchouang	Direction des Douanes
Liaoning	An-Toung	Direction des Douanes
Liaoning	Daïren	Bureau des Douanes
Ghirin	Kharbine	Direction des Douanes
Ghirin	Loung-Tching-Tsoun	Direction des Douanes
Haï-Loung-Kiang	Aïgoun	Direction des Douanes
Tsahar	Kalgan	Direction des Douanes
Sing Kiang	Ili	Direction des Douanes

GRANDE-BRETAGNE

A ajouter à la liste des chambres de commerce affiliées à l'Association des chambres de commerce britanniques ¹:

La chambre de commerce de Jersey.

¹ Publiée dans le document C.563.M.224.1930.II, page 18.

III.

LIST OF ORGANISATIONS WHICH HAVE BEEN DESIGNATED FOR THE
PURPOSE OF DELIVERING CERTIFICATES OF ORIGIN (ARTICLE II,
No. 2).

CHINA.

Province	Port	Office
Kiangsu	Nanking	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Kiangsu	Chinkiang	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Kiangsu	Soochow	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Kiangsu	Shanghai	Bureau of Inspection and Testing of Commercial Commodities
Chekiang	Hangchow	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Chekiang	Ningpo	Branch Office of Shanghai Bureau of Inspection and Testing of Commercial Commodities
Chekiang	Wenchow	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Anhwei	Wuhu	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Kiangsi	Kiukiang	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Hupeh	Hankow	Bureau of Inspection and Testing of Commercial Commodities
Hupeh	Ichang	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Hupeh	Shasi	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Hunan	Changsha	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Hunan	Yochow	The Custom House
Szechwan	Chungking	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Szechwan	Wanhsien	Branch Office of Hankow Bureau of Inspection and Testing of Commercial Commodities
Hopeh	Tientsin	Bureau of Inspection and Testing of Commercial Commodities
Hopeh	Chinwangtao	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Shantung	Chefoo	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Shantung	Weihaiwei	The Custom House
Shantung	Tsingtao	Bureau of Inspection and Testing of Commercial Commodities
Fukien	Foochow	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Fukien	Amoy	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Fukien	Santuaio	The Custom House
Kwangtung	Canton	Bureau of Inspection and Testing of Commercial Commodities
Kwangtung	Kowloon	The Custom House
Kwangtung	Lappa	The Custom House
Kwangtung	Kongmoon	Branch Office of Canton Bureau of Inspection and Testing of Commercial Commodities
Kwangtung	Samshui	The Custom House
Kwangtung	Swatow	Branch Office of Canton Bureau of Inspection and Testing of Commercial Commodities
Kwangtung	Pakhoi	The Custom House
Kwangtung	Kingchow	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Kwangsi	Nanning	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Kwangsi	Lungchow	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Kwangsi	Wuchow	Branch Office of Canton Bureau of Inspection and Testing of Commercial Commodities
Yunnan	Tengchung	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Yunnan	Kunming	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Yunnan	Szemaio	The Custom House
Liaoning	Shenyang	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Liaoning	Newchwang	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Liaoning	Antung	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Liaoning	Dairen	The Custom House
Kirin	Harbin	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Kirin	Lungchingsun	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Heilungkiang	Aigun	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Tsahar	Kalgan	Office of the Superintendent of Customs
Singkiang	Ili	Office of the Superintendent of Customs

GREAT BRITAIN.

To be added to the list of Chambers of Commerce affiliated to the Association of British Chambers of Commerce: ¹

The Chamber of Commerce of Jersey.

¹ Published in document C.563.M.224.1930.II, page 18.

POLOGNE

I. Les chambres de commerce et d'industrie à Varsovie, Bydgoszcz, Bielsk, Gdynia, Cracovie, Lublin, Leopol, Łódź, Poznań, Sosnowiec, la chambre de commerce à Katowice et la chambre de commerce à Dantzig (pour le territoire de la Ville libre de Dantzig).

II. Les offices de voïvodie à Varsovie, Białystok, Katowice, Cracovie, Lublin, Łódź, Luck, Nowogródek, Poznań, Stanisławów, Tarnopol, Rowne et Vilno.

III. Les offices douaniers de première classe pour les marchandises produites sur le territoire douanier polonais et exportées en pays qui, conformément aux traités conclus avec la Pologne, n'exigent que le visa consulaire (*Monitor Polski* en date du 22 juin 1931, N° 141, texte 215).

IV. Le Commissaire général de la République polonaise à Dantzig.

POLAND.

I. The Chambers of Commerce and Industry of Warsaw, Bydgoszcz, Bielsk, Gdynia, Cracow, Lublin, Lemberg, Łódź, Poznań, Sosnowiec, the Katowice Chamber of Commerce and the Danzig Chamber of Commerce (for the territory of the Free City of Danzig).

II. The offices of the Voivodeships of Warsaw, Białystok, Katowice, Cracow, Lublin, Łódź, Luck, Nowogródek, Poznań, Stanisławów, Tarnopol, Rowne and Vilna.

III. First-class Customs offices for merchandise produced on Polish Customs territory and exported to countries which, in accordance with treaties concluded with Poland, require only the Consular visa (*Monitor Polski*, June 22nd, 1931, No. 141, text 215).

IV. The Commissioner-General of the Polish Republic at Danzig.

Geneva, October 11th, 1932.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

**DRAFT CONVENTION FOR FACILITATING THE INTERNATIONAL
CIRCULATION OF FILMS OF AN EDUCATIONAL CHARACTER**

REPORT SUBMITTED BY THE SECOND COMMITTEE TO THE ASSEMBLY

Rapporteur : Professor V. V. PELLA (Roumania).

The Second Committee appointed a Sub-Committee to make a preliminary examination of the draft Protocol for facilitating the international circulation of films of an educational character (document A.9.1932.XII).

This Sub-Committee, composed of M. R. HOLSTI (Finland), Sir William MALKIN (United Kingdom), M. M. PILOTTI (Italy), M. V. V. PELLA (Roumania), M. K. STODOLA (Czechoslovakia) and M. G. BONNET (France) (Chairman), submitted to the Second Committee a revised draft Convention, the text of which, together with the accompanying explanations and remarks, is appended to the present report.

In the course of the discussion in the Second Committee, numerous delegations signified their approval of the main lines of this draft; some of them held that the draft as revised is calculated to facilitate the acceptance of the Convention.

It was also pointed out that the Convention would have the effect of encouraging the production and circulation of educational films which, by reason of their character, might contribute to mutual understanding among the peoples in the spirit of the League of Nations.

Other delegations urged the necessity of reaching an international agreement as speedily as possible.

In view, however, of the considerable changes made by the Sub-Committee in the draft placed on the Assembly's agenda, regarding which most of the delegations were not able to obtain instructions from their Governments, the Second Committee thought it better not to engage, for the time being, in an exhaustive discussion on the revised draft, which unanimously asserting the urgent necessity of reaching an international agreement on the subject. The Committee therefore thought it proper to recommend to the Assembly a resolution whereby the Assembly requests the Council of the League to convene a meeting at whatever date may seem most suitable in the near future.

The Governments would thus have an opportunity of examining the new draft and noting the changes in it as compared with the previous draft. Their delegates would then be able to hold a useful discussion on the substance of the question, which hitherto they had not been able to do. This procedure would also allow the International Cinematographic Institute to draw up the regulations referred to in Article X of the draft.

In these circumstances, I have the honour, on behalf of the Second Committee, to move the following resolution :

" The Assembly,

" Notes with satisfaction the result of the work accomplished by the Special Committee which it had appointed to examine the draft Convention for facilitating the international circulation of films of an educational character ;

" Is of opinion that the changes proposed by the Special Committee are calculated to facilitate the accession of several of the States to this Convention, which, in its broad outline, has received the approval of numerous delegations, but considers that these changes call for a fresh examination on the part of the Governments concerned ;

" And, having regard to the importance that attaches to a speedy settlement of the question, requests the Council to convene a meeting of Government delegates at whatever time it considers most suitable, but if possible at the time of the forthcoming extraordinary session of the Assembly, provided always that all the Governments have been able to examine the new draft Convention. At this meeting, the delegates, being in possession of full powers, would be called upon to decide whether the proposed Convention, with or without amendment, is to be opened for signature by any Member of the League or any State non-member. In the meantime, the Governments concerned might send their observations to the Secretary-General."

Appendix.

REPORT OF THE SUB-COMMITTEE APPOINTED TO EXAMINE THE DRAFT
PROTOCOL FOR FACILITATING THE INTERNATIONAL CIRCULATION OF
FILMS OF AN EDUCATIONAL CHARACTER.

Submitted by M. Georges BONNET (France) and M. V. PELLA (Roumania).

The Sub-Committee appointed by the Second Committee to make a preliminary examination of the draft Protocol for facilitating the International Circulation of Films of an Educational Character completed its task, under the Chairmanship of M. Georges Bonnet (France), in the course of three meetings, at which it heard representatives of the Belgian, German, Hungarian and Polish delegations. The Sub-Committee also enjoyed the very valuable assistance of M. de Feo, the Director of the Rome Institute.

After examining the various observations, amendments and proposals submitted to it by the Belgian, British, French, Hungarian, Italian, Czechoslovak and Polish delegations, the Sub-Committee agreed to submit to the Second Committee, as a basis for discussion, the attached draft Convention, accompanied by a number of remarks.

CONVENTION FOR FACILITATING THE INTERNATIONAL CIRCULATION OF FILMS OF AN
EDUCATIONAL CHARACTER.

[List of Heads of States]

.....
Believing that educational films contribute towards the mutual understanding of peoples, in conformity with the object of the League of Nations, and consequently encourage moral disarmament ;

Convinced that it is highly desirable to facilitate the international circulation of such films, which constitute specially effective means of ensuring physical, intellectual and moral progress ;

Noting that educational films are insufficiently known and that their international diffusion is too limited ;

Considering that Customs duties constitute a serious obstacle to the circulation of these films and that States do not obtain any great financial advantage as a compensation for this disadvantage :

Have appointed as their Plenipotentiaries the following :

[List of Plenopotentiaris.]

.....
Who, having communicated their full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed on the following provisions :

Article I.

For the purposes of the present Convention, there shall be regarded as films which may be of an international educational character, in general, films based on didactic principles, that is to say :

(a) Films designed to supply information with regard to the League of Nations and other international organisations of States which are officially recognised by the High Contracting Parties ;

(b) Films prepared for use in education of all grades ;

(c) Films intended for occupational training and guidance and films for the scientific organisation of work ;

(d) Films dealing with scientific or technical research or designed to spread scientific knowledge ;

(e) Films dealing with health questions, physical training, social welfare and relief.

Article II (old Article V).

The High Contracting Parties undertake to accord, within six months from the coming into force of the present Convention, exemption from all Customs duties and accessory charges of any kind, except statistical fees and stamp duties, in respect of the import, transit and export of films of an international educational character produced by concerns or institutions established in the territory of one of the High Contracting Parties.

They agree that the provisions of the preceding paragraph apply to educational films in either of the following forms :

- (a) Negatives, printed and developed ;
- (b) Positives, printed and developed.

In the case of sound or talking films, the benefits of the present Convention shall also be accorded to all forms of sound reproduction such as records and acoustic films.

The High Contracting Parties further undertake not to subject the films referred to in the first paragraph of this article to internal taxes (in connection with sale or circulation or of any other kind) other or higher than those to which educational films produced in the country concerned are subject.

Article III (old Article VI).

Every film for which exemption from Customs duties is to be claimed in accordance with the present Convention shall be submitted to the International Educational Cinematographic Institute for examination, and the Institute, if satisfied that the film is of an international educational character within the meaning of Article I, shall issue a certificate to that effect in the form shown in the Annex to the present Convention. On presentation of such certificate the necessary facilities for the submission of the film to the national authority competent to grant exemption from Customs duties shall be accorded by the customs and other departments concerned of the country into which it is desired to import the film.

The decision of the competent national authorities as to whether a film is to be regarded as entitled to exemption from Customs duties in accordance with the present Convention shall be final, subject to the provisions of the following article. The said authorities will notify the International Educational Cinematographic Institute of their decision.

Article IV (old Article VII).

1. If the authorities of the importing country refuse to grant exemption from Customs duties to a film because they do not admit its international educational character, the Government of the country where the concern or institution which has produced the film is established may, if it considers that it has an interest in the circulation of the film on national cultural grounds, make friendly representations to the Government of the importing country, and the two Governments shall consult together on the question.

2. The point to be determined shall be solely whether the film falls within one of the categories in Article I.

3. If no agreement is reached between the two Governments, the question shall be referred to two experts, one chosen by the International Educational Cinematographic Institute and the other chosen by the Government of the importing country, but having no official connection with that Government. If the two experts are agreed, their decision shall be accepted by the two Governments.

4. It is understood that the foregoing procedure shall not apply when the refusal of the competent authorities of the importing country to exempt the film is based on the ground that it is not in accordance with the educational ideas or methods of the country, or on other grounds of public interest.

Article V (old Article IV).

The International Educational Cinematographic Institute shall prepare as soon as possible and periodically publish a catalogue of the films to which it has issued a certificate in accordance with Article III. The catalogue shall also state the decisions taken by the competent authorities of the countries into which importation has been sought. This catalogue, to be published in the five official languages of the Institute (English, French, German, Italian and Spanish), shall reproduce in respect of each film the information contained in the certificates. It shall be communicated to the High Contracting Parties. The said Parties undertake to encourage, by such means as appear to them to be the most effective, the circulation of the catalogue published by the Institute.

Article VI (old Article VIII).

Nothing in the present Convention shall affect the right of the High Contracting Parties to censor films in accordance with their own laws or to adopt measures to prohibit the import and transit of films for reasons of public security or order.

Article VII (old Article IX).

The High Contracting Parties undertake jointly to consider means of granting the privilege of reduced tariffs or free carriage in respect of the transport of the films of an international educational character referred to in Article I.

Article VIII (old Article XII).

Disputes as to the interpretation or application of the present Convention not relating to the decisions of the competent authorities referred to in Article III shall be submitted to the Permanent Court of International Justice.

If the High Contracting Parties between which a dispute has arisen, or any one of them, were not parties to the Protocol dated December 16th, 1920, relating to the Permanent Court of International Justice, the dispute shall, if they so desire, be submitted, in accordance with the constitutional rules of each of them, either to the Permanent Court of International Justice, or to an arbitral tribunal established in conformity with the Convention of October 18th, 1907, for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes, or to any other arbitral tribunal.

Article IX (old Article XIII).

The High Contracting Parties shall communicate to each other and to the International Educational Cinematographic Institute within six months following the coming into force in their territories of the present Convention :

(a) The names of the organisations entitled to grant exemption from Customs duties in accordance with Article III ;

(b) The measures taken to ensure the execution of the provisions of the present Convention.

Article X (old Article XIV).

The Governing Body of the Institute shall draw up regulations concerning the procedure to be followed by it in order to carry out the present Convention and the fees to be charged by it for issuing certificates in accordance with Article III and publishing the catalogue referred to in Article V. These regulations shall be submitted for approval to the Council of the League of Nations.

Article XI (old Article XV).

The present Convention, of which both the French and English texts shall be authentic, may be signed at any time before . . . (six months) on behalf of any Member of the League of Nations or any non-member State.

Article XII (old Article XVI).

The present Convention shall be ratified. The instruments of ratification shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the League of Nations, who will notify the deposit thereof to all the Members of the League of Nations and to the non-member States, including the dates at which such deposit has been effected.

Article XIII (old Article XVII).

On and after . . . any Member of the League of Nations and any non-member State on whose behalf the Convention has not been signed at that date may accede to it.

The instruments of accession shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the League of Nations, who will notify such deposit and the date thereof to all the Members of the League of Nations and to non-member States.

Article XIV (old Article XVIII).

The present Convention shall come into force ninety days after the Secretary-General of the League of Nations has received ratifications or accessions on behalf of at least five Members of the League of Nations or non-member States.

In respect of each Member or non-member State on whose behalf an instrument of ratification or accession is subsequently deposited, the Convention shall come into force ninety days after the date of the deposit of such instrument.

Article XV (old Article XIX).

1. The present Convention may be denounced after the expiration of a period of three years from the date at which it comes into force.

2. The denunciation of the Convention shall be effected by a written notification addressed to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations, who will inform all the Members of the League and the non-member States of each notification and of the date of the receipt thereof.

3. The denunciation shall take effect one year after the receipt of the notification.

Article XVI (old Article XX).

1. Any High Contracting Party may declare, at the time of signature, ratification or accession, that, in accepting the present Convention, he is not assuming any obligation in respect of all or any of his colonies, protectorates or oversea territories or the territories under his suzerainty or mandate; the present Convention shall, in that case, not be applicable to the territories named in such declaration.

2. Any High Contracting Party may subsequently notify the Secretary-General of the League of Nations that he desires the present Convention to apply to all or any of the territories in respect of which the declaration provided for in the preceding paragraph has been made. The Convention shall, in that case, apply to all the territories named in such notification ninety days after the receipt thereof by the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

3. Any High Contracting Party may, at any time after the expiration of the period of three years provided for in Article XV, declare that he desires the present Protocol to cease to apply to all or any of his colonies, protectorates or oversea territories or the territories under his suzerainty or mandate. The Convention shall, in that case, cease to apply to the territories named in such declaration six months after the receipt thereof by the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

4. The Secretary-General of the League of Nations shall communicate to all the Members of the League of Nations and to the non-member States the declarations and notifications received in virtue of the present article, together with the dates of the receipt thereof.

Article XVII (old Article XXI).

The present Convention shall be registered by the Secretary-General of the League of Nations as soon as it comes into force.

IN FAITH WHEREOF the above-mentioned Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Convention.

DONE at Geneva the one thousand nine hundred and thirty-two in a single copy, which shall be preserved in the archives of the Secretariat of the League of Nations and of which a certified true copy shall be delivered to all the Members of the League and to non-member States.

Annex.

The certificate provided for in Article I shall be drawn up in the following form :

FORM OF CERTIFICATE.

Name of office issuing certificate for the international circulation of films of an educational character.

Title of film.

.....

Format of film

Base { inflammable.
non-inflammable.

Country of origin

Length { with captions
without captions

Photographic part, length

Part consisting of animated cartoons, length.....

Number of parts

Name of author.....

Name of producer or publisher

Name of technical or scientific director

Captions in (name of language)

The film is a { silent
sound { spoken captions
film with musical accompaniment

The synchronisation is { gramophonic (number of records ...)
photo-acoustic

Description of subject.

.....
.....

Remarks.

General execution (perfect — very good — good — fair).

The film is of a popular — strictly technical — strictly scientific — general educational — character.

[Seal.]

* * *

OPTIONAL PROTOCOL.

The High Contracting Parties undertake to consider favourably applications for the occasional and temporary admission, free of Customs duties, of films intended for societies concerned with education, relief, social welfare or physical training, if the said societies are composed of nationals of the country producing the film.

The above advantages will only be granted in the case of films exhibited for non-commercial purposes and destined exclusively for the use of the societies concerned.

The High Contracting Parties also undertake to examine the possibility of granting specially favourable treatment — e.g., fiscal facilities — in the case of recreational or spectacular films of an educational character, duly attested by the national organisations, even if they are exhibited in public.

(Here follow the usual formal clauses.)

REMARKS.

Ad Article I.

In the first paragraph of this article, the Sub-Committee has introduced a new specification of the characteristics to be presented by the films which are to benefit by the regime established by the Convention, stipulating that, independently of their international educational character, such films must be based on didactic principles. The Sub-Committee felt that, since the films covered by the Convention were intended for instructional or educational purposes, it was necessary to ensure that they should be based on principles in conformity with those purposes.

Certain delegations wished it to be specified in the text that advertisement films and films the sole object of which is to amuse should be excluded. The Sub-Committee was of the opinion that, in view of the wording adopted for Article I, it was unnecessary, and would indeed be dangerous, to enumerate certain classes of film which should be excluded from the benefits of the Convention.

It was also proposed that in Article I propaganda films and films offending religious sentiments should be explicitly excluded. The Sub-Committee felt that the wording of Article I in itself excluded such films; moreover, an express provision of the Convention empowers the contracting parties to censor films and even to prohibit the importation of a film for reasons of public safety or order.

Ad Article II (former Article V).

1. This article, which is based on the text of Article V of the draft Protocol, has been inserted as Article II, because the Sub-Committee considered that that was its logical place.

2. An exception to the exemption from duty has been made in the case of stamp duty. It was pointed out that the great majority of countries levy a duty, though a very small one, in the form of stamp duty on the Customs document granting free entry. It would have been impossible to secure such exemption without upsetting accepted practices.

One delegation asked that it should be explicitly understood that the films covered by the Convention should not be exempted from the "transmission tax" — or, in other words, that the latter should not be regarded as an accessory charge. The Sub-Committee considered that the fact that a charge was levied at the time of the importation of certain goods did not in itself, independently of the object of such charge, suffice to make it an accessory charge, and that, in view of the diversity of the Customs laws and regulations of different countries, it seemed difficult, and in any case dangerous, to give any definition of accessory charges; but that, in practice, difficulties seem unlikely to arise in the interpretation of the text. In any case, if disputes did occur, suitable means of settlement were provided in one of the articles of the Convention.

3. The French delegation proposed that the first paragraph of Article II be amended as follows: strike out the words "except statistical fees and stamp duties" and substitute the words: "except such charges as are made in all cases on the importation of goods, even when the latter are exempt from Customs duty, and irrespective of their origin or nature, as, for example, statistical fees".

The Sub-Committee thought it preferable to leave the decision on this proposal to the Second Committee.

4. The Czechoslovak delegation had asked for the insertion in Article II of a provision to the effect that the benefits of the Convention would be granted solely to films which were technically perfect. In this connection it pointed out that, even at the present time, Czechoslovak films were exempted from *internal* charges only when they fulfilled that condition. The Sub-Committee considered, however, that the insertion of such a provision was unnecessary, since, as regards internal charges, it was stipulated in the last paragraph of the article that films covered by the Convention should be subject to the same treatment as national films.

As regards Customs duties, it had seemed difficult to make exemption conditional upon the film being "technically perfect". Certain of the films covered by Article I were very often not technically "perfect", but this did not interfere with their utility, from a scientific standpoint, for instance. Moreover, in the certificate issued by the Rome Institute, an opinion would be expressed as to the general execution of the films to which the certificate referred.

