

THE ECONOMIC REVIEW

A REVIEW OF THE FOREIGN PRESS
AND
A JOURNAL OF POLITICAL ECONOMY
[REGISTERED AT THE G.P.O. AS A NEWSPAPER.]

VOL. XIII. No. 14.

APRIL 2, 1926.

PRICE 1S. WEEKLY

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EDITORIAL, SUBSCRIPTION AND
ADVERTISING OFFICES—

Metron, Istituto di Statistica,
R. Università, Padua (Italy).

London Agents: P. S. KING & SON, Ltd.,
Orehard House, Westminster, S.W.1.

CONTENTS

ECONOMIC SURVEY

DENMARK	283
Economic and Trade Conditions in February	
FINLAND	283
Position of the Bank of Finland	
Bank Dividends	
Conditions on the Money Market	
The Balance of Trade in 1925	
Industrial Survey	
Prospects in the Timber Market	
Railway Extension Difficulties	
GERMANY	285
Results of Banking in 1925	
Trade in Potash in 1925	
The Coal Output in 1925	
Mining Company Reports	
Provisional Census Results	
Migration Statistics for 1925	
RUSSIA	287
General Economic Conditions	
Changes in the Import Trade	
Cotton Cultivation Plans	
General Agricultural Situation	
Railway Transport	
SPAIN	290
Annual Report of the Bank of Spain	
Treasury Receipts	
The Coal Crisis	
The Agricultural Situation	
Official Crop Returns for 1925	

YUGO-SLAVIA	291
Yugo-Slavia as a Maritime State	
The Foreign Debt	
Treasury Receipts	
Workers' Insurance	
SOUTH AMERICA	294
<i>Bolivia</i> .—Budget for 1926	
Loans for Railway Extensions	
Foreign Trade in 1924	
<i>Brazil</i> .—Policy of the new President	
Public Finances in 1925	
Bank of Brazil's Contract with the Government and Half-yearly Report	
Foreign Trade Returns	
Tariff Alterations	
Cotton Production 1924-25	

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE.

French Politics and Finance	296
Foreign Bank Rates	296

SPECIAL ARTICLES

The Mineral Resources of the Far East	297
---------------------------------------	-----

THE ECONOMIST'S BOOKSHELF

A Study of Indian Monetary Problems...	300
Short Notices	301
Publications Received	301

STATISTICAL SECTION

The Trade Barometer	302
The Paper Currencies	303
Security Prices	303

THE ECONOMIC REVIEW.

Editorial Offices :

6, JOHN STREET, ADELPHI, LONDON, W.C. 2.

Telephone : Gerrard 1396.

Subscription Rates (Post free, home or abroad)

1 YEAR	-	£2 : 12 : 6
6 MONTHS	-	£1 : 7 : 6

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April 2, 1926

Price 1s. Weekly

ECONOMIC SURVEY

The following Survey is strictly impartial both in content and in selection, and is in no way subject to the influence of Editorial opinion.

DENMARK

POLITICAL AND GENERAL

Economic and Trade Conditions in February.—The National Bank of Copenhagen and the Danish State Statistical Department supply the following information on economic and industrial conditions in Denmark in February.

The official Danish retail price index number is published twice a year, in August and in February. The index number for August is calculated on the prices of the first week in April and July, and that of February on the prices in October and January. The index number published in February last was 194, thus showing a reduction of 12 per cent. on the index number for August.

Salaries and wages in Denmark are on the whole regulated automatically according to the index number, and the unexpected fall, which showed that the home price level to a large extent had adjusted itself to the increase in the external value of the krone, caused a further fall in the foreign exchange, which had remained largely unchanged since January, when the gold value of the krone was about 92 öre. In the course of a few days the Danish krone improved to a gold value of 96–97 gold öre, and has since remained at that figure.

The deposits and loans of the three principal private banks have remained largely unchanged since the end of January. The loans of the National Bank were reduced to the extent of over Kr.20 million, from Kr.278 mill. to Kr.256 mill., while at the same time the currency holdings of the Bank increased from Kr.64 mill. in January to Kr.73 mill. at the end of February.