5. The change made in the third paragraph of this article was designed to meet the misgivings of a delegation which feared that exemption would have had to be granted to all the accessories accompanying the film on importation. The Committee accordingly endeavoured to find an expression which would make it quite clear that in the case of sound films the benefits of the Convention should be granted solely to the instruments used for reproducing the sound.

6. The French delegation proposed to add to Article II a last paragraph reading as follows: "Films entitled to benefit by the exemption provided for in Article II should be shown only at free educational, school or post-school performances in educational establishments".

The Sub-Committee rejected this amendment, which would have fundamentally changed the basis of the Convention.

Ad Article III (former Article VI).

This article was proposed by the British delegation. From the explanations given by it in reply to the question raised on the matter, it appears that by "facilities for submitting the film to the competent authorities of any country" are meant that, after the certificate has been issued by the Institute, the film will immediately, while still under Customs supervision, be submitted to the competent authorities for them to decide as to its international educational character; the collection of Customs duties will be suspended until those authorities have given their decision.

Ad Article IV (former Article VII).

It will be noted that, by the insertion of the new Articles III and IV, the general structure of the Convention has been modified. In the draft submitted by the Sub-Committee, application is no longer to be made to national organs for the issue of certificates testifying to the international educational character of the films. In the Sub-Committee's draft, such certificates are to be issued exclusively by the International Educational Cinematographic Institute. However, the contracting parties reserve the right to refuse admission to films submitted to them for import accompanied by such certificates. They are obliged to notify the Institute of their decision. A procedure is provided for cases in which the exporting country considers that it is entitled to require that the advantages of the Convention shall be granted to a film which has been excluded by decision of the importing country.

The last paragraph of Article IV expressly stipulates that the importing country's refusal will be final when it is based on the fact that the film is not in keeping with the educational ideas and methods of the country or on other reasons of public interest.

One delegation asked that the importing country should be allowed to refuse to grant the benefit of the Convention to a film covering the same ground as a home-produced film, or when the number of films admitted duty-free from a given exporting country was more than twice the number of films produced in the importing country which were admitted duty-free by the exporting country.

The Sub-Committee decided that it would not be advisable to modify the draft on these lines, since this amendment was of a nature to change completely the basis of the Convention. The latter deliberately neglected all economic and protectionist considerations.

The Sub-Committee considered that it was not competent to take a decision on this point, which would be pronounced upon by the Second Committee.

These new provisions taken as a whole were the results of a compromise between the proposals made to the Committee by the Italian and French delegations on the one hand, and the British delegation on the other.

Ad Article V (former Article IV).

The Sub-Committee's draft lays down that the catalogue mentioned in this article shall not only contain a list of the films for which a certificate has been delivered by the Institute, but must also mention the affirmative or negative decisions of the countries of importation to which application has been made for the Customs-free admission of the films covered by these certificates. The Committee considered that it would be useful for film producers and for the public in general to be acquainted with the decisions taken in respect of the catalogued films in the different countries.

The Polish delegation asked that the catalogue should be prepared in six languages, the sixth being one of the Slav languages of countries Members of the League of Nations. In this connection the Director of the Rome Institute recalled that the latter, according to its constitution, was obliged to publish all its documents in the five languages enumerated in Article V. He pointed out, however, that the Institute would be prepared to arrange for the publication of the catalogue in another language on condition that the supplementary expense involved should be reimbursed to the Institute. This is a question of internal procedure to be settled by the competent authorities of the Institute.

Ad Article X (former Article XIV).

Article X contains new provisions which are the logical result of the modifications introduced into the draft.

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Geneva, February 16th, 1933.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

**RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE
RELATING TO TARIFF POLICY
AND THE MOST-FAVOURED-NATION CLAUSE**

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A. NOTE BY THE SECRETARIAT

The Economic Committee's recommendations regarding tariff policy and the most-favoured-nation clause are embodied in various League documents.¹ As some of these are out of print, the Secretariat has thought it desirable to collect the Committee's reports in a single volume, so that they can be more easily consulted. This will be particularly useful, because the annotated agenda drawn up by the Preparatory Commission of Experts for the Monetary and Economic Conference refers to the Committee's recommendations on the subject.

No change has been made in the Committee's original texts, apart from a few slight and purely formal alterations for the purpose of adjusting or linking up the results of successive and complementary enquiries conducted by the Committee on the same subjects.

¹ Document C.666.M.224.1927.II.
 " C.357.M.111.1928.II.
 " C.20.M.14.1929.II.
 " C.155.M.61.1929.II.
 " C.138.M.53.1929.II.
 " C.427.M.177.1931.II.B.

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B. RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE

I. PREAMBLE.

On June 16th, 1927, the Economic Committee was instructed by the Council to examine the resolutions of the International Economic Conference of May 1927 with regard to Customs tariffs and commercial treaties. This instruction was subsequently confirmed by the Assembly, which, on September 24th, 1927, adopted the following resolution :

“ The Assembly :

“ Desires that the Economic Organisation of the League should take these recommendations as the basis of its work ;

“ Trusts, in particular, that the recommendations of the Conference relating to tariffs and commercial policy will be put into effect, not only by national action and bilateral agreements, but also, whenever practicable, by collective conventions reached by means of international conferences of accredited representatives with the aim of gradually evolving among the trading nations of the world, and particularly among those of Europe, common lines of policy beneficial to all and not subject to the uncertainties of purely bilateral bargaining, careful attention being given to the special conditions existing at any moment and to the necessity for realising this policy by stages and without undue disturbance ;

“ Expects the Council of the League of Nations and the Economic Organisation to devote their untiring efforts to the realisation of this urgent task and hopes that the Governments will give to it their cordial support and active collaboration.”

II. PROGRAMME OF WORK OF THE COMMITTEE.

In pursuance of this resolution, the Committee, after preliminary enquiries, which dealt with the tariff systems, the treaty-making methods, and the application of the most-favoured-nation clause in the different countries, first drew up its programme of work, defining the questions it proposed to examine and laying down the procedure it intended to follow in the course of its enquiries.

This programme is explained in the following extract from the report of the Economic Committee on its twenty-third session (document C.666.M.224.1927.II) :

(a) “ Now that the resolutions adopted after full consideration and drafted in vigorous terms by the International Economic Conference last spring have received the almost unanimous approval of the Governments and the cordial assent of the eighth Assembly, and now that in execution of those resolutions the Council has reconstituted in a new form the Economic Organisation of the League of Nations, whose task it will be to carry on the work of the Conference, the Economic Committee feels that its main work must be to carry out the commercial policy advocated by the Conference.

“ In the Committee's view, the outstanding result of the great meeting of May last is the new orientation of commercial policy towards a liberal and equitable regime of trade. True, the Committee did not feel that it could neglect preparation for further discussions on industrial and agricultural questions ; but at the same time it determined to concentrate all its efforts at the outset on bringing about, as promptly and on as large a scale as possible, the reforms in commercial policy which the Conference has held up as the goal of common international effort.

“ These reforms were contemplated by the Conference in three different aspects, those to be effected by the autonomous action of Governments, those to be effected by bilateral conventions between States, and those to be effected by the concerted and simultaneous action of States under the auspices of the League. It would be unfair not to recognise that the autonomous action of Governments has been to some extent influenced by the decisions of the Conference of May 1927. Certain States, which had drawn up tariffs that might have hampered international trade to the point of dislocation, have abated or moderated those tariffs, either on their own initiative or by bilateral conventions of which a particularly striking, though not the only, example is the Franco-German Treaty of Commerce. Some countries have even, as the outcome of the Economic Conference, postponed the contemplated re-casting of their tariffs. Even before the Diplomatic Conference for the Abolition of Trade Prohibitions and Restrictions, several Governments had of their own free will withdrawn prohibitions that had been in force since the war.

“ Important and encouraging as they are, however, these demonstrations would not in themselves suffice to convince the world of the need for a new policy of co-ordinated action. Moreover, the Economic Committee does not see how it could influence the autonomous action of Governments except by repeated affirmation of a liberal policy of which it feels itself to be the chosen advocate.

“ On the other hand, as regards Governmental action in the form of bilateral and multilateral agreements, the Committee considered that its investigations and proposals should be aimed at diverting such action definitely into the channel indicated by the Conference.

“ There is one fact which the world does not seem to have fully realised—that for many years past bilateral agreements have been powerless to arrest the progress of protectionism. In certain cases, indeed, the treaty-making methods that have been employed since the war have seemed to encourage this tendency; the exaggerated margin between autonomous tariffs and the tariffs which States contemplate introducing as the ultimate outcome of their negotiations, the deliberately restrictive rates in the minimum tariffs established by certain countries have produced pernicious results in this respect, and the more so because the general tariffs were put into operation before any negotiations whatever had taken place and their severity was sometimes further aggravated by *de facto* or *de jure* discriminations.

“ The Committee realised the urgent necessity of reserving this tendency and looking upon commercial agreements, not as a method of imposing excessive duties, but as a means of preventing any increase in them, or, better still, securing their reduction by treaty.

“ The Committee accordingly decided to attempt to devise treaty-making methods by which a general reduction of tariffs could gradually be effected and their stability ensured, and which would encourage the conclusion of bilateral conventions affording the contracting States equal commercial opportunities and establishing their trade on a footing that would make it impossible to dig pitfalls for other countries.

“ The Committee has conducted this technical investigation in the conviction that the adoption of the solutions to which it will lead may very greatly improve the position of international trade and become a determining factor in the pacification of international commercial relations. At the same time, the Committee feels strongly that these technical results cannot produce their full effect unless the Governments realise their true significance and endeavour to avoid jeopardising their efficacy in advance.

“ The Committee therefore desires to point out that, until an international understanding has been reached in regard to treaty-making methods (which it is to be hoped will occur in the near future) it is essential that Governments should, both in concluding their agreements and in drawing up their tariffs, be guided by the principles expressed in the resolutions of the International Economic Conference and in the proposals of the Economic Committee for reaching such an understanding.

* * *

(b) “ With this intention the Committee, in compliance with a particularly explicit recommendation of the Conference, has undertaken to codify most-favoured-nation treatment, which should be either the central principle or the normal outcome of every commercial negotiation. Within a few months the Committee will be ready to furnish particulars, which might serve as a basis for international engagements, with regard to its mechanism, its scope, and its bearing on multilateral conventions. The Committee has also included in its programme the examination of those general, special and geographical exceptions of which the introduction seems desirable on account of established international practice or the peculiar circumstances of certain States.

“ The Committee is convinced that well-considered action in the matter of commercial conventions based on the most-favoured-nation clause must speedily bring about the re-establishment of regular currents of trade, which will no longer have to contend with a policy of protectionism and isolation.

* * *

(c) “ Confident that the forces brought into operation by the bilateral action of contracting States must lead—at all events if directed into the channels described above—to one of the main objectives of the Economic Conference, the Committee does not wish to delay its work on the reduction of tariffs by multilateral agreements, and it realises that collective tariff reductions introduced by such agreements raise a number of questions, some of considerable difficulty. The legal question of the influence of multilateral agreements on bilateral conventions, which arises in all matters of economic policy, here takes a particularly acute form.

“ None the less, the Committee does not see its way to await the further development of extremely difficult and complicated investigations before considering how far it would be possible to bring into operation at once that collective action to which States could resort in order to bring about a simultaneous and concerted reduction of such tariff barriers as may seem excessive.

“ Certain countries feel that the efforts made by the recent Conference for the Abolition of Prohibitions and Restrictions to re-establish freedom of trade demand that States benefiting by the return to a liberal regime in regard to raw materials or semi-manufactured goods should take corresponding action to reduce their duties on the finished product.

“ In this and in certain other no less interesting aspects, it seems already possible to study the problem of collective tariff reduction.”

* * *

The Committee carried out the first two parts of this programme in 1929—namely, the study of tariff systems and treaty-making methods, and its enquiry with regard to most-favoured-nation treatment, including the drafting of the clause, its interpretation and its application, and the relations between bilateral agreements based on the clause and plurilateral economic conventions.

The Committee agreed on a common doctrine in regard to all these matters which form the subject of three separated reports submitted to the Council in June 1928, in January and April 1929. (Documents C.357.M.111.1928.II; C.20.M.14.1929.II, and C.155.M.61.1929.II.)

In the autumn of 1930, in consequence of a resolution of the eleventh Assembly, and guided by the debates that had led up to it, the Economic Committee resumed its study of the most-favoured-nation clause, devoting its attention this time to certain controversial questions concerning the application of the principle of the clause. In this work it was assisted by experts appointed, in accordance with the Assembly's recommendation, by the countries specially concerned.¹ It considered the compatibility of Customs quotas and anti-dumping and countervailing duties with the most-favoured-nation clause, the interpretation of the expression like products for the purposes of the application of the clause, and, lastly, the question of the nationality of goods.

In consequence of this study, the Committee established certain principles relating to Customs quotas and elucidated the principles previously laid down in regard to like products and the nationality of goods. In the matter of anti-dumping and countervailing duties, the Committee decided not to state its opinion until it had completed its enquiry into dumping, which is still in progress.

The results of these latter investigations of the Committee are embodied in the report to the Council on its thirty-fifth session (document C.427.M.177.1931.II.B). It should be observed that the Committee took care to emphasise in the report that "it had no intention of interpreting a particular formula of the most-favoured-nation clause, since this clause occurs in different forms, but that it had endeavoured to define the general principles of most-favoured-nation treatment".

The Committee further requested the Council to authorise the despatch of its report to the Governments, "recommending them to bring their commercial policies as far as possible into line with the principles laid down therein and to communicate to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations any observations they may wish to make with regard to the said proposals".

The text below, based on the material already mentioned, represents the view at which the Committee has arrived on the subject of commercial policy and the most-favoured-nation clause. With regard to the latter, it has been thought advisable to amalgamate the conclusions of the Committee's earlier and later investigations, so as to provide a complete and up-to-date commentary on this important question.

III. DOCTRINE OF THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE.

1. Tariff Systems and Contractual Methods.

"The study of existing tariff systems and their respective merits has revealed a uniformity of tendencies within the Committee, which has been obliged to recognise that, for the moment, it is practically impossible to put an end to the disparity of systems prevailing in this matter.

"On the one hand, the Committee unanimously recognised that it is no longer possible to proceed to establish or to re-cast national tariffs without taking account of the repercussions that the rates or conditions of these tariffs may exercise on international trade, and that the various States, however anxious they may be to adapt their tariffs, in an autonomous fashion, to their financial or economic needs, cannot, however, establish them without taking account of the obstacles to trade in general which may result from them. But while some of its members considered that the procedure for this purpose ought to be that of negotiations resulting in an exchange of tariff guarantees, the opposite opinion has been expressed that tariff treaties were incompatible with the ideas and the practice of certain States which claim the right to legislate at their will in these matters on condition that they apply their tariff laws without discrimination in any way to the detriment of any country.

"In short, the Committee, in its study of this question, and other aspects of commercial policy, has found itself faced with the conflict of the two conceptions and the two methods which co-exist in Europe, of which the one, that of Central Europe, is that of negotiable tariffs reducible by agreement, and the other, which is that chiefly of the Anglo-Saxon countries, regards tariffs as measures of internal order which are not susceptible of adaptation by agreement.

"It is in favour of the first system that the two Rapporteurs on Contractual Methods have deliberately pronounced themselves, in putting on the same footing autonomous tariffs reducible by agreement and double-column tariffs on condition, however, that their minimum rates are susceptible of contractual adaptation. They declare, moreover, that, as concerted action by States in tariff matters is necessary in order that tariffs may be modified or stabilised

¹ Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Denmark, the Netherlands, and Norway.

by agreement, the system of ' intangible ' tariffs is contrary to the common action which was recommended by the Economic Conference of 1927.

" The two Rapporteurs, having declared themselves in favour of the systems which can alone in principle make it possible for States to negotiate regarding the amount of and to seek the reduction and conventional consolidation of Customs duties, proposed in addition :

" (a) That States should refrain from putting into force tariffs included in this system before having proceeded to negotiations in virtue of which they might be brought into harmony with the interests of other countries ;

" (b) That they undertake to revise their tariff rates on the termination of the negotiations in order to proceed with the modifications necessary to harmonise them with the reductions effected by means of the agreements.

" The discussion which has taken place in the Committee has brought out the fact that, although the choice that these two Rapporteurs had made between the tariff methods in force to-day and the guarantees with which they proposed to surround them were in every way consistent with their mandate, there was nevertheless no possibility of getting support for their conclusions from a certain number of countries which practise the doctrine of ' intangible ' tariffs and which, by this fact, exclude both the reduction and the stabilisation of their rates.

" On the whole, the Committee was of the opinion that the doctrine and practice of these countries were not opposed to the resolutions of the Geneva Conference, as long at least as their tariffs were established with the moderation recommended by this Conference and as long as they accordingly offered to other countries advantages which were a matter of congratulation rather than obstacles of which they would have reason to complain.

" The Committee was, however, of opinion that the policy of those States which, having established tariffs intolerable for other countries, refuse to contemplate their reduction through negotiations or otherwise, or impose repeated variations of duty in relation to the trade of other countries, is incompatible with the resolutions of the Geneva Conference and with the commercial policy which it has proclaimed.

" The Committee was therefore of opinion that it need not consider the case of tariffs so equitable that they do not justify any demand for negotiations, but that some assurances should be sought from the countries which take advantage of their Customs autonomy and of their tariff liberty to raise or modify their tariffs when international trade is considered to suffer thereby. For this purpose, without wishing to suggest that those countries which practise the doctrine of tariffs which are ' intangible ' by means of negotiations and which are continuously modifiable by means of autonomous measures should abandon their principles or their course, the Committee was nevertheless of opinion :

" (1) That they [countries referred to above] should be ready to examine the representations of any State which might consider that it was harmed by the measures taken by them ;

" (2) That, so far as they find it possible, they should introduce their tariffs for substantial periods, since they declare that it is impossible for them to fix their tariffs by agreement.

" The Committee next directed its attention to the conditions of application of so-called ' tariffs of negotiation ', — that is to say, autonomous tariffs reducible by agreement or doublecolumn tariffs which do not exclude conventional adaptation.

" In this respect, it was unanimous in recognising :

" (1) That the margin for negotiation which, by reason of peculiar post-war conditions and in consequence of the necessity in which certain States find themselves of opposing their autonomous tariffs to the general tariffs of certain other States, has remained unduly exaggerated should be reduced so far as possible to a more moderate proportion so that, while leaving to commercial negotiations a necessary freedom of movement, it does not cause them to degenerate into an intolerable bargaining at once dangerous for those who practise it and for those against whom it is directed.

" (2) That tariff negotiations should, as a general proposition, precede the application of the tariffs, in order that tariffs increased with a view to negotiation may not encumber international trade before having been moderated by the negotiations.

" (3) That tariffs should be widely consolidated ; that agreements should be concluded for a sufficiently long term, so that those States contracting on the basis of negotiable tariffs do not find themselves suddenly submitted to a regime different from that on which they had concluded their agreements by reason of modifications arising in consequence of the expiration of the denunciation of agreements concluded with third parties.

" (4) That the practice of negotiable tariffs should not exclude the adoption of long-period tariffs and that, when a contractual statute has been established on the basis of a tariff submitted to negotiation before being applied, it is necessary to avoid incessant changes being made in this statute by the variation of the tariff on which it is founded.

" (5) The proposal of the Rapporteurs to require from States an undertaking that tariffs modified by negotiations should be in addition submitted to the modifications necessary to render them a co-ordinated and harmonious whole has not been maintained by the Committee as realisable in practice.

" It has seemed in fact that, the requirements of international trade having been satisfied, the States must remain sole judges of measures which should be dictated only by their national economy.

2. Most-favoured-nation Treatment.

“ It goes without saying that the conclusions arrived at by the Committee as regards the form, the scope and application of the most-favoured-nation clause, as well as of the *de facto* and *de jure* exceptions to which it might be subject, must be carefully co-ordinated with the system it has adopted regarding tariffs and contractual methods.

“(a) GRANTING OF MOST-FAVOURED-NATION TREATMENT.

“ In fact, different conceptions regarding tariffs and contractual methods appear to be generally associated with different ideas regarding m.f.n. treatment. While the States which refuse to negotiate in tariff matters claim m.f.n. treatment as a preliminary condition of any treaty and as a right which is beyond discussion, on the other hand, those States which have conceived their tariffs with a view to negotiation and who attach more value to tariff agreements than to the juridical guarantee constituted by the m.f.n. clause when it is not accompanied by tariff advantages consider the grant of the m.f.n. clause as subordinate to agreement on tariffs.

“ The Committee was of opinion that the Economic Conference of 1927 had not embraced the doctrine which considers equality of treatment as a right above question. It has borne in mind that the resolutions of the Conference declare that each State must judge in what cases and to what extent this fundamental guarantee should be embodied in any particular Treaty. But it has taken care, on the other hand, not to misunderstand that the doctrine clearly affirmed by the Conference was in favour of the reciprocal grant of m.f.n. treatment and in favour of the widest possible extension of its scope and of a liberalism as enlightened as possible in its application.

“ In this matter, as in that of tariff and contractual system, the Committee has inclined towards a compromise of fact rather than to a choice between opposing doctrines. It is convinced that, whereas those States which claim m.f.n. treatment by right before any negotiation nevertheless reserve the power to revise it if they run against prohibition duties or unjust discrimination, the States which regard m.f.n. treatment as the price of a favourable tariff agreement nevertheless admit, in general theory, that this agreement could not be arrived at without the grant of m.f.n. treatment.

“ The Committee has noted, therefore, that unanimity could undoubtedly be reached on a doctrine which declared that the grant of m.f.n. treatment ought to be the normal, and that the refusal of this guarantee or the corresponding establishment of a differential regime ought not to arise unless in the case of States which refuse an equitable tariff policy or have recourse to discriminatory practices.”

“(b) THE MOST-FAVOURED-NATION CLAUSE IN CUSTOMS MATTERS.