The amount of notes in circulation has decreased to the extent of Kr.4 mill. since the end of January, viz. from Kr.403 mill. to Kr.399 mill., and is now Kr.55 mill. less than last year.

The turnover of shares and bonds on the Copenhagen Stock Exchange was rather small, the weekly average being for shares Kr.3.5 mill., for bonds Kr.2.2 mill. as against Kr.4.0 and Kr.1.4 mill. in January.

The index number for Stock Exchange quotations remained almost unchanged, the share index number for February being 95.1 (in January 95.0) and that for bonds 86.7 (in January 86.6), taking 100 at July 1, 1914, as the basis of comparison. As far as shares are concerned there were, however, considerable fluctuations: thus shipping shares showed a decrease, while others were quoted higher than in January.

The wholesale price index number calculated by the Statistical Department has fallen 7 points, from 172 to 165; the decrease is due to a decline in the prices of raw materials in the world market, and also, as far as the agricultural industry is concerned, to the rise in the value of the krone. At the same time some half-finished and finished goods have been reduced in price in consequence of the reduction of wages according to the retail index number for February.

The trade balance for January shows imports up to Kr.147 mill. and exports to Kr.121 mill., leaving an adverse trade balance of Kr.26 mill. as against one of

Kr.20 mill. in January 1925. The agricultural return for February show a larger export of butter, but a smaller export of other agricultural produce. The average weekly export of butter was 24,268 hkg. (in January 23,819 hkg.); of eggs, 476,800 score (in January 633,200 score); of bacon and pigs, 34,558 hkg. (in January 36,290 hkg.); and of meat and cattle, 9,115 hkg. (in January 11,948 hkg.).

Prices ruled higher for butter, but lower for other produce, than in January. The average weekly quotations were for butter, Kr.348 (in January Kr.325) per 100 kg.; for eggs, Kr.1.83 (in January Kr.2.50) per kg.; for bacon, Kr.1.91 (in January Kr.2.01) per kg.; and for meat, 54 öre (in January 57 öre) per kilogramme live weight.

There was less unemployment in February than in the preceding month, but still more than in the corresponding month last year. The unemployment percentage was 23.3 per cent. as against 16.8 per cent. in February 1925. In the industrial trades the percentage was 23.4 as against 12.6 last year.

The State revenue from Excise and Customs in February was Kr.16.3 mill., of which Kr.5.9 mill. was derived from Customs duties. In February 1925 the corresponding figures were Kr.14.4 and Kr.4.6 mill. respectively.

FINLAND

FINANCE

Position of the Bank of Finland.—The establishment of the gold basis in Finland as from the beginning of 1926 by virtue of the new Currency Act promulgated in December 1925 has caused considerable changes in the balance-sheet of the Bank of Finland. The gold reserve has been revalued and increased accordingly from 43.3 mill. to 331.6 mill. The enhanced value of 288.3 mill. thus obtained has been added to the original capital, which has been still further augmented by the addition of sums already reserved out of profits. In this way the capital has been increased from 100 mill. to 500 mill. and the reserve fund stands now at 50.7 mill.

Notwithstanding repeated reductions of the bank rate, the Bank of Finland shows a very good profit for 1925. After writing down the value of bonds by 34 mill. and allowing for other depreciations, the profit amounts to 82.7 mill. At the end of 1925 the position of the Bank was very satisfactory. Notes in circulation totalled F.Mk.1,309.3 mill., deposits amounted in value to 557.1 mill. The note cover held by the Bank exceeded the Bank's engagements by 763.4 mill. (*Mercator.*)

Bank Dividends.—That 1925 may be considered a satisfactory banking year for the Finnish banks may be deduced from an examination of the dividend proposals of such banks as have issued their annual reports. The following table, published in *Mercator*, shows some of these in comparison with the dividends paid in 1924 and 1923:—

	1925.	1924.	1923.
Nordiska Föreningsbanken ...	18	18	18
Unionbanken ...	9	9	6
Helsingfors Aktiebank ...	11	11	10
Fastighetsbanken ...	7	5	8
Tampereen Osakepankki ...	17	15	15
Suomen Maatalouspankki ...	10	9	8
A. B. Abolands Bank ...	9	8	8
Sparbankernas Central Aktiebank	9	8	7
Maakuntain Keskuspankki ...	8	7	6