“ The International Economic Conference of 1927 expressed itself in favour of the widest possible application of the most-favoured-nation clause, and recommended :

“(a) That the scope and form of the most-favoured-nation clause should be of the widest and most liberal character, and that it should not be weakened or narrowed either by express provisions or by interpretation ;

“(b) The establishment of clearly defined and uniform principles as to the interpretation and scope of the most-favoured-nation clause in regard to Customs duties and other charges.

“ The Economic Consultative Committee, at its first session in May 1928, emphasised the importance of having a precise doctrine concerning the interpretation and application of the unconditional most-favoured-nation clause laid down as early as possible, and then confirmed and accepted by an international agreement.

“ To give effect to these resolutions, it is essential that the main principles, which are already implicit in the conception of most-favoured-nation treatment, should be stated in the clearest possible terms. We should indeed gain little by inducing countries to use a clause of this description as the foundation of their Customs conventions if the interpretation and consequences of the clause were left open to dispute. It is indeed no exaggeration to say that serious difficulties between countries have sometimes arisen from the different forms and constructions which have been given to this very clause.

“ That being so, it is desirable to be very clear as to the scope of this clause in Customs questions, not only so as to arrive at a more exact definition of Customs questions, but also to ascertain what cases in this field are fit subjects for the application of the clause.

“ When the fundamental principles and their field of application have thus been determined, we can proceed to the elaboration of standards for the interpretation and application of the clause, and finally to the drafting of a model clause for the use of Governments in bilateral conventions.

I. *Fundamental Principles.*

“The most-favoured-nation clause implies the right to demand and the obligation to concede all reductions of duties and taxes and all privileges of every kind accorded to the most favoured nation, no matter whether such reductions and privileges are granted autonomously or in virtue of conventions with third parties.

“Regarded in this way, the clause confers a whole body of advantages, the extent of which actually depends on the extent of the concessions granted to other countries, whether autonomously or in virtue of conventions. At the same time, it constitutes a guarantee, in the sense that it provides completely and, so to speak automatically, for full and entire equality of treatment with the country which is most favoured in the matter in question.

“However, in order that the clause may produce these results, it must be understood to mean that a Government which has granted most-favoured-nation treatment is bound to concede to the other contracting party every advantage which has been granted to any third country, immediately and as a matter of right, without the other party being required to give anything by way of compensation. In other words, the clause must be unconditional.

“As is generally known, conditional most-favoured-nation clauses have in some cases been inserted in treaties, while in other cases existing most-favoured-nation clauses have been construed in a conditional sense, with the effect that a reduction of duties granted to a given country in exchange for a given concession may not be accorded to a third country, except in exchange for the like or equivalent concessions. This opinion is based on the conception that a country which has not, in some given respect, made the same concessions as another is not entitled to obtain, in this respect, the same advantages, even if it has made wider concessions in other respects. It cannot, however, be too often repeated that a conditional clause of this kind—in justification of which it is argued that, if it does not grant equality of tariffs, it offers at any rate equality of opportunity—has nothing whatever in common with the sort of clause which the International Economic Conference and the Economic Consultative Committee recommended for the widest possible adoption.

“It is in fact the negation of such a clause, for the very essence of the most-favoured-nation clause lies in its exclusion of every sort of discrimination, whereas the conditional clause constitutes, by its very nature, a method of discrimination; it does not offer any of the advantages of the most-favoured-nation clause proper, which seeks to eliminate economic conflicts, to simplify international trade and to establish it on firmer foundations. Moreover, it is open to the very grave objection of being unfair to countries which have very few, or very low, duties, and which are thus less favourably situated for negotiating than those which possess heavy or numerous duties. The arguments in support of a conditional most-favoured-nation clause tend in reality to favour the maintenance of high tariffs, and place countries which have low tariffs in a position of inferiority; the result must be to create or foster tendencies in direct opposition to the recommendations of the Economic Conference. This does not mean, as will be shown below, that certain exceptions of a general character to the rule of most-favoured-nation treatment cannot be admitted—provided that there are special circumstances to justify them.

“We may therefore conclude that the first fundamental principle, implicit in the conception of most-favoured-nation treatment, is that this treatment must be *unconditional*.

* * *

“Moreover, in order to allow for the free play of competition in international trade and to prevent the reintroduction of discrimination, the clause needs to be, not only unconditional, but also unrestricted; in other words, it must apply to the whole of the tariffs of the contracting countries.

“If the clause is made not to apply to a large number of articles or even to a single article which plays an important part in the trade between two countries, it ceases to provide equality of treatment with any third State and, on the contrary, results in actual discrimination as between the country which is thus excluded from certain advantages in respect of particular goods and the country or countries which receive such advantages.

“Such discrimination may, in a certain sense, be regarded as legitimate, if it has been agreed to by the country which it affects. But this in no way avoids the restrictive effect which such a practice produces, not only on trade between the contracting parties, but also on the normal development of international trade.

“Moreover, the discrimination which is implicit in the restricted clause can manifestly produce no other effect than to afford special protection to internal producers against the competition of certain producing countries, or to grant certain foreign countries a preferential position.

“In either case, such a restriction could only be accepted with reluctance, and consequently an agreement based on the restricted clause could merely be regarded by the contracting party who is the chief sufferer by the restrictions as a lesser evil than the absence of any agreement whatsoever in regulation of trade.

“ No doubt it may sometimes happen that these restrictions affect both parties to the same extent ; but in such a case the agreement based on the granting of limited, though ostensibly equivalent, advantages only constitutes a very imperfect application of the most-favoured-nation treatment.

“ In view of the above considerations, we may conclude that the clause must be, not only unconditional, but also *unrestricted* ; in other words, that it must apply to all the goods which two countries exchange or may exchange with one another.

* * *

“ If the clause fulfils these two fundamental conditions — in other words, if it is unconditional and unrestricted — it assures the best treatment which two countries can possibly grant one another in Customs questions.

“ In other fields, the most-favoured-nation clause, even if unconditional and unrestricted, only represents on the contrary a minimum of the privileges and safeguards which two countries can grant one another ; we would instance as examples : the treatment of nationals permitted to engage in business in a foreign country (the right of establishment), the payment of direct and indirect taxes on the exercise of any commercial activity, the payment of internal taxes on the manufacture, distribution and consumption of goods, and also on navigation (not including coastal traffic).

“ Without going further into these questions, we may observe that it is generally admitted — either in theory or in international practice — that, in regard to the points we have just mentioned, national treatment is as a rule an indispensable condition for the free and productive growth of co-operation between peoples ; in consequence, the most-favoured-nation clause can in such cases only offer an additional safeguard supplementing those already provided by national treatment.

“ On the other hand, it must be admitted that, in regard to certain questions, the treatment provided by the clause is too wide in its scope and that these questions can only be properly regulated on a reciprocal basis. This applies, for example, to double taxation.

“ But in Customs questions, it must be repeated, the clause represents the maximum of advantages and safeguards, and must be recommended as the fundamental stipulation on which international commercial relations should be based — provided always that it fulfils the two above-mentioned pre-requisites, *i.e.*, that it is unconditional and unrestricted.

“ It will be seen that the Economic Conference had sound reasons, in the resolutions quoted at the beginning of this report, for restricting the study of the problem to Customs questions.

II. *Field of Application.*

“ What is to be understood by Customs questions for our present purposes ?

“ According to the general practice in commercial treaties, the term ‘ Customs questions ’ includes the scales of Customs duties and the method of levying them — *i.e.*, import and export duties supercharge co-efficients, where they exist, and subsidiary charges of every sort levied on imports or exports. The term also covers all the rules, formalities and charges inseparable from Customs operations of every description (including, for instance, the regulations for the treatment of passengers’ luggage or commercial travellers’ samples ; the procedure and time limits for appeals to administrative, judicial or arbitral authorities against Customs decisions relating to the application of tariffs).

“ There are, however, two highly controversial questions which it is necessary to consider ; namely, whether the clause applies to import or export prohibitions, and whether it applies to temporary imports and exports, including finishing trade.

(1) *Import and Export Prohibitions.*

“ As regards import and export prohibitions, that question is governed in many treaties by the most-favoured-nation clause, whereas in others prohibitions are regulated by special clauses in which the contracting parties undertake only to enforce them in the recognised exceptional cases (reasons of health, public safety, protection of Government monopolies, etc.) or in cases of extraordinary economic necessity that might arise, with a view to protecting the vital interests of the country.

“ As you are aware, the principle universally recognised prior to the war was that of freedom of trade ; in other words, prohibitions on economic grounds were non-existent. There was therefore no occasion to demand the most-favoured-nation clause in questions of this sort.

“ The war made it necessary to close the markets wholly or in part to a number of articles, indeed in some cases to goods of all kinds. The abnormal economic situation in the period immediately after the peace induced many Governments to make considerable use of

prohibitions. During this period (and in this connection), the application of most-favoured-nation treatment was frequently refused, and any exceptions granted were solely on a basis of strict reciprocity — in most cases in virtue of special so-called countervailing agreements, and within the limits of specified quotas, what might perhaps be called a mixed system was adopted in some countries : in cases where all or most of the prohibitions had already been abolished in trade with a given country, the same concession was extended to other countries who could show that they did not make use of prohibitions themselves and who demanded their abolition in virtue of most-favoured-nation clauses in treaties in force between the parties.

“ As the situation gradually became more normal again, the principle of most-favoured-nation treatment gained ground and was expressly stipulated in a number of treaties, some of which also provided that such concessions should be limited to quotas.

“ One question continued to be a subject of keen debate : whether, in cases where the most-favoured-nation clause was not expressly extended to the import and export system, regarded in the above sense, prohibitions should nevertheless be deemed to come under the clause, as falling within the general boundaries of Customs questions ; or whether, on the contrary, they should be governed by the principle of reciprocity ?

“ It must be admitted that the extent to which a Government is able to concede exceptions in the matter of prohibitions to another country is dependent, not only on the system in force in that country, but also on the relative situation and importance of industry and markets. If the clause is held to apply narrowly in such matters, this might be held to involve an obligation to extend facilities which have been granted to a given country in view of certain conditions peculiar to that country to other countries where the same conditions do not obtain. Such a result would, in a sense, be in conflict with the very principle of equality underlying the clause.

“ Moreover, if a country is to allow all countries admitted to most-favoured-nation treatment the same quota which it feels able to concede to a given country, the prohibitions would in practice cease to have any effect.

“ For these reasons, we should, in principle, conclude that the standard most-favoured-nation clause herein suggested does not, unless otherwise expressly stipulated in commercial treaties, apply to prohibitions. But we must not forget that this solution does not entirely meet the present situation. Although prohibitions have in the main been abolished, some still exist and, as long as this continues to be the case, it would be desirable that the interpretation adopted during and after the war, to the effect that the clause should apply as far as possible to prohibitions, should still be adhered to.

“ Fortunately, the Geneva Convention of November 8th, 1927, has reaffirmed the principle of freedom of trade in regard to imports and exports. When that Convention has come into force, the questions we have just been discussing will have lost much of their practical interest.

“ It may be appropriately pointed out, in this connection, that the Protocol of that Convention contains a declaration to the effect that an equitable allocation of quotas is one of the essential conditions of the equitable treatment of international commerce.

(2) *Customs Quotas. — The Various Classes of Quota. — Ways in which they are applied. — Are they compatible with the Unconditional and Unrestricted Most-favoured-nation Clause ?*

“ When we consider the various cases of Customs quotas established by the general (autonomous) tariffs of certain countries or fixed by bilateral agreements, we are bound to admit that there is no common measure applicable to them all, and that, according to their economic importance and their object, they must be divided into four classes.

“ (a) Certain Customs quotas have no other object than to regulate the traffic in certain goods between neighbouring zones in adjacent countries. This is not frontier traffic in the strict sense, because the range of 10 or 15 kilometres is greatly exceeded ; nor, on the other hand, is it a traffic that concerns the entire territory of the two adjacent States. Still less is it likely to be of any interest to third countries. It is perfectly clear therefore that these quotas have not been established with the object of limiting the possible imports of third countries benefiting by the most-favoured-nation clause, and it would not appear that the question whether they are compatible with the clause can arise.

“ The cases which might be placed in this class are fairly numerous. Some of them seem to bear a very close resemblance to frontier traffic (*e.g.*, the quotas established in the commercial treaty between Austria and Switzerland of January 6th, 1926) ; others are subject to conditions such as to limit the traffic in the goods in question to certain parts of the territory, whereas, if no such conditions existed, the local traffic would probably develop into a much more extensive traffic (*e.g.*, the quota for *mirabelles* and strawberries in the commercial agreement between Belgium and France of February 23rd, 1926).

“(b) Other quotas are designed to limit the importation of a commodity which the importing country does not produce, in order to make it more difficult for that commodity to compete with similar goods manufactured in the importing country. In the case of these quotas, there is no idea of restricting imports of the commodity in question from third countries, seeing that it is a special product of one particular country and is not, generally speaking, produced in any other country.

“We may say, indeed, that since the quota in question has the effect of making it more difficult for the commodity in question to compete with similar goods produced in the importing country or in *other* countries, it may be beneficial to the latter.

“Such is the case of the Customs quota established in the Italo-German Treaty of October 31st, 1925, for maraschino spirit, and in other treaties concluded by Italy in respect of maraschino.

“Seeing that other countries do not produce that liqueur but do supply the importing country with other liqueurs, it seems clear that the quota in question may be more to their advantage than to their detriment, and so the question of the compatibility of the quota with the clause cannot arise.

“(c) From these two classes of quota, which are of very little importance in international trade, and which do not seem likely to give rise to any dispute, we pass to a third class — that of quotas established rather to *regulate* than to limit the importation of a given commodity.

“It may chance that the industry in the importing country is passing through a period of temporary difficulties and might be destroyed or seriously prejudiced by excessive imports.

“On the other hand, it may also chance that the commodity in question is a raw material for another industry in the same country, so that its importation cannot be limited without favouring one industry at the expense of another.

“The result of this situation has been the establishment with the various importing countries — *not* with only one of them — of Customs quotas proportionate to the importing capacities of the different countries and corresponding in their aggregate to the normal aggregate imports.

“Such is the case of the quotas established by Germany for imports of cotton yarns, in the treaties she concluded after the war with various European countries.

“In this case, we have not a single quota established with one particular country and applied to others equally or proportionately on the basis of the most-favoured-nation clause, but several quotas established with the various countries concerned, which, by accepting them, implicitly admit that they answer to their needs.

“If, now, there is a country which is also interested in the importation of the commodity in question but with which no quota has been established, that country will undoubtedly be entitled to demand that the same be done in its case, unless it is content to require, on the basis of the clause, the application of the highest quota or of a proportionate quota, according to whether the system of equal quotas or that of proportionate quotas has been adopted.

“This third class of quota is undoubtedly of importance in international trade; but as such quotas are generally designed to *regulate* rather than to limit imports, and as the various quotas are established in agreement with the principal countries affected, there seems no reason why disputes should arise.

“(d) The case is quite different when a Customs quota is established in a commercial agreement between two countries and is then applied equally or proportionately to other countries in virtue of the clause.

“If, as frequently happens, the quota is established with the country least interested in the exportation of the commodity in question, and if, as is also often the case, the Customs duty on additional quantities is too high, the inevitable result is that the aggregate imports are restricted at the expense of all the exporting countries, except possibly the country with which the quota was originally arranged; and this restriction is prejudicial to the various countries concerned in direct proportion to their exporting capacity.

“Whereas with freedom of importation every country has a right to import enough goods to meet its demand, the quota upsets this situation, and transforms that right into the right to import a fixed quantity of goods (equal quota) or a quantity of goods proportionate to that which each country would be entitled to import (proportionate quota).

“Whereas the most-favoured-nation clause places all countries on the same footing — which is to say, on equal terms in international commercial competition — the quota upsets this situation by applying a common measure to all countries, irrespective of their output and their competitive strength.

“This fourth class includes certain quotas recently established; and it is in connection with these quotas that the question of compatibility with the most-favoured-nation clause arises.

“The quotas we have attempted to divide into a number of main classes according to their object lend themselves to numerous distinctions according to the ways in which they are applied.

“ Quotas can be distinguished according to the period for which they are established ; according to whether they are explicitly or tacitly renewable ; according to the conditions imposed on the importation of the quota quantities ; according to the Customs treatment they receive, and so forth.

“ These details do not alter the legal character of the quotas, and do not seem to have any influence on the question of their compatibility with the clause.

“ On the other hand, they are of great practical importance, because they show that Customs quotas are always a hindrance to trade, varying in its gravity according to the nature of the conditions laid down for the importation of the quota quantities (*e.g.*, the obligation to import through certain specified Customs houses or within a specified time, and the like). Indeed, the conditions are sometimes so difficult to fulfil, especially for certain countries, that there seems some reason to ask whether — quite apart from the fact that they encroach upon the rights conferred by the most-favoured-nation clause — they do not offer the characteristics of an actual indirect protectionism, amounting to an intrinsically unjustifiable discrimination.

“ We shall not therefore dwell upon the methods of application, which, generally speaking, do not seem very important to the solution of the question ; but we do think it necessary to call attention to the difference in the character of Customs quotas according as they are established by a bilateral commercial agreement or by an alteration introduced in the general tariff of a country by an autonomous act.

“ If the quota is established by a bilateral tariff agreement and is subsequently applied to third countries in virtue of the clause, then the question does arise.

“ If, on the other hand, it is established autonomously by an alteration in the tariff, it is open to doubt whether the question does or does not arise, and in what case.

“ If the quota is established as an aggregate, all countries may share in it according to their competitive strength. The condition of equality guaranteed by the clause is not infringed. The aggregate quota may injure the position of all third countries, but it would not constitute a breach of the most-favoured-nation clause.

“ The loss inflicted on exporting countries arises in this case from the limitation of imports which is a feature of the aggregate quota. But if the country which has fixed such a quota had the right to restrict the importation of the goods under consideration, it seems that there can be no question of any breach of the rights of third States.

“ It should, however, be noted that instances of aggregate quotas are extremely rare, on account of the difficulties to which they give rise. For all exporting countries will endeavour to arrive first in the race for importation. Consequently, if at the moment the aggregate quota comes into force there happens to be already at the frontier a quantity of goods — of varying countries of origin — greater than the aggregate quota, the country which has fixed the quota will be obliged to admit the whole quantity (which may be contrary to its own interests), or it will have to establish some allotment among the various exporting countries ; in which case the quota will cease to be an aggregate quota.

“ But if, instead, the quota fixed by an autonomous act is established to allow equal quantities for all countries or quantities proportionate to their exporting capacity, then the question arises of the compatibility of equal or proportionate quotas with the clause.

“ Actually, the most-favoured-nation clause gives the right to share in all concessions made, not only by commercial treaty, but also by autonomous act.

“ Consequently, any conclusion arrived at with respect to the compatibility with the clause of quotas fixed by commercial treaty is equally valid for quotas fixed by autonomous act.

“ It should, moreover, be noticed from a practical standpoint that, if Customs quotas fixed by autonomous act were not governed by the most-favoured-nation clause, any country wishing to avoid obligations arising out of the clause would merely have to avoid fixing a quota by commercial treaty.

“ Thus, if we admitted that Customs quotas fixed by autonomous act were not governed by the most-favoured-nation clause, it would be equivalent to admitting that a country having by commercial treaty granted some specific Customs concession and received its equivalent might arbitrarily limit this, even to the point of rendering it illusory, by fixing by autonomous act an equal or proportional quota, as a consequence of which the exporting capacity of the contracting country might be reduced or even disappear entirely.

* * *

“ After these considerations, the primary object of which was to define the true scope of the problem, we can now consider the question of the compatibility of Customs quotas with the clause.

“ In the first place, it should be pointed out that the most-favoured-nation clause has two objects : (*a*) to secure to the country enjoying its benefits a total of advantages represented by all the Customs concessions and privileges granted to third countries and by all the concessions made by autonomous act, and (*b*) to ensure absolute equality of treatment by guaranteeing to all countries which enjoy its benefits equal terms in all matters covered by commercial treaties and, as a result, the free development of their economic aspects.

“ The total advantages assured by the clause are not fixed or immutable. They may be increased if the State that grants the most-favoured-nation treatment concludes new commercial treaties making new or greater concessions in favour of other States or grants fresh privileges or advantages by autonomous act. They may decrease if one of the former commercial agreements becomes null and void, or if one of the privileges granted by autonomous act is withdrawn. For that reason, a State which in virtue of the clause has had the right to import an unlimited amount of certain goods at a given Customs duty cannot claim that the clause has been violated merely because the duty in question has been raised later by means of an autonomous provision and it only continues to benefit from the former duty for quantities corresponding to a Customs quota.

“ But, if a State is not entitled to preserve unchanged the original advantages of the clause, it certainly has the right of insisting that the principle of equality of treatment which is assured by the clause, and which consists in guaranteeing every country equal conditions where international commercial competition is concerned, should not be departed from.

“ If the question is considered from this point of view, it is clear that Customs quotas might be contrary to the clause, if they mean that all countries shall be granted the right to import an *equal* quantity of goods at a favoured tariff. A country is not an abstract entity, but a concrete reality. The constituent elements of this reality are a country's population, territory, state of civilisation, agricultural and industrial development, geographical situation, etc. Each country differs from other countries in so far as it has more or less of each of these elements or of their sum ; and each country asserts itself before other countries as a concrete entity which strives to develop its powers and resources to a maximum.

“ The most-favoured-nation clause cannot therefore ignore the facts and attempt to destroy the special commercial position of a State in relation to other States.

“ On the contrary, the object of the clause is to preserve these respective positions intact, by treating all countries *on the same footing*, which is quite a different thing from treating all countries in a mechanically equal way. While the clause does not prevent the country granting it from taking all measures which depend on its own sovereignty, even if these render the treatment originally granted less favourable, it certainly forbids the adoption of any provision likely to modify the situation of a State in relation to the other States in so far as commercial competition in a given market is concerned.

“ Now, if Customs quotas are applied in such a way as to give all States, whatever their power of competition, the right to import an equal quantity of goods at a reduced duty, all countries would be brought to the same level, and the relation of one country to another might be seriously upset. If this disturbance of equality in international competition is to be avoided, we must, as a general rule, either give up the idea of equal quotas or at least fix them in such a way as not injure third countries.

“ Our conclusion concerning *equal* quotas cannot be applied in identical terms to proportional quotas.