Conditions on the Money Market.—An article in *Mercator* on the state of money and capital in Finland furnishes evidence of the better supply of money by reference in the first place to bank deposits and secondly to stock exchange business. During 1924 ordinary deposits in the joint-stock, savings and co-operative banks increased by F.Mk.493 mill., in the first eleven months of 1925 the increase on this figure was 542 mill., making an increase since the beginning of 1924 of 1,035 mill. As regards stock exchange business, if reference be made to the Helsingfors Bourse index it will be found that the Bourse value of the shares in eighteen leading companies rose during 1925 by F.Mk.246.5 mill., or exactly 20 per cent. For the sake of comparison it may be mentioned that in 1924 this value fell by nearly 178 mill. The value of shares rose almost continuously during 1925, and now averages according to the index 147 per cent. of the nominal value as against 122 per cent. at the beginning of the year, a rise of 25 per cent. Share transactions on the Helsingfors Bourse during 1925 totalled close on F.Mk.130 mill., as against 112 mill. the year before; business in bonds increased from 6.8 to 16.3 mill.

TRADE

The Balance of Trade in 1925.—The activity of foreign trade in Finland is naturally governed in great degree by the severity or otherwise of winter climatic conditions and the period for which the ports can be kept open by means of ice-breakers. This year, shipping traffic at Helsingfors had to be suspended as early as the beginning of January and Finland's five icebreakers, to which a sixth is soon to be added, were kept busy maintaining traffic to the real winter ports of Abo and Hangö. The unusually mild conditions of 1925 were one of the factors contributing to the heavy increase in both imports and exports. Thus some 216,000 t. of paper was exported in 1925 as against 183,000 t. in 1924 and exports of mechanical pulp amounted to 112,000 t. as compared with 109,000. The very high figure of sugar imports, which in 1925 totalled 111,000 t., or about the normal supply for two years, was due to the large imports undertaken as a speculation in December, as the Riksdag had decided to raise the duty on sugar by one mark per kg. as from the beginning of 1926. Similar conditions applied in the coffee import trade; total imports for the year amounted to some 19,000 t. as against less than 17,000 t. the year before, owing to the raising of the duty on coffee by one mark. These exceptionally large imports at the close of the year were not balanced by equally swollen exports. So it came about that the balance of foreign trade, which at the end of November showed an export surplus of F.Mk.427 mill., showed at the end of December a balance for the year favourable to the value of not quite 57 mill. As regards the value of some of Finland's chief export commodities in 1925, wood goods exported amounted in value to F.Mk.3,012 mill. (2,839 mill. in 1924). Exports of paper pulp fell from 377,100 t. to 367,400 t., but as higher prices were obtained, the value was 40 million marks more in 1925 than the year before. (*Mercator*.)

INDUSTRY

Industrial Survey.—A general estimate of the industrial position in Finland may be obtained from a survey of her exporting industries on the one hand and her importing industries on the other during the past year. Finland's chief exporting industry is of course the

timber industry. The exporting activities of this industry are briefly touched upon above ("The Balance of Trade in 1925"). Here it may be stated in addition that sawn wood exports amounted in the year under review to some 1.04 mill. standards as against 1.02 mill. in 1924. Prices unfortunately average about two pounds sterling less than they were a year ago. The paper industry also shows an increase of output for 1925; exports increased from 183,332 t. in 1924 to 216,806 t. The increased output of the chemical pulp industry sold well abroad; Russia has become an important customer in this respect. Total exports of chemical pulp compared as follows with the 1924 figures:—

	1925.	1924.
	Tons.	Tons.
Sulphite pulp ...	215,431	202,614
Sulphate pulp ...	56,929	59,030
Total ...	272,360	261,644

The total figure for exports of dry and wet pulp and cardboard was 112,889 t. (109,920 t. in 1924).

The position in the importing industries in 1925 was not uniform. Opinions in the metal industry as to future prospects were fairly pessimistic; the glass industry complained of foreign competition and has been obliged to introduce certain price reductions as from the beginning of 1926; the tobacco industry was depressed and suffering from reduced consumption. Other industries, however, supplied more satisfactory reports; the woollen industry, for instance, and the cotton industry, the mills of which latter are fully employed. Conditions in the leather industry showed an improvement on those of 1924; the output of the footwear industry showed an increase. Both the cement and sugar industry reported satisfactory conditions and are fully employed. (*Mercator*.)