“ If, in fixing proportional quotas, account could be taken of the respective powers of competition of the various States, so as not to vary in the least degree the relations of a State to other States so far as commercial competition in a given market is concerned, then such quotas should be recognised as in keeping with the most-favoured-nation treatment.

“ But this is purely theoretical. In practice, it is found impossible for a country to fix proportional quotas so as not to interfere with the free play of international commerce.

“ On what basis is the exporting capacity of individual countries to be decided ? Statistics of international trade can only provide an approximate figure, seeing not merely that production, particularly in agriculture, may vary considerably from year to year, but particularly that the trend of trade is continually changing and that a shrinkage in any given market arising from a natural fall in demand or from some artificial hindrance (high tariffs, import prohibitions, etc.) has, as its natural consequence, a reflux of larger quantities of goods to other markets.

“ On the other hand, if proportional quotas were established so as to maintain intact the exporting capacity of every country, then these quotas would hardly fulfil their purpose, which is always to *regulate* importation, more or less artificially, and frequently to *limit* it.

“ Actually, in practice, we see that a proportional quota is sometimes fixed in the first instance for a country which, having only a very slight interest in the export of the product in question and perhaps finding compensation elsewhere, is quite prepared to accept a relatively low percentage. The same percentage is then applied to those other countries which enjoy most-favoured-nation treatment. The result is that all, especially those countries more particularly interested, find their interest severely prejudiced, sometimes to an even greater degree than would have been the case if the quotas had been fixed at an equal quantity for all, allowing some latitude.

“ Moreover, proportional quotas are very rare in practice.

“ In fact, except in the above-mentioned case of veritable collusion between two States to the detriment of a third, it is difficult for a State to be content with a low percentage ; and, in that case, the Customs quota cannot succeed in its aim of reducing the normal exports of all States to an appreciable degree.

“ On the other hand, *equal* quotas may be fixed on the basis of the *total* exports of a given country, which will doubtless find no difficulty in consenting to that. If the same quota is then applied to other States, the desired result will be easily and surely attained.

“ Consequently, it seems possible to conclude that proportional quotas are less dangerous than equal quotas, because it is more difficult to fix them in such a way as seriously to disturb the existing position.

“ But even these quotas are an obstacle to commerce, and may give rise to arrangements that seriously prejudice the interests of third States.

“ They are therefore not to be recommended, and it would even be best, in the higher interests of commerce, to avoid them carefully.

* * *

“ From the foregoing considerations it might appear that Customs quotas, whether equal or proportional, are all to be condemned, although in varying degrees.

“ However, to come to such a conclusion would perhaps be excessive. It would ignore the argument of irrefutable value, used by those who support the system of quotas — namely, that quotas are frequently used as a weapon of moderation in Customs warfare, and as a means of conciliating the opposed interests of national producers and importing States.

“ It is argued that, if it were impossible to have recourse to Customs quotas, the increase of duties would cover the total quantity of goods imported, and in the case of a large increase the harm suffered by exporting countries would be much more serious.

“ This consideration is true, but its importance should not be exaggerated.

“ First, if the increase of duties were to cover all imports, it would raise such opposition and protests from those inside the country who were hit by it, that there would certainly be a strong tendency towards greater Customs moderation. On the other hand, Customs quotas make it possible to conciliate divergent interests at home, and thereby make it easier to raise duties.

“ Secondly, it is doubtful whether the system of Customs quotas is better for exporting countries than the system of unlimited exports for all countries at equal, although high, rates. If we put ourselves in the position of a country whose exporters have spent enormous sums on advertisement and commercial organisation in order to obtain a particular market, and who may find themselves at any moment compelled by a Customs quota to export so limited a quantity of goods that they would have to look on all their past expenses as lost, and find it impossible to support the cost of maintaining the organisation they have built up, all of which would be to the advantage of their competitors, who would thereafter have the same position in the market as themselves, it may well be wondered whether these exporters would not prefer a higher duty, instead of any quota.

“ The argument is a fair one, but it goes too far, for it is not true that Customs quotas improve the position in every case ; on the contrary, they often make the position more intolerable.

“ It may be said, in general, that Customs quotas can be considered not harmful when their purpose is, not to upset the positions exporting States have obtained in a certain market, but to systematise and regulate them. There are Customs quotas which have helped to settle notable difficulties without prejudice to third States.

“ This is the case, for example, with the cotton yarn quota agreed upon by Germany with the principal exporting countries, with the wine quota conceded by Austria to Italy, and with the cement quota conceded by Italy to Austria.

“ Such examples could be multiplied. No complaint has ever been raised against quotas of this kind, because they were devised in such a way that they did not harm the interests of third parties.

“ It would therefore be unjust to condemn quotas without distinction by renouncing the advantages they sometimes offer.

“ The regulation of commercial relations between States so bristles with difficulties because of unbridled protectionism that no means of arriving at a satisfactory conciliation of the diverging interests without harming the rights of third parties should be neglected.

“ But how can the rights of third parties be safeguarded in agreements in which they cannot participate and the consequences of which are automatically extended to them by reason of the most-favoured-nation clause ?

“ It appears that the best solution is to decide that quotas should be fixed by agreement with the country which occupies the first rank among the countries importing the goods in question.

“ In this case, the quota is fixed by agreement with the country whose interest it is to obtain the largest amount. It is hardly probable that such a quota should totally, or in a great part, satisfy countries which have smaller exports.

“ Certainly, there may be drawbacks and abuses even in this procedure. For example, it may happen that the country whose exports are the highest may be unable for various unforeseen reasons to assert its interests with the necessary energy and may content itself with a quota insufficient for the needs of a country whose exports are smaller than its own.

“ But those are exceptional cases which should not distract us from the main issue. A country which exports the greatest quantity of a given merchandise ought ordinarily to be defending so vital an interest that it is in a position to put up a much stronger resistance than the other parties concerned.

“ However that may be, the most important thing to be noted is that, if the Customs quota is agreed upon with the country most directly interested, there is less risk of displacement of commercial positions, which is the real weak point of quotas, and the main reason why they are incompatible with the most-favoured-nation clause.

“ As a conclusion it may be stated that Customs quotas, which are a consequence of excessive protectionism, nearly always tend to increase this protectionism.

“ Not content with having put up a first barrier by means of high tariffs, countries erect a second by fixing quotas so as to limit imports to an even greater extent than was possible by high tariffs.

“ And in order to make more certain of achieving their object, they endeavour particularly to hinder exportation from those countries which have the greatest penetrative power.

“ Thus, it is inevitable that quotas should disturb the freedom of competition between the various countries interested, so that they develop into a violation of the most-favoured-nation clause.

“ As a general rule, therefore, they are to be condemned and avoided.

“ If, however, their tendency is to *regulate* the import trade by helping to tide over periods of temporary difficulty, in such cases they must be so fixed as to cause a minimum of injury to the interests of third countries.

“ Any country desiring to adopt Customs quotas must bear in mind that the most-favoured-nation treatment which it has conceded to other countries imposes on it the obligation not to impair the equality of conditions in international commercial competition; therefore, quotas must be fixed so as to safeguard, as far as possible, the position of the countries interested. Whether this is done by fixing the first Customs quota with the principal exporting country, or by negotiations conducted with each of the various interested countries in turn, is not a matter of essential importance.

“ What is of importance is that the interests of the various countries enjoying most-favoured-nation treatment should be considered and respected.

“ It is only in this way that Customs quotas, the expedient of a period of excessive protectionism, can be regarded as admissible and, at the same time, attain the desired end without aggravating a situation already far from satisfactory.

(3) *Temporary Imports and Exports.*

“ As regards the second question we mentioned, a distinction must be drawn between temporary imports and exports in the true sense of the term and the so-called finishing trade.

“ In regard to the former, the clause applies to all concessions which, being solely designed to facilitate international trade, relate only to goods which are not intended to undergo any further transformation (for instance, containers, imported empty and re-exported full, implements and apparatus intended for the erection of plant and re-exported on completion of the work; goods sent to fairs or exhibitions and re-exported because they have not been sold).

“ On the other hand, the special cases of temporary imports and exports which come under the description of finishing trade give rise to the following considerations :

“ A distinction must be drawn between ‘ active ’ finishing trade and ‘ passive ’ finishing trade.

“ The term ‘ *active* ’ finishing trade is employed when a Government authorises the importation free of duty, or at a reduced rate, of foreign goods (usually raw materials or semi-finished articles) on condition that such goods are transformed into finished articles of a specified character intended solely for export.

“ ‘ Active ’ finishing trade is authorised solely in the interests of the importing country. The latter permits the goods to enter duty-free to the extent that it desires to place raw materials or half-wrought articles, which its manufacturers require in order to make finished products for export, at the disposal of its industries at lower prices than those obtaining in the home market. The loss in revenue represented by the exemption from duty is offset by the economic gain resulting from increased sales abroad. For these reasons, the measures under which such exemption is granted are of an autonomous character and are scarcely ever the subject of negotiations or conventions with foreign countries; the latter cannot,

indeed, fail to benefit by measures exempting goods which would otherwise be dutiable. There is therefore no clash of interests and consequently no ground whatever for discussions or negotiations.

“ Nevertheless, although the measures relating to temporary imports (‘ active ’ finishing trade) are, by their very nature, solely dependent on the will of the country applying them, it would be impossible to understand or to defend a restriction under which goods imported from particular countries would alone be admitted free of duty.

“ The importing country seeks in one way or another to attain a certain result, which is solely in its own interest, no matter from what foreign country the goods may be imported.

“ Consequently, a measure restricting the exemption to goods coming from particular countries could only be designed to establish an unfair discrimination at the expense of the countries debarred from this privilege. Any such restriction must therefore be condemned.

“ Moreover, it would be in flagrant contradiction with the principle of equality of treatment, implicit in the most-favoured-nation clause, if a country to which this treatment had been granted in Customs questions were to be debarred from the privilege of exemption.

“ The most-favoured-nation clause must therefore be applicable to ‘ active ’ finishing trade, it being understood, however, that, when the laws of a country make this trade dependent on an administrative decision, the right of the competent authorities to take a decision in each particular case is in no way affected thereby.

“ The Economic Committee arrived at a somewhat different conclusion in regard to ‘ passive ’ finishing trade.

“ ‘ Passive ’ finishing trade arises when a country authorises the temporary export of certain goods, and readmits them free of duty when they return to the country after being finished abroad.

“ The goods concerned in ‘ passive ’ finishing trade are, as a rule, articles already partly finished, or almost completely finished, which merely have to undergo a final process (as, for example, fabrics which have to be dyed, embroidered, etc.). This trade cannot therefore take place without the consent of two parties : the exporting State, which promises to re-admit the finished article free of duty, and the importing State, which offers exemption from duty for the article when it is brought in to be finished.

“ The consent of these two parties may find expression in two different and autonomous sets of measures, each of which is complementary to the other ; or it may be embodied in a bilateral agreement in which the intentions of both sides are harmonised and defined for the better realisation of their common object.

“ But, in whichever of these two forms the consent of the parties finds expression, the fact remains that ‘ passive ’ finishing trade is usually to be accounted for by the special situation which the producing industry of one country occupies in relation to the finishing industry of another country.

“ Consequently, the origin of the few existing cases of ‘ passive ’ finishing trade and the reason for their continued occurrence must be sought in the special economic, industrial and historical relationships between certain countries.

“ Nevertheless, among the countries which follow an autonomous policy in regard to temporary exports, a certain number apply the most-favoured-nation clause to the ‘ passive ’ finishing trade. These countries, it is true, reserve the right to decide, independently and of their own free will, whether or not they will allow temporary exports, but having made their decision they will allow goods to be exported in this way to any of the countries entitled to most-favoured-nation treatment.

“ Other countries, on the contrary, deny that ‘ passive ’ finishing trade can be governed by the most-favoured-nation clause, arguing that a concession which could be defended in regard to one country might have no justification in regard to another.

“ Having regard to the diversity of opinions and systems, the Economic Committee did not feel able to advocate the application of most-favoured-nation treatment to ‘ passive ’ finishing trade. It did, however, express the opinion that a country would only be justified in refusing, under the most-favoured-nation clause, to extend to others the concessions already granted to one country, if the other country demanding them were quite differently situated — in regard to the circumstances in view of which the concessions were allowed — from the country to which they had originally been granted.

“ It follows that the discrimination must be founded on objective considerations and not on arbitrary views or preferential tendencies. In the absence of such justification, discrimination could not be regarded as compatible with the attitude which countries must observe in their dealings with one another if they wish to maintain normal and friendly relations.

III. *Essential Characteristics of Goods benefiting by the Clause.*

“ After determining the scope of application of the clause, one must be clear as to the conditions which goods must fulfil to qualify for most-favoured-nation treatment.

“ The two essential conditions are as follows :

“ The goods must *have their origin in the country which enjoys most-favoured-nation treatment*, and they must be *like products*, in the sense that they must possess the characteristics which entitle certain goods to a given Customs treatment.

“ (1) According to the systems adopted in different countries, most-favoured-nation treatment is granted, either to goods in provenance from the country which claims the benefit of the clause or to goods originating in that country, or again to goods which both originate in and are in provenance from the country entitled to most-favoured-nation treatment.

“ The rule of provenance, as a sole condition, may be disregarded, not only because it is so rarely used, but also because it is designed to favour direct traffic between the contracting countries and hence to discourage the despatch of goods through a third State — thereby deflecting the trade from its natural channels. The rule of origin, on the other hand, must be regarded as an essential condition, since the aim of commercial treaties is to encourage the contracting parties to exchange their respective native products.

“ The rule of provenance may, however, be regarded as a supplementary factor in cases where additional safeguards have to be sought, when, owing to special circumstances, a differential regime is in force in regard to one or more countries.

“ But, having noted that the essential condition must be the origin of the goods, we have still to ascertain, in the interests of precision, when an article has its origin in a given country. This problem — which is simply that of the nationality of the goods — is easy to solve in the case of *natural products* — *i.e.*, of products of the soil and of the sub-soil. All States are in agreement in regarding as the country of origin of these products the country in which they have been *harvested*, or *obtained* in any other way. On the other hand, the problem becomes one of the most complicated and difficult points in commercial policy owing to the increasing complexity of industrial production and of the constantly closer international co-operation which results therefrom when we come to deal with *manufactured products*.

“ For though a certain number of articles are made from native raw materials of a single country and have been through all the processes of manufacture in that country, there are others which contain a greater or less proportion of raw materials originating in other countries, or on which in varying degrees work has been expended in other countries, and we find even extreme cases of articles which have only undergone the last finishing process in the country in question. It is very difficult to determine at what point the manufacturing process performed in other countries must prevail over the work done on the article in the country itself. The problem is further complicated by the diversity of systems and standards adopted in this respect by the different legislations. In some States, the country of origin of a manufactured product is that in which it has been *worked up* or *manufactured*; in others, that in which the product has been manufactured or transformed, with the proviso, however, that the value of home raw materials and home labour must represent *a given percentage of its total value* (sometimes 25 and sometimes 50 up to 75 per cent). Other States confine themselves to requiring that the manufactured product should contain a *considerable* proportion of home labour, or that the product should have undergone in the country an *important transformation*, or its *last industrial transformation*, or that the *finishing* should have been done by home labour, etc. In addition, some States have laid down that the raw or semi-manufactured materials which have been worked up or manufactured in the country in question must have paid import duty, whereas other countries allow that the work should be done on goods introduced under the system of temporary importation.

“ The system of percentual increases in the value, which may appear theoretically sound, breaks down altogether in practice in face of the great difficulty for the importers of furnishing workable evidence of the increase of value, and the virtual impossibility for the Customs of obtaining positive information on the point. Moreover, past experience in regard to this formula is sufficient to show its extremely unreliable character.

“ On the other hand, a formula such as *the country of origin of manufactured products shall be taken to be the country in which such products have undergone important transformation* would seem at first sight satisfactory. But some definition of the term *important transformation* should be given. An exact and precise definition of this term of a nature to rule out any arbitrary action on the part of the Customs administration is, however, impossible. It is possible, for example, to treat as important any finishing process the consequence of which is to bring a product in the country of definition under a different tariff specification from that which would otherwise have been applicable to it, or — following up the same idea — any finishing process the consequence of which is to make the product liable to higher tariff rates than those to which it would otherwise have been subject. This criterion might, however, prove inadequate in practice on account of the differences of tariff specifications in different countries, as a result of which the effect of the formula would not be the same in all countries.

“ If, leaving on one side the question of a formal definition of *important transformation*, it was desired to follow the method of giving an idea of what was to be meant by this expression by quoting as examples some of the operations which should be regarded as important, or *vice versa* some of the operations which should not be regarded as important, other difficulties would be encountered. Lists of this kind, which would necessarily be illustrative and not exhaustive, and would consequently be very incomplete, would raise a great many doubts, and would indeed obscure the question instead of clearing it up.

“ In conclusion, and setting out from the fact that treaty provisions have sufficiently brought into line the divergent standards adopted in the different countries, and from the axiom that in the interests of international trade the problem should be settled in a liberal spirit, it seems advisable to adopt the following principles :

“ The basis taken for the purpose of determining the nationality of a product shall be its origin. The origin declared at the Customs shall be accepted, provided that such evidence of origin or consignments as the legislation of the importing country may require is produced, and provided that there is no presumption of the incorrectness of the declaration of origin.

“ The country of origin in the case of *natural* products shall be taken to be the country in which such products have been grown, harvested, extracted or in any other manner obtained, or, in other words, the products of the soil or sub-soil of the country in question.

“ The country of origin of *manufactured* products shall be taken to be the country in which such products have been finished. No account shall be taken of the origin of the raw materials or of the raw, semi-manufactured or manufactured products which have entered into the composition of a product, or of the fact that the work of manufacturing or finishing took place in free circulation or under Customs supervision, except, however, in the case in which finishing is only aimed at evading payment of a higher duty.

“ This reservation in regard to operations which are carried out with no other object than to evade higher duties applicable to the products if imported direct from the country of origin is a necessary precaution if the Customs are not to be left defenceless in the presence of fraudulent proceedings.

“ After laying down the conditions of origin of goods, it seems necessary to consider the conditions in which the goods must be consigned and transported in order to retain their origin. Although the great majority of States accept the principle that goods retain the origin of the country of production or manufacture even if they reach the country of destination after having gone through other countries, remained in warehouses and undergone therein the handling necessary for their preservation or a change in their packing, there are, none the less, countries which require that goods should reach them *direct (en droiture)* in order to be entitled to preferential duties, this term, ‘ *en droiture* ’, being interpreted in a more or less wide sense.

“ But here, too, commercial treaties have brought the different conceptions closer together, and the most liberal doctrine has become increasingly prevalent. We may therefore lay down the principle that the following operations undergone by a consignment on its journey will be considered not to affect its origin — viz., unloading and reloading, changes in the mode of transport, bonding in Customs warehouses, free ports or free zones, external alterations in the putting up of the goods, division into lots or sorting, provided always that the origin appears clearly from the accompanying papers and that the above operations have taken place under official supervision and are attested in a satisfactory manner (by the Customs authority or the management of the bonded warehouses or free ports, etc.).

“ One last point remains to be examined : so far we have considered goods originating in, or the *national* goods of, a given country. We have defined what is to be understood by the origin or nationality of these goods, to what conditions this origin is subject and the influence which the conditions of consignment or transport may exercise over it. But there is also the case of goods imported into a State after having been *nationalised* in another country — *i.e.*, after having complied with Customs obligations and having entered into free circulation in that country. The legal provisions in this connection are not entirely concordant. Some States assimilate goods which have been nationalised in a country to goods originating in that country ; others, while adopting the same assimilation, make it subject to certain reservations ; others, on the contrary, still base themselves, although *sub conditione*, on the first origin of nationalised goods.

“ Two considerations demand attention in this connection. In the first place, goods originating in a country not entitled to the most-favoured-nation clause should not be able to enjoy preferential duties by the devious method of previous importation into a country admitted to most-favoured-nation treatment. Secondly, we must consider the case in which goods originating in a country entitled to the clause, instead of being imported direct from the place of origin, first enter into free circulation in another country not entitled to the said clause. But, as has been stated above, the nationality of a product is determined by its origin, and this origin must be declared and, if necessary, proved.

“ As regards consignments which do not proceed direct from the country of origin to the country of destination, it has been explained above what operations undergone on the journey are to be regarded as exercising no influence on the origin of the goods. But introducing the goods into the free market of a third country is not one of the operations authorised and should

not be regarded as such, in view of the fact that the guarantees proposed (supervision and attestation by the official authorities) are not compatible with introduction to free traffic.

“ The following principle therefore seems quite equitable :

“ ‘ Goods which have entered the free traffic of a third country have the right to receive most-favoured-nation treatment if the country of origin and the third country are both admitted to the said treatment.’ ”

“(2) Coming next to the question of what conditions, as regards their nature, the goods must fulfil in order to qualify for most-favoured-nation treatment, it may be observed that these conditions are usually expressed by the words ‘ like ’ or ‘ similar ’ and sometimes by ‘ identical ’. If these expressions are held to imply different standards, it must be admitted that the word ‘ like ’ is far preferable to the others, the expression ‘ identical ’ being the least desirable of the three, since the condition of identity may in practice involve a too restricted application of the clause, and is moreover too difficult to determine. However, the problem will not be solved merely by the use of one or other of these expressions. If we adopt the word ‘ like ’, we have still to decide what in practice is meant by ‘ like products ’.

“ The question has become extremely complicated and difficult, especially since the war; under the influence of protectionist tendencies, different countries have been endeavouring, in bilateral treaties concluded with each other, to create discriminations which are often of doubtful legitimacy.

“ But here again it is difficult to determine without a thorough examination of all the facts how far these discriminations are justified by the actual nature of the goods, and how far they may be recognised, in the interests indeed of international traffic, since they sometimes offer a very valuable means of enabling the products of a given country to obtain reductions of duties or Customs facilities which could not be granted if they had to be extended to larger categories of goods.

“ However, we may hope that the difficulties inherent in this question will be diminished with the introduction of the uniform Customs nomenclature on which the Economic Committee and the Committee of Experts have been engaged for so long.

“ But what we are most concerned to declare is that, no matter what standards may be used to determine, in the case of a given category of goods, that these goods are ‘ like products ’, these standards must be applied in the same manner to all products of that category having their origin in any of the countries entitled to the benefit of the clause.

“ In this connection, the following stipulations are clearly incompatible with the clause :

“(a) Provisions which restrict Customs privileges to products of a particular country or district simply because they originate in that country or district, thus ruling, *a priori*, that no other country can produce products like to those which it is sought to favour ;

“(b) Provisions which make similarity depend on entirely external characteristics or conditions which, by the very nature of things, only the products of given countries can possess or fulfil.

“ For instance, when a country grants another country a reduction of Customs duties in respect of a given product, *provided the product in question is accompanied by an analysis certificate issued by a given authority* in the country to which the concession has been granted, but refuses to make the same concession to a third State on the ground that the latter cannot issue a certificate given by the authority indicated in the treaty, although equally qualified authorities might issue similar certificates, this would not be in keeping with the clause.

“ When a country grants, in a bilateral treaty, some benefit to a product of the other contracting party, *provided this product is submitted to a given Customs office*, but refuses to accord this benefit to a third State whose products of the same kind cannot pass through the Customs office indicated in the treaty, though they might be submitted at other Customs offices equally competent to deal with the matter and to pass those goods through the Customs, this would also be contrary to the rule given in (b).

“ It is understood, of course, that these examples are not intended to throw doubt on the right of the various countries to require, in certain cases, the submission of analysis certificates, or to stipulate in other cases that goods should pass through a given Customs office.

“ Our only object in quoting these examples is to draw attention to the fact that the underlying principles of the clause distinctly prohibit the utilisation of such requirements for the purposes of unfair discrimination.”

N. B. — *In thus expressing its view on “ like products ”, the Economic Committee felt that it was neither possible nor desirable to go too much into detail, owing to the wide variety of cases that actually arise. As the Governments of certain countries again raised the question of like products in the eleventh Assembly, the Committee thought that the best method to follow in*

reconsidering the question and deciding whether the opinion it had previously expressed required any modification would be to ask the Governments concerned for particulars of the specific cases in connection with which disputes or difficulties had arisen.

“ The Governments of Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Latvia, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland, to which it had applied, showed by their replies that disputes with regard to the interpretation of the term ‘ like products ’ were not in reality very numerous, and that these cases added no new elements to those already within the Economic Committee’s knowledge, on the basis of which it had drafted its above-mentioned commentary. All the cases quoted by the Governments as having given rise to difficulties were covered by the rules formulated by the Economic Committee in 1929. Hence, the latter did not consider it necessary to modify in any way the conclusions which it reached at that time.

“ In the Committee’s opinion, there can be no doubt that any dispute which may arise in this domain can be solved — at any rate, from the theoretical point of view, which is the only one that the Committee can adopt in dealing with this question — by applying the rule that it has laid down. A dispute might always arise as to the existence or absence of the intrinsic characteristics differentiating goods; but, as these characteristics naturally vary from one product to another, any endeavour to find a more precise formula than the Committee’s and one which could be applied to all individual cases appears to be Utopian; and only expert examinations in each particular case could be decisive. Once the principle in question had been accepted by the different countries, it would be for the bodies provided for in commercial agreements for the settlement of disputes to which the clauses of these agreements might give rise to take a decision on the cases submitted to them for examination.

IV. *Exceptions to the Clause.*

“ Having now stated the essential principles implied by the most-favoured-nation clause, its field of application and the objective qualifications which goods must possess to be entitled to most-favoured-nation treatment, we must observe that the clause, even in its unrestricted interpretation, cannot be made applicable to certain special situations, such as those resulting from a Customs union between two countries, or from traffic frontier zones.

“ The strict maintenance of a Customs barrier between two adjacent countries is so clearly hampering to the inhabitants of the frontier districts, in regions where the frontier is not represented by some almost impassable physical obstacle, and an agreement allowing freedom of trade within a restricted zone on each side of the frontier is so manifestly justifiable, that an exception in favour of such traffic is something to which a third party, entitled in other respects to most-favoured-nation treatment, could not reasonably object. Accordingly, in most commercial treaties, allowance is made for the special situation in these districts by excepting the Customs facilities granted to frontier traffic from the most-favoured-nation regime.

“ The clause is drawn up in different ways: latterly, there has been a very marked tendency to define the reservation more precisely. For instance, some recent treaties allow a contiguous State certain favours with a view to facilitating trade in particular frontier districts, not extending as a rule beyond 15 kilometres on either side of the frontier, besides granting privileges for the inhabitants of these districts.

“ In one case — and indeed in several — the words for the inhabitants of these districts have been omitted, and we can quote at least one treaty where the zone in which facilities are granted to ‘ minor ’ frontier traffic is extended to 25 kilometres in certain exceptional cases. The following text is an example of less precise wording :

“ . . . tariff concessions granted to neighbouring States solely with a view to facilitating frontier traffic in a limited zone on either side of the frontier.’

“ In a certain number of treaties, including some of the most recent, the reservation does not appear at all.

“ In short, the reservation, where it is employed, is of a more or less elastic character.

“ In any case, it must be admitted that the exception concerning frontier traffic is rendered necessary, not merely by long-standing tradition, but by the very nature of things, and that it would be impossible, owing to differences in the circumstances, to lay down precisely the width of frontier zone which should enjoy a special regime. Hence we must be content to state that this exception is only legitimate and admissible if it is restricted to such limits as are essential to the attainment of its purpose — *i.e.*, to facilitating trade and in some cases also to rendering existence practicable for the inhabitants on either side of the frontier.

“ The most-favoured-nation clause frequently includes a provision allowing for the possibility of each of the parties concluding a complete Customs union with a third Power. In such a case, the economic unit becomes in practice something different from the political unit, and the Customs union may be regarded rather as the abolition of a Customs frontier than as a form of discrimination between competing foreign purveyors.

“ In such cases, the exception to the most-favoured-nation clause takes the form of a reservation covering the privileges accorded to a third Power in virtue of a Customs union

which has been or may hereafter be concluded. The clause may be drawn up in different ways, but the variations do not involve substantial differences. It appears in a large number of treaties.

“ In regard to this point, it is sufficient to declare that Customs unions constitute exceptions, recognised by tradition, to the principle of most-favoured-nation treatment; but we do not propose in this paper to offer an opinion on the more controversial topic of their formation.

“ Apart from Customs unions, it is necessary to consider the case of concessions which some countries grant one another on account of the special ethnic, historical, geographical or other ties which unite them (*e.g.*, the Iberian Clause, the Baltic Clause, the Scandinavian Clause, the South-American Clause, etc., and the special regime between Switzerland and certain zones of French territory).

“ The exceptions falling within these categories could not be accepted as *implicit* by a mere reference; they must be expressly stated and their meaning and scope must be agreed to by the parties concerned.

“ We should also bear in mind certain special arrangements under international treaties between countries or zones having particular economic interests in common, concluded to meet a provisional state of affairs (as, for instance, the present arrangement in German and Polish Upper Silesia and the Customs relations between Germany and the Saar Basin).

“ As regards the question of preferential treatment granted to or by colonies, or to or by countries members of the same empire — a point appearing in various treaties — the Committee has refrained from investigating it in view of its political implications.

“ But there is one question in regard to the colonies which might be usefully examined, apart from that of the preferential regime to which we have just referred.

“ This question is as follows: Suppose that two countries have taken the most-favoured-nation clause as the basis of their relations in Customs questions, are native products of the colonies of one of these countries entitled to most-favoured-nation treatment when imported into the other country? In other words, does the clause apply also to products originating in the colonies?

“ And conversely, are native products of one of the contracting countries entitled, on importation into the colonies of the other country, to the privileges accorded to the products of any third country (assuming, of course, that the latter is entitled to most-favoured-nation treatment)? In other words, does the clause also extend to goods imported into the colonies?

“ In this connection, it should be observed that the provisions of commercial treaties, except where specially provided otherwise, are generally deemed to apply solely to the home country and that, when the above questions are answered in an affirmative sense, they are dealt with by special provisions in virtue of which the most-favoured-nation clause is given the necessary extension.

V. Wording of the Clause.

“ The general considerations set forth above concerning the main principles of the clause, its field of application and the exceptions to it, enable us to put forward a standard form of clause which might be communicated to Governments, by way of example, for use in their bilateral conventions. But it is first necessary to offer a few observations regarding the selection of a standard form of clause.

“ A study of the numerous examples which might be quoted would show that the most-favoured-nation clause takes the most varied forms in different treaties. When all allowance is made for the diversity of subjects which have to be regulated by this clause in bilateral conventions, it is seen that, even when the governing idea is substantially the same, the clause is worded in very different fashions. In some cases it is given a *positive* form (all advantages accorded to a third State are to be accorded to the other party); in other cases, it has a *negative* form (the other party is not to be subjected to less favourable treatment than that which is accorded to any third country). In other cases, again, it is fashioned *synthetically*, and again in other cases *analytically* and in detail; in some treaties there is a reference in general terms to most-favoured-nation treatment or to treatment on the basis of the most-favoured nation; finally, in other treaties, we read that the favours, privileges, immunities, tariff reductions, etc., granted to any third Power are to be extended to the other party.

“ These differences, and a vast number of others which might be quoted, cannot fail in the long run to work to the prejudice of international trade, which — more particularly in this field — needs rules which are clear, unequivocal, simple and intelligible to all.

“ The elaboration of a single form of clause for Customs matters appears in these circumstances to be a work of the greatest utility.

“ The question then arises whether it will be best to be content with an extremely simple and purely synthetic form of words merely declaring the intention of the contracting parties

to grant each other most-favoured-nation treatment (leaving the actual scope of this guarantee to be elucidated in accordance with the rules for interpretation), or to adopt a rather more explicit style, stating the substantial provisions of the clause in direct terms in accordance with the principles we wish to see universally accepted.

“ The former method, that of an extremely simple clause (such, for instance, as the following : ‘ The two Contracting Parties undertake to grant each other most-favoured-nation treatment in all Customs questions ’) would perhaps make it easier for everyone to adopt the clause. But it would have the objection of leaving open all questions connected with the scope of the most-favoured-nation clause and of making the positive value of the clause *wholly* and *exclusively* dependent on the rules for interpretation.

“ For these reasons, we have thought it better to adopt the second method, which, though not obviating the need for common rules for interpretation, nevertheless makes it possible to find the solution of the above questions in the terms of the clause itself, leaving only a few special points to be elucidated by the rules of interpretation.

“ The outcome of these considerations is the following formula, the terms of which are appreciably more explicit than those given above as an example. This formula is worded in general terms which may be adapted to meet special circumstances :

“ ‘ The High Contracting Parties agree to grant each other unconditional and unrestricted most-favoured-nation treatment in all matters concerning Customs duties and subsidiary duties of every kind and in the method of levying duties, and, further, in all matters concerning the rules, formalities and charges imposed in connection with the clearing of goods through the Customs.

“ ‘ Accordingly, natural or manufactured products having their origin in either of the contracting countries shall in no case be subject, in regard to the matters referred to above, to any duties, taxes or charges other or higher, or to any rules and formalities other or more burdensome, than those to which the like products having their origin in any third country are or may hereafter be subject.

“ ‘ Similarly, natural or manufactured products exported from the territories of either Contracting Party and consigned to the territories of the other Party shall in no case be subject, in regard to the above-mentioned matters, to any duties, taxes or charges other or higher, or to any rules and formalities other or more burdensome, than those to which the like products when consigned to the territories of any other country are or may hereafter be subject.

“ ‘ All the advantages, favours, privileges and immunities which have been or may hereafter be granted by either Contracting Party, in regard to the above-mentioned matters, to natural or manufactured products originating in any other country or consigned to the territories of any other country shall be accorded immediately and without compensation to the like products originating from the other Contracting Party or to products consigned to the territories of that Party.

“ ‘ Nevertheless, the advantages now accorded or which may hereafter be accorded to other adjacent countries in order to facilitate frontier traffic, and advantages resulting from a Customs union already concluded or hereafter to be concluded by either Contracting Party, shall be excepted from the operation of this article.’ ”

(c) RELATIONS BETWEEN BILATERAL AGREEMENTS BASED ON THE MOST-FAVOURLED-NATION CLAUSE AND ECONOMIC PLURILATERAL CONVENTIONS.

“ During the Diplomatic Conference held at Geneva to draw up an International Convention on the Abolition of Import and Export Prohibitions and Restrictions, the question arose whether States not parties to that Convention could, by virtue of bilateral agreements based on the most-favoured-nation clause, claim the benefit of any advantages mutually conceded by the signatories of the International Convention. In deference to this consideration, it was even proposed to include a clause to that effect in the Convention. It was soon realised, however, that this question could not be answered in the Convention, which could not affect the contents of bilateral agreements based on the most-favoured-nation clause. The Conference realised the great importance of the problem, both for the general economic work of the League and for the conclusion of future economic agreements under the League’s auspices, and the nature and field of application of such agreements. It was urged at the Conference that the conclusion of plurilateral conventions would be hindered if countries, while not acceding to such agreements, could still, without giving any counter-engagements, avail themselves of the engagements undertaken by the signatory States of such conventions.

“ The Economic Committee of the League was asked to make an exhaustive study of the most-favoured-nation clause in commercial treaties and to put forward proposals regulating it in as comprehensive and as uniform a manner as possible, and it has carefully considered the question, which is the subject of the present report. It took the view that the World Economic Conference of Geneva, when it recommended the conclusion of plurilateral economic conventions with the object of improving the world economic situation and the application of the most-favoured-nation clause in the widest and most unconditional form, probably

did not quite realise that — up to a point — these two recommendations might clash. One argument — and a very sound one — brought up in the Economic Committee was that in certain cases countries would have little or no interest in acceding to a plurilateral economic convention or in undertaking the commitments it entailed if, by invoking the most-favoured-nation clause, as embodied in bilateral agreements, they could claim as of right, and without incurring corresponding obligations, that the obligations contracted by the signatory States of the plurilateral convention should apply to themselves. It was strongly urged, indeed, that such possibility might seriously impair the whole future economic work of the League, and that the only means of averting the danger would be to adopt a provision whereby the most-favoured-nation clause embodied in bilateral commercial treaties would not, as a rule, affect plurilateral economic conventions.

“ It was objected, however, that a clause of this kind, instead of leading, as the World Economic Conference recommended, to the unlimited application of the most-favoured-nation clause, would actually check it, and that, more especially in countries where the unlimited application of this clause is the basis of commercial relations with foreign countries, such a reservation would probably be misunderstood and might give rise to a hostile attitude towards the League’s economic work. It was further argued that a State might quite conceivably, on wholly serious and genuine grounds, be unable to undertake the commitments involved by an international economic convention; that the final decision whether it could do so or not would lie with the State itself; and that it could hardly be asked, as a result of a most-favoured-nation clause drafted *ad hoc* in bilateral commercial treaties, to give up the right in cases of this kind to refuse to accept differential treatment on the part of one or more other States.

“ The arguments advanced on both sides are so cogent that the Economic Committee has not found it possible at this moment to find a general and final solution for this difficult problem.

“ It is unanimously of opinion, however, that, although this reservation in plurilateral conventions may appear in some cases legitimate, it can only be justified in the case of plurilateral conventions of a general character and aiming at the improvement of economic relations between peoples, and not in the case of conventions concluded by certain countries to attain particular ends the benefits of which those countries would, by such a procedure, be refusing to other States when the latter might, by invoking most-favoured-nation treatment, derive legitimate advantages.

“ The said reservation should also be expressly stipulated and should not deprive a State not a party to the plurilateral convention of advantages it enjoys either under the national laws of the participating State or under a bilateral agreement concluded by the latter with a third State itself not a party to the said plurilateral Convention.

“ Finally, this reservation should not be admitted in cases in which the State claiming the advantages arising under the plurilateral convention, though not acceding to it, would be prepared to grant full reciprocity in the matter.

“ The Economic Committee expresses the view that countries which, with reference to the terms of plurilateral economic conventions, agreed to embody in their bilateral agreements based on the most-favoured-nation clause a reservation defined in accordance with the principles set forth above would not be acting contrary to the recommendations of the World Economic Conference of Geneva, and consequently will not be acting in a manner inconsistent with the objects which the League has set itself to attain.”

IV. DECISIONS OF THE COUNCIL.

(a) EXTRACT FROM THE REPORT SUBMITTED TO THE COUNCIL, IN MARCH 1929,
BY THE RAPPEUR ON ECONOMIC QUESTIONS.

.....

“ The work already done by the Committee as regards commercial policy constitutes a great step towards the realisation of one of the International Economic Conference’s recommendations. In particular the codification of most-favoured-nation treatment in regard to Customs matters — which treatment, according to the Committee’s conclusions, should be unconditional and unrestricted, the establishment of clear and uniform principles for the application and interpretation of the latter, and the establishment of a standard formula suitable for adoption by States in their commercial conventions, will no doubt aid in preventing the disputes and controversies to which the application of the clause has hitherto given rise. The adoption by the different States of the principles drawn up by the Committee would be a great relief to international trade, and might materially help in the restoration of more satisfactory commercial relations between States.

“ For these reasons I propose that the Council should communicate the result of the Committee’s work to the States Members and non-Members, and should strongly recommend to their attention the conclusions which the Committee has reached.”

The Council has approved this proposal at its meeting of March 7th, 1929.

The Council has approved this proposal at its meeting of March 7th, 1929.

(b) EXTRACT FROM THE REPORT SUBMITTED TO THE COUNCIL, IN JUNE 1929,
BY THE RAPPORTEUR ON ECONOMIC QUESTIONS.

.....

“ The Economic Committee has submitted the conclusions of its study on *the relations between bilateral agreements* based on the most-favoured-nation clause and *plurilateral agreements* entered into, or to be entered into, under the auspices of the League, and proposes that these conclusions should be forwarded to the various States by the Council together with the other parts of its work on tariffs and treaty-making policy which have already been communicated to the Council.

“ The Economic Conference recommended on the one hand a progressive extension of the unconditional most-favoured-nation treatment and, on the other, the conclusion, in the sphere of international economic relations, of special collective agreements under the auspices of the League.

“ These two recommendations are equally important, but obviously they might at a given moment be found to conflict.

“ The Economic Committee, confronted with this problem, has faced once more the facts and lays down in its last report an essentially equitable and practical policy, which cannot be too strongly recommended to the attention of Governments.”

The proposal of the Rapporteur was approved by the Council at its meeting of June 14th, 1929.

(c) EXTRACT FROM THE REPORT SUBMITTED TO THE COUNCIL, IN SEPTEMBER 1931,
BY THE RAPPORTEUR ON ECONOMIC QUESTIONS.

.....

“ 1. *Most-favoured-nation Clause.*

“ In accordance with the resolution of the eleventh Assembly, the Committee, with the assistance of experts from the countries most concerned, succeeded, after discussions which occupied three meetings, in coming to an agreement in principle regarding Customs quotas, ‘ similar products ’ and ‘ the nationality of goods ’.

“ It has, however, postponed giving its opinion on the subject of ‘ anti-dumping duties ’ and ‘ countervailing duties ’ until the completion of its study of the question of dumping.

“ The Economic Committee has been able to reach a unanimous opinion on the subject of Customs quotas in their relation to the most-favoured-nation clause, a subject which has recently become of particular importance and has given rise to animated discussions. The opinion of the Committee constitutes a compromise between two opposite theories—namely, that of the supporters of the unlimited clause, who consider that any Customs quota is incompatible with the spirit of this clause, and the opinion of those who regard such quotas, either equal or proportional, as permissible.

“ As regards the interpretation of the term ‘ similar products ’, the Committee does not consider that there is any reason to modify the views stated by the Committee in 1929 ; these principles, if applied fairly, are, in their opinion, capable of removing certain difficulties which have arisen in the commercial relations between States.

“ As for the nationality of goods, the Committee proposes regulations defining the conditions under which a product should be considered as originating in a given country.

“ The Committee proposes that the Council should communicate their conclusions regarding the most-favoured-nation clause to the various Governments, and should recommend them to reconcile, as far as possible, their commercial policy with the principles therein laid down, and to forward to the Secretary-General any observations which they may have to make regarding these principles.”

* * *

The Rapporteur proposed that the Council should approve the report of the Economic Committee and, in particular, should “ authorise the forwarding of the report on certain aspects of the most-favoured-nation clause to the States Members and non-Members of the League of Nations, calling their attention to the conclusions of the Committee and asking them to communicate to the Secretary-General any observations which they might wish to make on the principles in question ”.

The Council approved this proposal at its meeting on September 1st, 1931.

Geneva, June 24th, 1933.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

**APPLICATION OF THE
INTERNATIONAL CONVENTION RELATING
TO THE SIMPLIFICATION OF CUSTOMS
FORMALITIES**

Signed at Geneva on November 3rd, 1923

**MEASURES TAKEN BY THE GOVERNMENTS TO GIVE
EFFECT TO THE PROVISIONS OF THE CONVENTION**

**Summaries communicated by the Governments Parties
to the Convention in Execution of Article 9¹**

EIGHTH SERIES

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¹ For the previous Series, see :

- Document C.354.M.127.1927.II.
- Document C.180.M.56.1928.II.
- Document C.126.M.42.1929.II.
- Document C.539.M.193.1929.II.
- Document C.183.M.85.1930.II.
- Document C.557.M.223.1930.II.
- Document C.227.M.95.1931.II.B.

Austria

THIRD SUMMARY COMMUNICATED BY LETTER OF THE AUSTRIAN GOVERNMENT, DATED FEBRUARY 2ND, 1932.¹

The Federal Government has already shown in its previous summaries that the Customs laws in force in Austria are in keeping with the principles laid down in the Convention of November 3rd, 1923. Such being the case, the evolution of the rules applicable in the matter of Customs formalities has been brought about more especially by the conventional method.

Ad Article 5.

Paragraph 57 of the Customs Regulations lays down explicit rules as to the manner in which traders may obtain official information regarding the amount of the charges to which any given class of goods is liable.

The principle of Customs information binding upon the Customs administration is, moreover, embodied in Article 15 of the Treaty of Commerce concluded between Austria and Germany on April 12th, 1930.

Ad Article 10.