Prospects in the Timber Market.—It is of general interest to learn the opinion in Finland, Europe's greatest timber producer, regarding prospects in the timber trade during the current year, and we therefore reproduce here certain views pronounced by the president of the Finnish Sawmills Association and published in the *Revaler Bote*.

The production of sawn timber will probably, he says, amount to about the same as last year. Finland may again be expected to place over one million standards on the market. From Sweden, however, only some 900,000 instead of one million standards may be expected. Norway is no great competitor, as she delivers mostly turned wood; the output will probably, as last year, total some 131,000 standards. No increase is anticipated from Russia, whose exports will probably amount to somewhere about the 1925 figure of 400,000 standards, or even less. Poland's timber exports, which have been promoted during the last few years by the depreciated currency, are not likely to show a still greater increase, nor can competition from this quarter be very severe, by reason of the better quality of the Finnish timber. Finally, various circumstances point to the fact that the supply of timber from Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Czechoslovakia and Rumania is more likely to diminish than to augment.

In regard to the possible demand for timber in 1926, the president comes to the following conclusions based on last year's results: England, the greatest consumer of Finnish timber, imported 1.68 mill. standards in 1925 (1.7 mill. in 1924), as timber consumption in England is increasing, Finland may reckon on sales as big as last year. Germany imported last year just over 550,000 standards of softwood, of which Finland supplied 87,556 and Sweden 46,121 standards (50,592 and 23,690 respectively in 1924). Imports of northern timber to Germany have therefore greatly augmented, but Finland hesitates to pronounce on future prospects in this direction, owing to the great shortage of capital in Germany and its effect on building activities. France imported in 1925 only 368,865 standards of timber as compared with 519,194 in 1924; this was due to the

general economic uncertainty, as the wood requirements of France are considerable and therefore increased importation may be looked for when the position clears up. Belgium may be expected to maintain her imports at about the 1925 figure, namely some 245,000 standards. Holland's imports of timber increased in 1925 from some 362,000 to 391,000 standards and continued improvement is expected. On the other hand it is feared that the retrogressive movement by nearly 30,000 standards in Denmark's timber importation may be still further exaggerated this year. There is no reason at present to anticipate any decrease in Spain's imports of northern wood goods, which last year amounted to some 90,000 standards, and there is every hope that the formation of the Finnish Lumber Manufacturers' American Export Association may result in increased exportation of Finnish timber to America.

Up to February 27 of this year Finland had concluded contracts for sales of sawn timber abroad aggregating 360,000 standards. France and Holland have placed fairly large orders. The English buyers started by concluding some noteworthy contracts with Finland, but later they waited for the Russian quotations. The latter proved lower than Finland's or Sweden's average prices and in consequence considerable lots of Russian timber were purchased by England. As the stocks in Archangel are said not to exceed 30,000 standards (much smaller than last year) and as Russia's own timber requirements have greatly increased, the Russian supplies may confidently be expected to cease influencing the English market in the near future. Finnish timber exporters are therefore waiting quietly without adapting their prices to the Russian ones.

COMMUNICATIONS

Railway Extension Difficulties.—The small population of Finland is the chief obstacle to the development of her communications. Any extension on a large scale of her present railway system would involve expenditure far beyond the means of this sparsely inhabited country. In spite of this fact, however, Finland has certain advantages which are lacking in other northern countries. Her innumerable inland lake waterways have a total length of nearly 4,000 km. (in Sweden something more than 1,000 km.). Of these, however, only the East Finland lake system has a good connection with the sea, through the Sama Canal. Apart from these waterways, there are in the north numberless stretches which can be negotiated in rowing boats or small craft, and which could be developed in such a way as to be of the highest importance to the economic life of the country. These waterways are all-important to the key industries of Finland, the timber and paper industries, and about 15,000 km. of water communications are available for these purposes. Lumber can thus be transported hundreds of kilometres to the working-up centres, and if they were not available the cost of production of cellulose and paper would be far higher and the sharp competition of Russia and Sweden more difficult than ever to meet.