The model identity card prescribed in the Geneva Convention has been explicitly adopted in the treaties with the Netherlands (March 28th, 1929, Article V), with Germany (April 12th, 1930, Article 6), with Hungary (June 30th, 1931, Article III of the Agreement regarding the Renewal of the Convention of February 8th, 1922), with Roumania (August 22nd, 1931, Article 20), and with Czechoslovakia (July 22nd, 1931, Final Protocol, *ad* Article X of the Convention of May 4th, 1921). Austria and Italy have also provided, by mutual agreement, for the substitution of the model contained in the Geneva Convention, to which they are both parties, for the model annexed to the Treaty of Commerce of April 28th, 1923.

As regards samples, the treaties with Germany (Article 13 (*h*)) and with Roumania (Article 19 (*f*) and Article 20) make reference to the provisions of the Geneva Convention. Under the treaty with Germany, the period allowed for re-exportation is extended to twelve months. Both these treaties also provide for the exemption of samples of articles made of precious metals from stamping, subject to the deposit of proper security.

In the new treaty with Yugoslavia (Article VII), the provisions of the old treaty are amplified by a clause relating to the refund of duties paid on importation.

Ad Article 11.

The treaties with Germany (Article 16) and with Roumania (Article 16) stipulate that, as a rule, certificates of origin shall not be required, and also contain detailed provisions on this subject in conformity with the principles of the Geneva Convention. In particular, the treaty with Germany also provides for the recognition of certificates of origin issued in the territory of either of the contracting parties in respect of the products of third countries. Furthermore, the treaty with Roumania (Article 13) provides for the recognition of certificates issued by the Customs offices of transit countries in respect of goods which during transit have been transhipped, repacked or placed in bond under the supervision of such offices.

Ad Article 13.

General provisions in keeping with the principles laid down by the International Convention of November 3rd, 1923, are to be found in Article 17 of the treaty with Germany and Article 17 of the treaty with Roumania; the latter expressly declares that the object of the contracting parties in introducing these stipulations was to comply with the provisions of the Geneva Convention.

In several cases, practical application has been given in the new treaties to the principle of the recognition of certificates issued by the competent authorities or institutions in the country of export :

A. Germany accepts certificates issued by authorised Austrian veterinary surgeons certifying the Noric breed and value of horses admitted at reduced rates of duty. (Note *ad* No. 100 of the German tariff.) The Austrian and German Governments undertook to come to an agreement upon the authorities competent to issue certificates of purity in respect of micaceous iron ore and also upon the particulars to be entered in such certificates (*ex* No. 329(*c*) of the German tariff).

B. Having agreed to a conventional duty in respect of the plum spirit known as "Tzuika" having an alcoholic content not exceeding 30 per cent in volume, Austria accepts certificates of origin issued by the competent Roumanian Chamber of Commerce or Agriculture certifying that the spirit is natural "Tzuika" (without addition of alcohol).

¹ For the text of the second summary, see document C.539.M.193.1929.II.

C. The protection afforded in Austria in regard to the item "Czechoslovak hops" applies only to hops provided with a certificate issued by the Czechoslovak Public Marks Bureau (Final Protocol, *ad* No. 50 in the Austrian tariff).

As regards crude pig-iron (Final Protocol, *ad* No. 365 (a) of the Austrian tariff), Austria accepts certificates issued by the laboratories of certain large Czechoslovak undertakings attesting the quality of the iron produced by those undertakings.

D. Under the treaty with Yugoslavia (Final Protocol *ad* No. 55 (d) of the Austrian tariff), Austria accepts certificates issued by Yugoslav veterinary surgeons testifying that pigs are of the "Mangalica" breed or are crossed with that breed.

The new treaty retains the provision regarding the acceptance of certificates relating to "Slibovitz", to which reference was made in the last summary.

Ad Article 14.

Ad No. 4. — The new form of International Customs Declaration, to which the League Secretariat's attention has already been drawn in the summaries submitted by other Governments, was introduced in Austria on February 1st, 1930 (Ordinance of December 31st, 1929, *Federal Legal Gazette* No. 17, ex 1930).

Ad No. 9. — The treaty with Germany provides for the exemption from duty of single copies of catalogues and current price lists.

The treaty with Yugoslavia provides for the exemption from duty of printed publicity matter for the promotion of tourist traffic in the territory of the other party.

Ad Article 16.

The treaties with Germany (Article 13 (e) and (g)) and with Roumania (Article 19 (d) and (e)) provide for the temporary exemption from duty of goods (with the exception of articles of consumption) sent to fairs or exhibitions, and of removal vans and cases which cross the frontier for the conveyance of objects out of the territory of one of the contracting parties into the territory of the other, even if, on the return journey, they carry a different load, irrespective of the place where such new load is taken up, provided always that they have not been employed in the interval for purely internal transport.

United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland

THIRD SUMMARY COMMUNICATED BY LETTER OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE OF DECEMBER 19TH, 1931.¹

The practice in the United Kingdom continues to be in general as described in detail in the report enclosed in the letter from this department of November 16th, 1925.

The procedure governing the importation of scientific specimens preserved in spirits has been simplified.

The obligations under Articles 4, 5 and 6 have been strictly observed.

India

THIRD SUMMARY COMMUNICATED BY LETTER OF THE INDIA OFFICE, DATED APRIL 18TH, 1933.²

Ad Article 1.

With a view to avoiding hindrance to the trade, the Government of India reduced the rates of transshipment fees at Rangoon.

Ad Articles 4 and 5.

The Government of India issued a consolidated set of passenger's baggage rules in place of different sets of rules which were previously in force at the various ports. The Government of India also incorporated in a single list for ease of reference all exemptions from duty which are not actually included in the Indian Tariff Act, 1894, and all reductions of duty below the rates quoted in the Tariff Act.

¹ For the text of the second summary, see document C.126.M.42.1929.II.

² For the text of the second summary, see document C.539.M.193.1929.II.

Ad Article 10.

On receipt of information from the League of Nations through the India Office concerning the ratification by the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, the United States of Brazil, the Estonian Republic, Poland, and the Latvian Republic, necessary steps were taken by the Government of India, in compliance with Article 10 of the Convention, to include the names of these countries to the list of privileged countries from which articles liable to Customs duty are, when imported as commercial traveller's samples or specimens, temporarily admitted without payment of the duty to which the goods are liable, subject to certain conditions. Copies of the resolutions issued by the Government of India on the subject were communicated to the League of Nations through the India Office.

Ad Article 11.

The organisations designated by the Hellenic Government and also certain offices and institutions in certain parts of the British Empire were approved by the Government of India as competent to deliver certificates of origin under Article 11 of the Convention.

During 1930, it was decided by the Government of India that all samples, whether imported by post or otherwise, should be exempted from the payment of Customs duty, subject to certain conditions. The orders of the Government of India on the subject are reproduced below.

"All samples, whether imported by post or otherwise, should be regarded as dutiable, unless :

"(a) The samples are practically valueless in that they are unfit for consumption or for any other use than as samples for inspection, or

"(b) The quantity of a consignment is not in excess of the quantity ordinarily sent as a sample to an individual customer or potential customer, provided that, in the case of goods the duty on which is high relatively to value (e.g., cigarettes), the quantity must be less than the ordinary unit of retail sale."

Sweden

THIRD SUMMARY COMMUNICATED BY LETTER OF THE MINISTER FOR FOREIGN AFFAIRS,
DATED MAY 10TH, 1933.¹

As stated in the report submitted for the three-yearly period May 1927 to April 1930, a new *Customs tariff (Tulltaxa)* was issued in Sweden during that period. That tariff was the outcome of a thorough technical revision of the previous tariff. The main object of the revision was to simplify Customs assessment and at the same time to set out more clearly the contents of the tariff. The new tariff does not differ appreciably from the old one as regards the level of protective duties and the method of providing protection for the various kinds of commodities.

A new list of the commodities covered by the Customs tariff (*Varuhandbok till Tulltaxeförordning och Tulltaxa*) has been drawn up, on the basis of this new Customs tariff, by the General Customs Administration. In cases where it has been deemed necessary, this list contains indications regarding the interpretation and application of the Customs tariff and other instructions designed to serve as a general guide for the Customs clearance of the various articles. The first part of this list contains instructions relating to Customs clearance, published at the end of 1931, while the second, containing reproductions of goods and an index, appeared in October 1932.

As regards Customs clearance, the need was felt for more detailed indications with regard to the examination of goods. The General Customs Administration accordingly published in June 1931 a *Handbook for the Technical Customs Examination of Goods (Handbok för Tulltekniska Varuundersökningar)*.

A copy of the list of commodities and of the handbook have been sent to the Secretariat under separate cover.

In order to facilitate Customs clearance and in the interests of importers and exporters, the Customs Administration has had a *Handbook of Laws and Ordinances (Författningshandbok)* drawn up, containing special provisions applicable to the importation or exportation of certain goods. This handbook is to be published next month.

Since the submission of the report for the three-yearly period 1927-1930, alterations have been made in the *Customs Ordinance (Tullstadgan)* and in the *Provisions concerning the Application of the Customs Tariff (Tillämpningsföreskrifterna till Tulltaxan)*, which are designed still further to facilitate and to simplify Customs formalities.

¹ For the text of the second summary, see document C.557.M.223.1930.II.

Geneva, May 22nd, 1933.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

ECONOMIC COMMITTEE

**REPORT TO THE COUNCIL ON THE WORK OF THE
THIRTY-NINTH SESSION.**

Held at Geneva from May 15th to 17th, 1933.

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The following members of the Committee were present:

- | | |
|---|--------------------------------|
| M. W. STUCKI (<i>Chairman</i>). | Mr. R. J. SHACKLE |
| M. F. DOLEZAL (<i>Vice-Chairman</i>). | (replacing Sir F. Leith-Ross). |
| M. C. BREBBIA. | M. M. BOCHKOVITCH |
| M. A. DI NOLA. | (replacing M. Todorovic). |
| M. P. ELBEL. | |
| M. N. ITO. | |
| M. F. VAN LANGENHOVE. | |
| Mr. H. A. F. LINDSAY. | |
| M. V. LUNDBVIK. | |
| M. F. PEROUTKA. | |
| M. H. E. POSSE. | |
| M. R. SCHÜLLER. | |

The following were also present:

- | | |
|---------------------|--------------------------|
| M. E. NECULCEA | } Corresponding Members. |
| M. J. A. NEDERBRAGT | |
| M. A. DE NICKL | |

I. APPOINTMENT OF OFFICERS FOR 1933.

The Vice-Chairman of the Committee for the previous year, M. W. Stucki (Switzerland), is acting as Chairman for the current year, as from January 1st. The Committee appointed M. F. Dolezal (Poland) Vice-Chairman until the end of the year.

II. PARTICIPATION OF THE ECONOMIC COMMITTEE IN THE LONDON MONETARY AND ECONOMIC CONFERENCE.

The Economic Committee had not met since June 1932. It had suspended its work for this lengthy period because it considered it inexpedient to carry on its activities simultaneously with those of the Preparatory Commission of Experts, which they would necessarily have duplicated.

However, it was anxious to hold a meeting on the eve of the London Conference, so as to afford its members the opportunity of exchanging frankly and freely their views on all the problems which will come before the Conference.

It naturally took as a basis of discussion the full and balanced survey included in the annotated agenda, which, as a whole, is in accordance with the ideas expressed on several occasions by the Economic Committee in its report to the Council. The Committee also took into account important events which have occurred, particularly in the monetary sphere, since this annotated agenda was drawn up. It was gratified to note the agreement reached a few days ago in the Organising Committee for the Conference, whereby eight States, which, from the economic standpoint, are among the most important, have undertaken to observe a Customs truce; this will enable the Conference to open in a calm atmosphere favourable to the conclusion of agreements the necessity for which is becoming more and more imperative. Moreover, the Committee feels sure that the other countries to which the Organising Committee has addressed a pressing invitation to accede to this truce will not fail to respond to the appeal.

It is therefore in circumstances which afford a happy augury for the successful outcome of the Conference, and with a knowledge of all the factors of the present situation, that the members of the Economic Committee have considered among themselves, taking into account the different national points of view, the most important problems, chiefly those of a commercial nature, and the various possible solutions.

The Economic Committee might easily have been tempted to submit, through its representatives at the Economic Conference, certain concrete suggestions relating to specific questions. It preferred not to do so, as it considers it useless to suggest partial solutions at the present stage, before the Governments have defined their attitude towards the general problems and before the course to be followed by the Conference is known. The Committee is further convinced that the Conference will have to deal with every aspect of the problem—monetary, financial and commercial—and that the various measures required in each sphere will be successful only if they are one and all inspired by a firm resolve on the part of Governments to relax the tension, to help each other and to promote reconstruction.

Nevertheless, the study which the Committee has devoted to certain questions and the preparatory work done by it in these matters may, when the time comes, afford material of some value for the adoption of the necessary decisions.

In this connection, the Committee was glad to note that, in addition to its participation in the Conference in an advisory capacity, as decided by the Council, the majority of its members will be included in their national delegations.

It was accordingly agreed that the members of the Economic Committee attending the London Conference should take every opportunity to hold more or less regular meetings among themselves, as the necessity arises, for the purpose of discussing with the freedom and frankness customary in the Economic Committee the various questions to be dealt with by the Conference.

Naturally, the Economic Committee—and its members present in London—will be only too glad to give the Conference any information which it may desire in regard to any question with which it or they may be competent to deal.

In pursuance of the Council resolution mentioned above, the Committee appointed to represent it at the Conference its Chairman, M. Stucki, or, failing him, its Vice-Chairman, M. Dolezal, and M. Di Nola.

III. WHEAT.

The Preparatory Commission of the Monetary and Economic Conference, in its annotated agenda (document.C.48.1933), mentioned wheat among other problems connected with the organisation of trade and production which called for consideration by the Conference. The Commission found it advisable that some of these problems should form the subject of preliminary

discussions, in order to prepare the way for the Conference, since the Conference itself will not be in a position to hold an exhaustive discussion on each individual subject.

The Economic Committee considered that an exchange of views between the experts representing the four principal wheat exporting countries—the Argentine, Australia, Canada and the United States—might give good results.

A special consultative meeting held in April last by the International Institute of Agriculture for the examination of the agricultural questions which are to be discussed at the Monetary and Economic Conference likewise reached the conclusion that the wheat problem should be studied in a practical manner and on the same lines by the principal oversea exporting countries prior to the London Conference.

The experts of these countries¹ met at Geneva from May 10th to May 17th, 1933, under the Chairmanship of M. Schüller (Austria), member and formerly Chairman of the Economic Committee.

They were able to obtain the technical assistance of M. Dore, head of the statistical services of the International Institute of Agriculture, which is preparing detailed documentary information regarding the wheat problem for the use of the Monetary and Economic Conference.

The results of the consultation are summarised in the appendix to the present report.

IV. SUGAR.

The Economic Committee, which has already dealt with this problem, received a request from the International Sugar Council that this question should be placed on the agenda of the Conference. The reason for this request is that the efforts of the States members of the International Sugar Council are to some extent thwarted by the increased production of certain countries which were not hitherto exporters.

The importance of this question has not been overlooked by the Economic Committee, but it realised that it was not in a position to amend the agenda drawn up by the Commission of Experts. Moreover, it observed that the question is implicitly included in the agenda under the heading "Organisation of Production".²

V. OTHER QUESTIONS.

The Economic Committee had placed on its agenda a number of other questions (draft International Customs Agreement regarding wool, veterinary questions, marks of origin, Customs technique, Customs barriers to maritime navigation).

The Committee noted the progress of the preparatory work and decided what further steps should be taken, in so far as these questions are not to be expressly dealt with at the London Conference. Only when the results of that Conference are known will it be able to define its future action.

Appendix.

REPORT ON THE WORK OF THE WHEAT EXPERTS WHO MET FROM MAY 10TH TO 17TH, 1933.

I. It will be remembered that, for some years past, considerable efforts have been made to effect a better organisation of the wheat market.

The agricultural experts, who were convened by the League's Economic Committee in January 1930 and 1931, devoted most of their attention to cereals.

The Wheat Conference which met at Rome on the initiative of the International Institute of Agriculture in April 1931 gave an opportunity for detailed and exhaustive discussions.

As the result of a proposal made at that Conference, eleven exporting countries—*i.e.*, the following overseas countries: the Argentine, Australia, Canada, the United States of America

¹ List of delegates:

<i>Argentine:</i>	M. BREBBIA, Commercial Attaché to the Legation of the Argentine Republic at Rome, member of the International Institute of Agriculture.
<i>Australia:</i>	Mr. F. A. MCDUGALL, Economic Adviser in London to the Commonwealth Government.
<i>Canada:</i>	Mr. RIDDELL, Dominion of Canada Advisory Officer.
<i>United States:</i>	Mr. Henry MORGENTHAU, former Ambassador.

² This observation also applies to the problem of *Timber*, to which the Committee had previously devoted its attention.

and India; and the following European countries: Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Roumania, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and Yugoslavia—met in London in May 1931 to endeavour to reach an agreement as to what concerted action might be taken, in respect mainly of export quotas, with a view to avoiding ruinous competition.

At their meeting at Geneva from May 10th to 17th, 1933, the experts of the oversea exporting countries endeavoured to draw the most helpful conclusions from the experience of previous conferences.

II. As the wheat crisis is continuing and even growing worse, it is being realised more and more clearly that it can only be combated by an international understanding. Since 1930, the slump in prices has been disastrous on the world market, while the main importing countries have been endeavouring to maintain home prices by means of a complicated system of intense agricultural protection—*i.e.*, constant increases in Customs duties, quantitative limitation of imports, reduction in the percentage of foreign wheat allowed for bread-making, indirect subsidies in the form of credits, direct financial assistance by the Public Treasury, etc. By these means, the prices in certain importing countries are, in some cases, three or four times as high as world prices.

These inconsistencies show that the situation is abnormal; in the protected importing countries the entire nation is making heavy sacrifices in order to maintain wheat production, while, in the exporting countries, the disastrous price-level almost entirely wipes out the purchasing power of the population.

Wherever the farmer is defenceless against the drop in prices, the fixed charges resulting from private or public debts weigh more heavily on him in proportion as prices fall. In some countries, if special measures of a quite exceptional character had not been taken, the enormous number of foreclosures for debts might have entailed the practical disappearance of entire classes of smallholders and peasants. Moreover, in many countries the pressure of indebtedness was such that the greater the fall in prices the more the farmer endeavoured to produce in the hope of making good his losses by increased production; this led to over-production and a further drop in prices.

It will be seen that the wheat crisis in one way or another affects almost all the countries of the world, whether importing or exporting. Wheat is in fact the foundation of the economic edifice, and the depression which it is experiencing lies at the root of the agricultural crisis; wheat plays the most important part in human food and in international trade. Consequently, every measure tending to reduce the difficulties of the wheat trade would be a powerful remedy for the agricultural crisis—that is to say, for the crisis in general.

III. Since the recent conferences, the position has not improved. To judge from the disastrous price level, it might be thought that there was enormous over-production. But if the figures for wheat production and consumption are compared and analysed, it will be found that the annual surpluses do not represent the difference in quantity which might be expected in view of the remarkable drop in prices.

In these circumstances, the difficulties in the way of readjusting production and consumption should not be insurmountable; the actual over-production is comparatively small.

But the wheat crisis takes the form of an accumulation of exportable stocks, concentrated mainly in the United States and Canada. The fact that this accumulation has coincided with a number of abundant harvests in the big producing countries has caused a glut on the market, and the surplus stocks are seriously affecting the position.

The gravity of the position is explained by a further factor: intensive agricultural production practised by importing countries is restricting the markets and causing cultivation to be developed and the yield to be intensified. According to the average of the years 1930 to 1932, the area under wheat has increased in the European importing countries by 9 per cent as compared with the average for the period 1927 to 1929. This increase was possible only by maintaining high home prices; in countries which did not take such protective measures, such as in the United Kingdom, no increase took place.

There is no doubt that, if progress is to be made in the economic sphere, a rise in prices on the world market is indispensable. The effects of the fall in prices which has taken place in recent years are truly disastrous.

Among natural products, wheat has suffered particularly. It dominates perhaps all other raw materials, both in respect of the quantity and value of production and of its share in world trade. The rise in grain prices would soon make its effect felt on the prices of other products, whether vegetable or animal.

IV. The problem can be solved only by international action as the outcome of exceptional circumstances.

The three main measures for this international action, which should be conceived as something provisional, would be

- (a) The limitation of production and possibly of exports;
- (b) The liquidation of stocks;
- (c) The maintenance of a reasonable import margin in European importing countries.

The experts thoroughly examined the first two points, and will resume their conversations in London on May 29th, after having consulted their Governments. Thanks to the progress already

made, it is hoped that definite conclusions may then be reached. As compared with the Wheat Conference of May 1931, the present meeting undoubtedly presents a new aspect of the greatest importance: on the American side, there exist equal possibilities for co-operation.

The action undertaken in the general interest naturally requires the collaboration not only of other exporting countries, which should accede to any international convention dealing with the volume either of production or of exports, but of the principal *importing countries* as well.

This action would be paralysed if the importing countries could not continue to rely upon a normal flow of exports towards the principal importing countries, whose participation in the proposed plan of recovery appears to be essential.

Representing as they do the classes engaged in land cultivation, which form the most stable basis of national economy, the experts were quite prepared to take into account the desire of European countries to secure adequate living conditions for their agriculturists. They have no intention of demanding the abandonment or modification of a protectionist policy deep-rooted in national sentiment; they merely wish to ask importing countries to apply this policy with the necessary moderation, so that they may play their proper part in a general plan for the restoration of prices. It must not be forgotten that, if combined action had a favourable effect on the curve of wheat prices, this would benefit every country in the world, whether importing or exporting, and would influence export prices and home prices alike. It would benefit such large masses of people that it would afford a valuable contribution to the solution of the general crisis. There is no question of a favour to be bestowed on certain countries or of a special sacrifice to be demanded of others. What is proposed is a common effort made in the common interest.

If the protectionist policy were actually confined to the maintenance of reasonable prices, an import margin would necessarily be left, because home production would not be artificially stimulated. But the combined effects of Customs duties, quotas, decrees regulating the use of foreign wheat in bread-making, etc., may at times lead to high home prices, which naturally lead in their turn to a further growth of home production.

But if importing countries are to be able to pursue an effective protectionist policy—*i.e.* to maintain at home a price in excess of the world price and sufficiently remunerative for agriculturists—those countries must still definitely remain importing countries. When once the home market is approaching saturation point and there remains only a very narrow margin between home production and home consumption, thenceforward the protectionist policy is perpetually at the mercy of the harvests. If these are good, the whole edifice erected by means of such great sacrifices will be imperilled and prices will slump. This is what recently happened in certain large countries which usually import wheat.

Once a country has achieved the ideal of self-sufficiency at which it has aimed, or has merely approached that goal, it will be on the verge of becoming an exporting country, and therefore any protectionist policy will become useless or will be seriously undermined. This observation, far from discouraging efforts, points on the contrary to the existence of a common ground of agreement, for obviously no importing country wishes to force up its home wheat prices to such a point as unduly to raise the cost of living or the costs of industrial production, thus making commercial relations and Customs adjustments with foreign countries singularly difficult.

V. After having consulted their Governments on the basis of the ideas exchanged in Geneva, the experts will meet again in London, a few days before the Monetary and Economic Conference. It is to be hoped that, after this second meeting, it may be possible for the four States whose wheat exports represent practically five-sixths of the world exports to submit to the other States, at the Monetary and Economic Conference, a programme and definite proposals.

[Communicated to the Council
and the Members of the League.]

Official No.: **C. 511. M. 256.** 1933. II. B.

Geneva, September 21st, 1933.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

**CONFERENCE OF WHEAT EXPORTING
AND IMPORTING COUNTRIES**

Held in London at the Offices of the High Commissioner for ~~Canada~~,
from August 21st to 25th, 1933.

FINAL ACT

SIGNED AT LONDON, AUGUST 25th, 1933,

APPENDICES AND MINUTES OF FINAL MEETING

Series of League of Nations Publications

II. ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL

1933. II. B. 4. ✓

FINAL ACT

OF THE

CONFERENCE OF WHEAT EXPORTING AND IMPORTING COUNTRIES

*Held in London at the Offices of the High Commissioner for Canada
from the twenty-first day to the twenty-fifth day of August
one thousand nine hundred and thirty-three.*

The GOVERNMENTS of GERMANY, AUSTRIA, BELGIUM, BULGARIA, FRANCE, the UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN IRELAND, GREECE, HUNGARY, IRISH FREE STATE, ITALY, POLAND, ROUMANIA, SPAIN, SWEDEN, CZECHOSLOVAKIA, SWITZERLAND, The UNION OF SOCIALIST SOVIET REPUBLICS, and YUGOSLAVIA, having accepted the invitation extended to them by the Secretary-General of the Monetary and Economic Conference on behalf of the Governments of ARGENTINE, AUSTRALIA, CANADA and the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, to take part in a Conference to consider the measures which might be taken in concert to adjust the supply of wheat to effective world demand and eliminate the abnormal surpluses which have been depressing the wheat market and to bring about a rise and stabilisation of prices at a level remunerative to the farmers and fair to the consumers of breadstuffs, have agreed as follows:

Article 1.

The Governments of Argentine, Australia, Canada and the United States of America agree that the exports of wheat from their several countries during the crop year August 1st, 1933 to July 31st, 1934 shall be adjusted, taking into consideration the exports of other countries, by the acceptance of export maxima on the assumption that world import demand for wheat will amount during this period to 560,000,000 bushels.

Article 2.

They further agree to limit their exports of wheat during the crop year August 1st, 1934 to July 31st, 1935 to maximum figures 15 per cent less in the case of each country than the average outturn on the average acreage sown during the period 1931-1933 inclusive after deducting normal domestic requirements. The difference between the effective world demand for wheat in the crop year 1934-35 and the quantity of new wheat from the 1934 crop available for export will be shared between Canada and the United States of America as a supplementary export allocation with a view to the proportionate reduction of their respective carry-overs.

Article 3.

The Governments of Bulgaria, Hungary, Roumania and Yugoslavia agree that their combined exports of wheat during the crop year August 1st, 1933 to July 31st, 1934 will not exceed fifty million bushels. This undertaking is made on the understanding that the aggregate may be increased to a maximum of fifty-four million bushels if the Danubian countries find that such a supplementary quota is required for the movement of the exportable surplus of the 1933 crop.

Article 4.

They further agree that their combined exports of wheat during the crop year 1934-1935 will not exceed a total of fifty million bushels and recognise that the acceptance of this export allocation will not allow of any extension of the acreage sown to wheat.

Article 5.

The Government of the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, while unable to give any undertaking in regard to production of wheat, agree to limit their exports for the crop year 1933-1934 to a figure which will be arrived at upon the completion of negotiations with the Governments of the overseas wheat exporting countries. They also agree that the question of their export of wheat during the crop year of 1934-1935 shall be the subject of further negotiations with the wheat exporting countries represented on the Advisory Committee.

Article 6.

The Governments of the wheat-importing countries in signing this instrument:

I. Agree henceforth not to encourage any extension of the area sown to wheat and not to take any governmental measures, the effect of which would be to increase the domestic production of wheat;

II. Agree to adopt every possible measure to increase the consumption of wheat and are prepared to bring about the progressive removal of measures which tend to lower the quality of breadstuffs and thereby decrease the human consumption of wheat;

III. Agree that a substantial improvement in the price of wheat should have as its consequence a lowering of customs tariffs, and are prepared to begin such adjustment of customs tariffs when the international price of wheat reaches and maintains for a specified period an average price to be fixed. It is understood that the rate of duty necessary to assure remunerative prices may vary for different countries, but will not be sufficiently high to encourage their farmers to expand wheat acreage.

Appendix A contains the agreed definitions relating to the technical points mentioned in this paragraph;

IV. Agree that in order to restore more normal conditions in world trade in wheat the reduction of customs tariffs would have to be accompanied by modification of the general regime of quantitative restriction of wheat imports and accept in principle the desirability of such a modification. The exporting countries for their part agree that it may not be possible to make substantial progress in these modifications in 1933-1934, but the importing countries are prepared to make effective alterations in 1934-1935 if world prices have taken a definitely upward turn from the average price of the first six months of the calendar year 1933. The objective of these relaxations of the various forms of quantitative restrictions will be to restore a more normal balance between total consumption and imports, and thereby to increase the volume of international trade in wheat. It is understood that this undertaking is consistent with maintaining the home market for domestic wheat grown on an area no greater than at present. It is obvious that fluctuations in the quantity and quality of the wheat harvest resulting from weather conditions may bring about wide variations in the ratio of imports to total consumption from season to season.

The obligations of the importing countries under this Agreement are to be interpreted in the light of the following declaration:

It is recognised that measures affecting the area of wheat grown and the degree of protection adopted are primarily dependent upon domestic conditions within each country, and that any change in these measures must often require the sanction of the legislature.

The intention of this Agreement is nevertheless that the importing countries will not take advantage of a voluntary reduction of exports on the part of the exporting countries by developing their domestic policies in such a way as to frustrate the efforts which the exporting countries are making, in the common interest, to restore the price of wheat to a remunerative level.

Article 7.

The countries participating in the Conference agree to set up a Wheat Advisory Committee to watch over the working and application of this Agreement. The functions, organisation and financial basis of this Committee are set out in Appendix B.

DONE at London, the twenty-fifth day of August, one thousand nine hundred and thirty-three, in a single copy which shall be deposited in the archives of the Secretariat of the League

of Nations and of which authenticated copies shall be delivered to all Members of the League of Nations and non-member States represented at the Conference of Wheat Exporting and Importing Countries.

ALLEMAGNE	E. H. RÜTER.	GERMANY
ARGENTINE	T. A. LE BRETON	ARGENTINE
AUSTRALIE	S. M. BRUCE	AUSTRALIA
AUTRICHE	L. WIMMER	AUSTRIA
BELGIQUE	C. BASTIN	BELGIUM
BULGARIE	P. H. MISCHEFF.	BULGARIA
CANADA	R. B. BENNETT M. A. MCPHERSON	CANADA
ESPAGNE	Luis CALDERÓN Agustin VELARDE.	SPAIN
ÉTATS-UNIS D'AMÉRIQUE	Frederick E. MURPHY	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
FRANCE	HALGOUET	FRANCE
GRÈCE	D. CACLAMANOS	GREECE
HONGRIE	DE WINCKLER	HUNGARY

ÉTAT LIBRE D'IRLANDE

IRISH FREE STATE

John W. DULANTY.
ad referendum

ITALIE

ITALY

G. B. CECCATO

POLOGNE

POLAND

T. GOEPPERT

ROUMANIE

ROUMANIA

E. MARIAN

ROYAUME-UNI

UNITED KINGDOM

H. F. CARLILL

SUÈDE

SWEDEN

K. LUNDBERG
ad ref.

SUISSE

SWITZERLAND

Ernest LAUR

TCHÉCOSLOVAQUIE

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Z. KONEČNY
ad ref.

UNION DES RÉPUBLIQUES
SOVIÉTISTES SOCIALISTES

UNION OF SOCIALIST
SOVIET REPUBLICS

A. GOUREVITCH

YUGOSLAVIE

YUGOSLAVIA

M. PILJA

Certified true copy.

For the Secretary-General:

Legal Adviser of the Secretariat.

APPENDIX A.

1. "International price of wheat", as mentioned in Article 6, paragraph III, of the draft agreement, shall be understood to mean a duty-free gold price c.i.f. on a world market.

This price shall be calculated according to the method followed by the Food Research Institute of Stanford University, California, (explained in Vol. 4, No. 8, of *Wheat Studies*). It is the average price of all parcels of imported wheat of all grades sold during each week in all the ports of Great Britain.

2. The Secretariat of the Wheat Advisory Committee set up by the Conference shall undertake the regular communication of indices of prices calculated as above to all Governments adhering to the Agreement.

3. The minimum average gold price calculated as indicated above to be maintained for a period of sixteen weeks before it will be necessary for importing countries to adjust their Tariffs shall be 12 gold francs per quintal (63.02 gold cents per bushel).

4. The period referred to in Article 6, paragraph III, of the Agreement, during which the average quotation for wheat is to be maintained before it will be necessary for importing countries to adjust their Tariffs shall be sixteen weeks.

5. Each country will decide upon its tariff adjustment in accordance with the principles enunciated in Article 6, paragraph III, of the draft agreement, and every considerable and lasting change in wheat prices shall be followed by an adjustment of Tariffs proportionate to such change.

APPENDIX B.

REPORT OF THE SUB-COMMITTEE ON THE CONSTITUTION OF A WHEAT ADVISORY COMMITTEE.

A Sub-Committee composed of representatives of Australia, Belgium, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, and the United States met on August 22nd to consider whether any, and, if so, what organisation should be set up in connection with the prospective Wheat Agreements. Mr. McDougall (Australia) was elected Chairman.

The present report contains a summary of the views exchanged in the Sub-Committee and the recommendations submitted by it to the Conference regarding the functions, composition and financial basis of the suggested Wheat Advisory Committee.

It is clear that the proposed body can only be temporary in character, as the agreements under which it may be set up are intended to deal with the immediate difficulties of the situation. No question arises of establishing any permanent committee entrusted with the task of supervising the production of and trade in wheat; it is simply proposed to set up a Committee to watch over the working and application of the agreements which may be arrived at. The Committee would be primarily advisory in character and would provide an opportunity for the representatives of Governments, fortified by the best available information, to review the way in which the several agreements were functioning. It would only take decisions in cases defined in the agreements.

The Committee's duties should be confined to the tasks outlined above, and should not extend to matters connected with the compilation of statistics, except as provided in Appendix A.

With the object of avoiding any overlapping the Advisory Committee should work in close co-operation with the Economic Organisation of the League and the International Institute of Agriculture.

As the work of the proposed Committee would be concerned with business rather than policy it should be small. It was recognised that the chief exporting countries—viz., Argentina, Australia, Canada and the United States—should be separately represented, and that the Danubian Countries should be entitled to a representative, as would the U.S.S.R. It was regarded as essential that importing countries should be represented as well as exporting countries.

It was at first suggested that the importing countries might be represented by two or three members, to be named by the Economic Committee of the League of Nations. But it appeared from the discussion in the Sub-Committee that it would be preferable that the committee should contain an equal number of representatives of importing and exporting countries. Subject to this it was agreed that the Committee should be given power to enlarge its membership if circumstances appeared to render such a course desirable.

Importing States to be represented might be selected according to one of two methods: either the importing countries participating in the Conference might make their selection while the Conference is still sitting, or the choice might be left to the Economic Committee of the League. It was felt that a decision on this matter should be left to the importing countries.

• In any case, the members of the Committee should be appointed as representatives of States, and not in their personal capacity.

The Advisory Committee would be authorised, if it considered that circumstances rendered such action necessary, to convene a general meeting of the States parties to the Agreements.

Various suggestions were made regarding the chairmanship of the Advisory Committee. Some members thought that the League of Nations might be requested to ask some person of recognised standing and undoubted impartiality to accept the post of Chairman. Others thought that in view of the exceptional importance to the exporting countries of the wheat question, it might perhaps be desirable that the Chairman should be chosen from among their representatives. It was finally agreed that the appointment of Chairman should be left to the Advisory Committee itself, which might be empowered to elect a Chairman from among its members or, if it appeared practicable and desirable, to select some other person of recognised standing.

The Sub-Committee was anxious to keep expenditure on the lowest possible basis. The staff employed should be small in number and might consist of a highly competent secretary with a technical assistant and a shorthand-typist.

The cost of representation at meetings should be borne by the several Governments represented on the Committee. The Committee itself would only be responsible for cost of the staff, office expenses and the travelling expenses of the staff in so far as that might prove necessary. It was considered that the annual appropriation for the committee need not exceed a total of sixty thousand gold francs. The suggested basis of contribution was that each country accepting the Wheat Agreements should contribute four gold francs per 100,000 quintals of the average quantity of wheat produced during a given period, and that the wheat-exporting countries should contribute a further eight gold francs per 100,000 quintals of wheat exported in an average year of the given base period.

The suggested basis of contributions towards the maintenance of the Advisory Committee are set out in the Annex to this Report.

The seat of the office of the Advisory Committee would be at London, but the Committee would be authorised to meet elsewhere if circumstances rendered it necessary.

Annex.

BASIS OF CONTRIBUTIONS TO ADVISORY COMMITTEE.

Country	Production 100,000 quintals Average 1928-29	Levy of 4 gold francs per 100,000 quintals	Net exports 100,000 quintals	Levy of 8 gold francs per 100,000 quintals Average 1928-29, 1931-32	Gold francs, total contribution
Canada	1,098	4,392	716	5,728	10,120
United States of America	2,379	9,516	350	2,700	12,316
Argentina	655	2,620	432	3,456	6,076
Australia	469	1,876	321	2,568	4,444
Roumania	327	1,308	38	304	1,612
Hungary	225	900	61	488	1,388
Yugoslavia	257	1,028	35	280	1,308
Bulgaria	138	552	12	96	648
Poland	197	788	5	40	828
U.S.S.R.	2,025	8,100	127	1,016	9,116
Lithuania	24	96	—	—	(96)
France	902	3,608	—	—	3,608
Italy	752	3,008	—	—	3,008
Spain	501	2,004	—	—	2,004
Germany	500	2,000	—	—	2,000
Czechoslovakia	146	584	—	—	584
Great Britain	121	484	—	—	484
Greece	46	184	—	—	(184)
Portugal	49	196	—	—	(196)
Sweden	74	296	—	—	296
Austria	35	140	—	—	(140)
Belgium	43	172	—	—	(172)
Denmark	30	120	—	—	(120)
Baltic States	15	60	—	—	(60)
Netherlands	17	68	—	—	(68)
Switzerland	11	44	—	—	(44)
					60,920 ¹

¹ The importing countries have agreed that the minimum contribution shall be 200 gold francs.

MINUTES OF FINAL MEETING.

The representatives of the countries specified hereunder met for the purpose of signing the Final Act of the Conference on August 25th, 1933—namely:

- Argentine:* M. A. F. BEYRO, Agricultural Counsellor of the Argentine Embassy in London.
- Australia:* The Rt. Honourable S. M. BRUCE, Australian Minister in London;
Mr. F. L. McDOUGALL, Economic Adviser to the Australian Government in London.
- Austria:* M. L. WIMMER, Austrian Chargé d'Affaires in London.
- Belgium:* M. C. BASTIN, Commercial Counsellor of the Belgium Embassy in London;
M. L. BORREMANS, Agricultural Attaché of the Belgium Embassy in London.
- Bulgaria:* M. P. H. MISCHEFF, Bulgarian Minister in London.
- Canada:* The Rt. Honourable R. B. BENNETT, Prime Minister for Canada;
The Hon. M. A. MCPHERSON, Provincial Treasurer;
Mr. N. A. ROBERTSON, Department of External Affairs.
- Czechoslovakia:* M. Z. KONEČNY, Consul in London.
- Denmark:* M. ROTTBOELL, Consul General in London.
- Estonia:* M. Villibald RAUD, Agricultural Attaché of the Estonian Legation in London.
- Finland:* M. Paul HJELT, Secretary of the Finnish Legation in London.
- France:* M. DU HALGOUET, Commercial Attaché of the French Embassy in London.
- Germany:* M. E. H. RÜTER, First Secretary to the German Embassy in London.
- Great Britain:* Lord DE LA WARR, Ministry of Agriculture;
Mr. R. R. ENFIELD, Ministry of Agriculture;
Mr. H. F. CARLILL, Board of Trade;
Mr. LIVINGSTONE, Ministry of Agriculture.
- Greece:* M. D. CACLAMANOS, Greek Minister in London;
M. NICOLAIDES, Commercial Attaché of the Greek Legation in Paris.
- Hungary:* M. DE WINCHKLER, Ministerial Counsellor, Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
- Irish Free State:* Mr. John W. DULANTY, High Commissioner for the Irish Free State.
- Italy:* M. G. B. CECCATO, Commercial Counsellor of the Italian Embassy in London;
M. G. MASSONE, Assistant Commercial Counsellor.
- Latvia:* M. ZOLMANIS, Commercial Attaché of the Latvian Legation in London.

- Lithuania:* M. GINEITIS, Agricultural Counsellor of the Lithuanian Legation in London.
- Netherlands:* M. A. MERENS, Consul General in London.
- Poland:* M. T. GOEPPERT, Commercial Counsellor of the Polish Embassy in London.
- Portugal:* Col. T. FERNANDES, Former Minister of Colonies.
- Roumania:* M. E. MARIAN, Director of the Roumanian National Export Institute.
- Spain:* M. Luis CALDERÓN, Consul General in London;
M. Agustin VELARDE;
M. Enrique PELAYO;
M. German BARAIBAR.
- Sweden:* M. K. LUNDBERG, Consul General *a.i.* in London.
- Switzerland:* M. Ernest LAUR, Director of the " Union Suisse des Paysans ";
Dr. BOREL, Assistant Director of the " Union Suisse des Paysans ".
- Turkey:* MEHMET MUNIR Bey, Ambassador in London;
KURTOGLU FAIK Bey, Commercial Attaché of the Turkish Embassy in London.
- Union of Soviet Socialist Republics:* M. A. GOUREVITCH, Chairman of " Arcos, Ltd. ".
- United States of America:* Mr. Frederick E. MURPHY;
Mr. L. W. STEERE, Agricultural Commissioner;
Mr. L. A. WHEELER.
- Yugoslavia:* M. PILJA, Chief of Department at the Ministry of Commerce and Industry.

The signatures are to be regarded as affixed in the light of the statements made during the discussions by the representatives of the various countries: these statements are contained in the minutes of the Conference, and are to be interpreted in the sense of paragraph IV of Article 6 of the Final Act.

The Act shall be deposited at the Secretariat of the League of Nations, in Geneva, and shall remain open for signature on behalf of other countries. It is understood that certain of the signatures have been affixed *ad referendum*.

These minutes have been read and unanimously approved by the Conference.

Geneva, November 17th, 1933.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

ECONOMIC COMMITTEE

**REPORT TO THE COUNCIL ON THE WORK
OF THE FORTIETH SESSION**

Held at Geneva from November 14th to November 17th, 1933.

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The following members of the Committee were present:

- | | |
|---|---|
| M. W. STUCKI (<i>Chairman</i>). | Dr. Guido COMOLLI (replacing M. Brebbia). |
| M. F. DOLEZAL (<i>Vice-Chairman</i>). | Sir Henry FOUNTAIN (replacing Sir Frederic
Leith-Ross). |
| M. A. DI NOLA. | Professor Jacob VINER (replacing Professor
Harvey Rogers). |
| M. P. ELBEL. | |
| M. N. ITO. | |
| M. A. DE NICKL. | |
| M. F. PEROUTKA. | |
| M. R. SCHUELLER. | |

Also present:

Dr. BRUINS (replacing M. Colijn, President of the Economic Commission of the Monetary
and Economic Conference).

I. APPOINTMENT OF OFFICERS FOR 1934.

The Vice-Chairman of the Committee for the previous year, M. F. Dolezal (Poland), is acting as Chairman for the year 1934 as from January 1st.
The Committee appointed M. Peroutka as Vice-Chairman for the same period.

II. ORDINARY WORK OF THE COMMITTEE.

I. GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

The brief session held by the Economic Committee from November 14th to November 17th, 1933, was almost entirely devoted to a consideration of the questions which had been referred to it by the London Conference.

Nevertheless, the members present at Geneva availed themselves of this opportunity to exchange views regarding the evolution of the crisis and the world situation. This exchange of views was greatly facilitated by the documentation prepared by the Secretariat.

The members thought that they could discern, in the diversity of methods employed at the present time by the various States, in order both to safeguard the very existence of their peoples and to restore their balance of payments, two main and contradictory tendencies.

The first was for a country to fall back on its own resources and close its frontiers to imports, even at the risk of renouncing exportation. This is the autarchic tendency. It finds its extreme expression in certain doctrines of economic nationalism, according to which all purchases made outside the country, all travel by tourists abroad, is a sort of offence against the higher interests of the home country.

The other—whatever method of negotiation may be employed—is for the parties to seek an improvement of their situation by increasing exports, rather than by the systematic and indefinite reduction of imports.

The Economic Committee can have no doubt as to the choice between these two tendencies and, even though it has not had to take a decision at the present session regarding the respective value of the methods likely to facilitate one or the other of these policies, it desires once again to point out how deadly the danger to international economy would be if certain sporadic efforts to achieve economic autarchy became general.

2. UNIFICATION OF CUSTOMS NOMENCLATURE.

With regard to the draft Customs nomenclature prepared by the Sub-committee of experts of the League of Nations and sent in November 1932 for study and observations to the Governments of States Members and non-members of the League of Nations, the Economic Committee first of all noted that, up to the present, only a few Governments had expressed their opinion on this draft. It recognised, however, that, as this draft had to be examined by Governments in consultation with the interested industrial and commercial circles, the task was a lengthy one and could not be completed in a few months, particularly by countries which were not represented on the Sub-committee of experts. The Committee nevertheless thinks it necessary that States should spare no effort to communicate their views on this draft to the Secretariat as soon as possible, it being understood that there is not and cannot be any question for the present of any further action than that of expressing a technical opinion on the draft. There is no question of undertaking to apply this draft in practice at a more or less early date.

It would, however, be of great value to the Secretariat to obtain, as soon as possible, the observations which the League of Nations' draft may have suggested to the various Governments. That would make it possible for the experts to bring the draft up to date by revision—an unavoidably long and difficult task—so that, when the right time came, there would be available a nomenclature corresponding as exactly as possible to the requirements of the various countries.

Although for all the reasons mentioned above it may be impossible at present, or even in the near future, to secure the application of a unified Customs nomenclature, the Committee feels that the great and indisputable utility of the draft authorises it to recommend that any Governments desirous of revising their tariffs should take account of the framework or, at any rate, certain chapters of the League of Nations' draft. It is encouraged to make these recommendations by the fact that certain countries have already used the experts' nomenclature when re-modelling their tariffs and that for the nomenclature of certain given chapters—such as the chapters for silk, wool and wine—the great international associations concerned have already stated that they endorse the work of the experts.

III. FURTHER ACTION TO BE TAKEN IN CONNECTION WITH CERTAIN SUBJECTS DEALT WITH BY THE LONDON MONETARY AND ECONOMIC CONFERENCE.

In the resolutions adopted by the Bureau of the Monetary and Economic Conference, when the latter decided to suspend its work, mention is made of a number of questions entrusted to the

Economic Commission on which it was proposed that work should continue. The Bureau of the Conference and its Executive Committee instructed His Excellency M. Colijn, President of the Economic Commission, to take all necessary steps to secure such continuation.

Moreover, the Council of the League of Nations, taking into consideration certain suggestions of the Conference, decided, on September 28th, 1933, by giving general powers to the Economic Committee, to establish a close but elastic collaboration between the Executive Committee of the Conference (and in particular the President of the Economic Commission of the Conference) and the Economic Committee of the League, the extent and form of such collaboration to be determined by agreement according to the needs of each particular case.

Under these circumstances, the Economic Committee invited M. Colijn to consider with it how the suspended work might best be continued. Being prevented by his duties from attending, M. Colijn was good enough to send Dr. Bruins to represent him.

The opinion of the Committee on each of these questions is given below.

I. VETERINARY QUESTIONS.

(a) *Procedure in connection with the Three Draft Conventions framed by the Economic Committee.*

By unanimous resolution, the London Monetary and Economic Conference requested the Council of the League of Nations to be good enough to submit, as soon as possible, three draft Veterinary Conventions¹ to an international diplomatic Conference and to fix the date of this Conference at its September 1933 session.

The Council, while deciding in principle to summon the Conference next year, nevertheless thought it necessary to ask the Economic Committee to lay before it a report reviewing the opinions expressed by the various Governments as to the advisability of holding the Conference at an early date. This report, based on an impartial examination of the matters to be settled and on the replies received from the various Governments, was also to state what method the Committee thought best calculated to bring about the international agreement to which the three draft Conventions in question are directed.

M. Colijn, in view of the decision of the Council concerning collaboration between the Economic Committee and the Executive Committee of the Conference, also requested the Economic Committee to express their views on this subject.

After careful examination, the Economic Committee has come to the conclusion that, before convening a General Conference, it will be desirable for the Executive Committee of the Monetary and Economic Conference to arrange for certain interim measures the details of and reasons for which are set out below.

In view of previous experience, there is reason to doubt whether the method of simply holding a meeting of all the Members and non-member States of the League of Nations to discuss subjects directly concerning only a limited number of them is that which offers the best prospects of success. The question arises whether this method could not usefully be replaced, at any rate in cases like the present, by a simpler one, consisting in first of all bringing together the countries most directly concerned by means, for example, of preliminary or partial meetings. If a genuinely useful agreement between these countries proved impossible, what would be the use of convening a great Conference which would encounter the same difficulties? Moreover, it is to be feared that, as has often happened before, the Conference, wishing to arrive at the conclusion of a Convention at all costs, might eventually deprive the original texts of all real value. If, on the contrary, a basis of agreement could be found among the parties most directly concerned, there would be much more prospect of the other countries seeing their way to accede to it later.

It should be remarked in support of this view that the Monetary and Economic Conference clearly contemplated recourse to a procedure of this kind. In the resolution in which it instructed its Bureau to take the necessary steps to ensure the successful completion of its work, it expressly gave it full freedom to convene, when it thought fit, "the representatives of States especially concerned in any particular problem".

An examination of the objects aimed at by the three draft Conventions suggests similar considerations. These three drafts concern (1) the organisation of the veterinary services, (2) the transit of animals, meat and other products of animal origin, (3) the export and import of products of animal origin (other than meat, meat preparations, etc.).

The three Conventions are closely connected with one another by the fact that the existence of an official veterinary organisation corresponding to the requirements laid down in draft No. 1 constitutes, for any given country, an *indispensable condition* for becoming entitled to the advantages derived from participation in the other two Conventions (see Article 1 of drafts Nos. 2 and 3).

It is well known, however, that a number of countries, particularly outside Europe, do not yet possess the requisite veterinary organisation; their participation in a general Conference would therefore not be of any immediate value, either to themselves or to other countries; while they may always secure the benefit of any conventions which may be concluded by subsequently acceding thereto as soon as they fulfil the necessary conditions.

The second draft refers chiefly to transit by land, and here again we find, particularly outside Europe, but even in certain parts of that continent, a considerable number of countries for whom

¹ These drafts, which have been drawn up by the Economic Committee, are given as Appendix IV to the Report of the Economic Committee of the Council on the Work of its Thirty-fifth Session, document C.427.M.177.1933.II.B., of January 24th, 1933.

this question is of almost entirely theoretical interest, owing to their geographical position or the special conditions existing in the territory.

Taking the foregoing considerations into account, it hardly seems that the immediate convocation of a general Conference would be the best way of securing the international agreement aimed at by the three drafts. The choice of a simpler procedure answering better to the real situation therefore seems to be indicated. This procedure might consist in holding a preliminary meeting of representatives of a limited number of countries whose co-operation seems essential.

If, in the course of this meeting, the delegates of these countries arrive at a full or partial agreement, some of them at least might undertake to recommend its acceptance to their Governments. It would then be possible to decide on the best procedure to follow in laying the agreement thus concluded before the other countries, either at a general Conference convened for this purpose, or on the occasion, for example, of the convocation of a further session of the Monetary and Economic Conference. This procedure would further have the advantage of permitting of a comparatively early convocation of the preliminary meeting in question.

In view of the considerations briefly referred to below, the Economic Committee suggests that the first meeting should be confined to the following countries:

Austria,	Hungary,
Belgium,	Italy,
United Kingdom, ¹	The Netherlands,
Bulgaria,	Poland,
Czechoslovakia,	Roumania,
Denmark,	Switzerland,
France,	Yugoslavia.
Germany,	

Apart from reasons based on past experience, this composition would be justified in view of the following considerations:

1. A large number of countries not figuring in this list do not, on their own admission, possess the veterinary organisation required by draft No. 1. The extent and state of their territory and their geographical situation make it difficult for them to create such an organisation in the near future.

It is true that certain countries outside Europe are undoubtedly very closely interested in the exports of the products dealt with in draft No. 3, but the difficulties which prevent them rapidly constituting a complete veterinary service in their territory would render the value of their immediate participation in the proceedings very problematical.

Moreover, certain other countries, while possessing the requisite organisation, cannot anticipate that they will be able to comply with the rules laid down in drafts Nos. 2 and 3, owing to the absence of this organisation in adjacent countries.

2. All countries are theoretically interested in an improvement in conditions of *transit*, but it is more especially in the case of the countries enumerated above that this problem presents particular importance, and even involves semi-political issues.

The fact cannot be disregarded that, within the circle of these countries there exists, rightly or wrongly, what might be called an historical suspicion of disguised protection or of more or less arbitrary discrimination, a suspicion which creates a perpetual atmosphere of anxiety and discontent, harmful to good understanding and commercial relations between the countries concerned.

3. As will be seen from their communications, certain Governments do not, owing to their geographical situation or the special conditions existing in their territory which differ from those of countries having very extensive land frontiers, for the moment entertain the possibility of becoming parties to the three veterinary Conventions.

This was the attitude of the United Kingdom Government. It nevertheless seems to be essential that the United Kingdom should be invited to participate, at least in a consultative capacity, in the proposed meeting. That country possesses a veterinary organisation which is everywhere recognised to be admirable, and might therefore contribute most usefully to the final framing of draft No. 1.

4. The choice of the countries which should, in the first instance, take part in this meeting should naturally not preclude other countries from participating, if they express a wish to do so.

(b) *Problems connected with the Exportation and Importation of Meat.*

The Conference adopted a resolution asking the Economic Committee to examine, "with the co-operation of a body of special experts and taking into account the conclusions of the International Institute of Agriculture at Rome (1928) and the Institut international du Froid (1932), the whole series of problems relating to the importation and exportation of fresh and preserved or prepared meat."

It also "expressed the hope that the veterinary work in connection with the export and import of cattle would be continued".

The Economic Committee had already been dealing with these two questions. It had always thought that the problem of meat was, in spite of all its inherent difficulties, more likely to be

¹ See below.

solved by one or more international agreements than the important question of the import and export of cattle, the extraordinary and special complexity of which is admitted by all.

Nevertheless, the Economic Committee is bound to recognise that the present time is not a very favourable one for undertaking a study of this kind.

The Institut international du Froid, an official organisation created in Paris under an international Convention of June 21st, 1920, which has already considered the unification of the methods of inspecting frozen and chilled meat, has made an offer to the Secretariat to cause its Sub-Committee of veterinary experts to draw up a preliminary report *of a purely scientific and technical nature* on the problems of international regulation of the meat trade. This report might form a preliminary basis for discussion with a view to subsequent action.

The Economic Committee is of opinion that this offer should be accepted and that the Institut international du Froid should be asked to furnish this report, if possible within three months, whereafter the Committee might express an opinion as to the procedure to be followed.

2. PHYTOPATHOLOGICAL QUESTIONS.

The competent Sub-committee of the London Monetary and Economic Conference asked the International Institute of Agriculture at Rome "to study, with the assistance of specially qualified experts representing importing countries as well as exporting countries, and with the collaboration of the Economic Committee of the League of Nations, the scientific and technical questions involved in the control of the importation and exportation of plants and other vegetable products".

The International Institute of Agriculture at Rome has long been dealing with these questions. On the proposal of the Institute, and under its auspices, there was concluded on April 16th, 1929, the International Convention for the Protection of Vegetable Products, which defines clearly and in detail the general principles which the signatory countries should observe in their own territories.

This Convention, though signed by more than twenty States, has only been ratified by eight.

After hearing M. Brizi, Secretary-General of the International Institute of Agriculture, the Economic Committee felt that it would be desirable to recommend the Institute to make enquiries as to the precise reasons for which many countries, and particularly the principal importing countries, had remained aloof from this Agreement.

3. CUSTOMS FORMALITIES.

I. At the London Monetary and Economic Conference, the Sub-Commission on Indirect Protectionism in general concluded, *inter alia*, "that, as regards certain questions relating to indirect protectionism, especially questions of Customs formalities, the work of the Economic Committee of the League of Nations is sufficiently advanced to allow of the convening of a special Conference on these matters at an appropriate date".

II. The Committee has re-grouped this work in the following manner:

(1) A preliminary draft International Agreement for the purpose of facilitating commercial propaganda;

(2) Draft International Rules applicable to the notion of weight (gross, net) and to the regime of tares and packing;

(3) Amplification of certain provisions of the International Convention for the Simplification of Customs Formalities.

III. As regards the *first two groups of questions*, the proposals resulting from the preparatory work have been drawn up by a Committee of highly qualified experts, which was specially convened to examine these problems. The Administrations concerned were then consulted semi-officially upon both groups of proposals. This consultation went to show that there was substantial agreement upon the underlying principles of the drafts. As, however, these questions concern two quite distinct sections of Customs legislation, the Committee has preferred to submit them as two separate groups. The fate of one need not therefore necessarily influence that of the other.

A. The first group concerning *commercial propaganda* aims at facilitating this propaganda in its various forms and at unifying and simplifying to the greatest possible extent the formalities in regard to it which are involved by the existence of frontiers.

The three chief methods by which a producer or trader can make his products known are: The sending of specimens or small samples to prospective purchasers; the sending to such persons of catalogues, price lists, pamphlets, explanatory notices, illustrations, etc., and, lastly, the visiting of actual or potential customers by travellers with their collections of models and samples.

As regards the tourist traffic and watering-places or holiday resorts, as well as artistic manifestations, exhibitions, fairs, markets, etc., the chief method is the sending of posters and pamphlets.

These various methods of commercial propaganda provide the framework and the basis for the logical division of the draft.

It would appear that, in a form which in no way affects commercial policy, but simply seeks to facilitate the spread of knowledge of new products and of the touristic, therapeutic,

artistic and economic resources of the different countries, such a draft should not meet with any opposition of principle. Whatever their Customs policy, it is to the advantage of all countries to make known what they can offer to others. The draft also embodies the equitable principle of giving every producer, however small or far removed he may be from the main markets, an opportunity of making his products known and appreciated. Lastly, it gives the consumer or user a wider choice and a better opportunity of satisfying his needs and tastes.

B. The second group aims at unifying, with a view to simplification and greater intelligibility, a series of rules, at present variously expressed in different Customs legislations, by seeking to establish a *uniform interpretation of the different conceptions of weight* according to which specific Customs duties are levied or statistics drawn up, *for the estimation or determination of tares and for the Customs treatment of packing.*

To avoid any misunderstanding, it should be emphasised that the purpose of the draft is solely to reach an agreement on definitions of weight, on the application of tares and on the Customs treatment of packing and not to modify in any way the existing rules for the application of specific tariffs.

The existing state of affairs, due to the diversity of these rules, occasions many difficulties, as is testified by the circles concerned. Unification would remove these difficulties without materially affecting the rules in force. It would lead, moreover, to a very material improvement in commercial statistics by standardising for all countries the notions of net weight, gross weight, etc., on which the figures for these statistics are established.

Judging by the interest shown by commercial circles and statisticians in the preparatory work of the Economic Committee in this connection, this unification, although covering only a part of the subject matter originally proposed, appears to possess definite value.

IV. The Economic Committee is satisfied as to the utility of following up the initiative taken by the Monetary and Economic Conference in the sphere of Customs technique. Nevertheless, the nature of the proposed agreements does not seem to justify the setting in motion of the complicated machinery represented by the convocation of a conference to which all States would be invited. It accordingly suggests to the President of the Economic Commission of that Conference the adoption of the following procedure, which seems more likely to lead to the desired result.

In view of the fact that, in their present form, the two drafts have not yet been submitted for consideration by the Administrations concerned, it seems desirable that they should be forwarded by the President of the Economic Commission to a certain number of Governments, who would at the same time be invited to send an expert to a meeting, the date of which would be fixed by the President later on, for the examination of the substance of the two drafts with a view to their final revision. Before this meeting, the Governments invited would be requested to have the texts examined by their competent services. The latter should be asked to study with particular care, in consultation with trade interests, the means of bringing about the important simplification which the introduction of *carnets de passage en douane* might mean for commercial travellers. These Governments would then transmit their observations to the Secretariat, which would proceed to adjust the texts in the light of these observations, and would communicate them, with the revised drafts, to the Governments consulted. The date of the meeting would then be fixed, and, at the close of its work, the question of subsequent procedure might usefully be considered.

V. The Economic Committee also expressed the opinion that the designation of the countries to be invited to this meeting should be left in the hands of the President of the Economic Commission. It nevertheless considers that in making this choice special account should be taken of the first group of questions—that of commercial propaganda—which is of primary interest to countries with varied production and industrial exports. It should be remarked that, apart from special cases, which might be taken into consideration, these countries are also the most important markets for such products. Account should be taken incidentally of the second group of questions, and invitations issued in particular to countries which apply the provisions of the Convention on the Simplification of Customs Formalities.

VI. As regards the *third group* of questions examined by the Economic Committee, the consultation of the Administrations concerned, which was undertaken on the completion of the preliminary work, has not yet indicated clear conclusions. Many important replies are still awaited. The Committee therefore asked the Secretariat actively to pursue this consultation and then to collect in a general publication the results of the preparatory studies and of the consultation.

At the same time, the Secretariat was instructed to make an examination of those points in the Convention for the Simplification of Customs Formalities the further development of which had already been provided for in the Convention itself or requested by the interests concerned.

The Economic Committee is convinced that the continuation of this technical work is necessary for the gradual preparation of a revision of the said Convention or of a supplement to this Convention—a project which might once more be brought forward when more stable commercial conditions seem to render it possible and desirable.

4. MARKS OF ORIGIN.

The Sub-Commission which dealt with this question, in the report that it submitted to the London Monetary and Economic Conference, requested the Bureau of the Conference "to ensure the continuation of its work".

M. Colijn requested the Economic Committee to give him its opinion on the desirability of holding a new meeting of this Sub-Commission immediately.

Some of the members of the Economic Committee took the view that a resumption of the London Committee's work could lead to only insignificant results and not to any substantial improvement in the situation. Others, however, held that, on the basis of the Conference's work, there was reason to hope that certain alleviations in the application of the laws regarding marks of origin could be secured, and that these alleviations would be of considerable practical importance to manufacturers and traders. The information supplied by certain members to the Committee as regards their Administration's attitude on the subject convinced the Committee, however, that the chances of bringing about a serious improvement in the situation of which a certain number of countries complained were too uncertain to justify the Committee in recommending the convocation of the Sub-Commission in question at the present time.

5. CO-ORDINATION OF PRODUCTION AND MARKETING.

The Committee considered the various possibilities arising in connection with the products enumerated in this section, in the light of and within the limits of the principles laid down by the London Conference.

(a) *Foodstuffs.*

Dairy Products. — The London Monetary and Economic Conference invited the International Institute of Agriculture, in agreement with the International Agricultural Commission, the International Dairy Federation and the Economic Committee of the League of Nations, to make a preliminary study of the question of dairy products. M. Colijn entrusted Dr. Laur (Switzerland) with a preliminary enquiry with a view to ascertaining the best method to follow in the examination of this complex problem. The results of the enquiry have been laid before the Economic Committee, which has also been informed by M. Brizi of the work done by the International Institute of Agriculture. It does not desire, however, to make any special suggestions, and would confine itself to transmitting the opinion expressed by Dr. Laur—viz., that the question might be pursued by summoning a meeting of representatives of a certain number of countries to consider the desirability and nature of any future action.

Sugar. — The international Sugar Council has informed the Economic Committee of the course of its negotiations with the countries concerned. It appears from the information received that these negotiations are continuing but have not yet reached a point at which it is possible to consider the calling of a meeting with a prospect of arriving at the conclusion of a general agreement.

Wine. — The Economic Committee has taken note of the decisions of the International Institute of Agriculture which, at the request of the International Wine Office, is convoking a meeting of experts next spring for the purpose of preparing an international convention for the unification of the manner of presenting the results of the analysis of wines.

(b) *Raw Materials.*

Timber. — The London Conference set up a Sub-Committee on timber which decided to postpone its discussions until the beginning of October 1933, in order to allow of the consideration by the different countries of the possibility of preparing and concluding agreements with regard to the export of softwood, sawn or planed, and of the collection in the meantime by the International Timber Committee of all requisite statistical material.

The Economic Committee has taken the opinion of the circles concerned with the production and export of timber, and recommends the President of the Economic Commission to summon, if possible during December 1933, a meeting of the representatives of a certain number of countries exporting the kinds of timber referred to above, under the chairmanship of M. Lesage (France), Chairman of the Sub-Committee on Timber. It is not proposed that the meeting should consist of representatives of the Governments but only of experts, and that, following upon it, a new meeting might be called of the countries represented on the Timber Committee, with the addition of others if thought desirable.

Coal. — The London Conference invited the principal coal producers to make an effort "to organise coal production on an international basis, on the understanding that the agreements to be reached shall be followed and supplemented, if necessary, by agreements with the importing countries". The competent organisations of the League of Nations were instructed to follow these efforts and the Council of the League of Nations was invited to convene a Conference of the principal producing and consuming countries to study what measures should be taken if the results referred to have not been achieved within a time-limit of six months.

From information obtained by the Secretariat, it appears that the British owners do not think it possible at the moment to take any initiative in the matter of negotiations between the producing countries. They also consider that an international meeting of the kind proposed by the Monetary and Economic Conference would have only very slight chances of yielding practical results.

Copper. — The Sub-Committee which dealt with this question at the London Conference came to the conclusion that a meeting should be convened to consider whether an agreement for the limitation of production and regulation of marketing is desirable and practicable.

In view of the divergent opinions which have been expressed, both as regards the desirability of a meeting and the manner of organising it, if it should take place, it was decided to submit to the Governments concerned various suggestions for possible forms of procedure.

From the replies received, it was found that the majority of Governments concerned considered that, in view of the high degree of organisation of the copper industry, it would be preferable to leave it to the producers themselves to take the initiative in regard to an international settlement of this problem. It is, however, to be noted that the United States Government is still ready to support the general idea of an international agreement in regard to the production of and trade in copper.

Tin. — According to the information in the possession of the Secretariat, the negotiations with which the International Tin Committee was entrusted in pursuance of the report of the Sub-Committee of the London Conference are proceeding satisfactorily.