The railways are the most important means of communication in Finland. With its bad connections and broad gauge, Finland forms a kind of railway island. On account of the broad gauge it is impossible to make a connection with Sweden in the north, and traffic with Russia under the present uncertain conditions is reduced to a minimum. Whether along the coast, or in the more thickly populated districts of Central Finland, or in the sparsely inhabited outlying districts, everywhere are single railway lines. These are chiefly the so-called colonisation lines, to be used for pioneer work. There are three main lines, running north and south—one in the west, the East Bothnian Railway; one in the centre, the Sarolak Railway; and one in the East, the Karel Railway. These are intersected by two transverse lines running east and west. In the south there is the South Coast Railway (Abo-Helsingfors-Rühimäki-Wiborg) and further north the Central

Railway (Björneborg-Tammerfors-Jyväskylä-Elisen-vaara). In addition to these five main lines there are numbers of branch lines.

The Finnish railway system, with 4,400 km. of line, belongs as to nine-tenths to the State. Any development on a large scale is confronted with many difficulties, as there are numerous long stretches through thinly populated areas with correspondingly rare services; hence the single lines, the infrequent trains, the slow speed, and the great distances between stations.

Before the war all the lines were laid from the Russian standpoint and with Leningrad as a centre, rather than on a radiating system from Helsingfors to the more important towns.

Great plans are under consideration for electrifying the railways, but at present capital is lacking. In order to extend the inadequate railway system, motorbus services have been started in many places, to run in conjunction with the trains. This system has been specially developed in the north with Rovaniemi as a centre. (*Hamburger Fremdenblatt.*)

GERMANY

FINANCE

Results of Banking in 1925.—The annual reports of banking and business houses are now appearing. Before quoting from them it is useful to turn to some source from which a general idea of the trend of business and finance during the past year can be obtained. An examination of the clearing business of the Reichsbank affords a reliable guide to the activities of the private banks and to the general state of banking. The *Wirtschafts-Kurve* published by the *Frankfurter Zeitung* supplies a chart following the development of the clearing business of the Reichsbank during 1925 and the first quarter of 1926. After eliminating certain (estimated) seasonal movements, it is shown that the curve reached its zenith in August 1925, then fell steadily, with only one interruption in November, until January 1926, but had not quite reached the point from which it started to rise in January 1925; in February it was rising again. This picture corresponds very fairly with the actual development experienced by private banking business during this period. After August the banks showed great reluctance to grant new credits, new business therefore declined, the turnover dwindled. This must have been due to a decrease in current credit dealings, for security business had already been dwindling ever since the beginning of 1925. Only one apparent antithesis exists in that deposits at the banks (debit accounts, bills, securities, etc.) have slightly swelled, but it must be remembered that the state of the banking market depends not so much on the actual extent of the funds at the disposal of the banks as on the rapidity with which they circulate, and that their movement has slackened perceptibly since August. The ultimate effect of the development has been increasing liquidity, first in the short-term, then in the long-term credit market.

The annual report of the *Hypothekenbank in Hamburg* (Hamburg Mortgage Bank) shows net profits of R.Mk. 420,781 on an original capital of 5.12 mill. A dividend of 6 per cent. (3 last year) will be paid. The report states that the sale of mortgages in 1925 was far in excess of the formation of savings capital; nor did the considerable demand early in 1926 denote the sudden accumulation of savings seeking long-term investments. The purchase of mortgages appears to have corresponded with a general desire to acquire securities temporarily, with the hope of making profits on their re-sale rather than of acquiring a permanent source of income. The development has been characteristic of the economic state of Germany as a whole.

The *Deutsche Bank* may be said to have overcome the critical year of 1925 fairly well. Its capital still stands at 150 mill., its reserves at 55 mill. The bill portfolio increased during the year from 228.3 mill. to 542 mill.

its current debit, accounts from 389.2 mill to 682.3 mill. Last year's dividend of 10 per cent. is to be maintained. Working costs have fallen from 87.6 mill. to 82.6 mill., chiefly because the staff expenditure is being cut down. The staff of all the concerns comprised in the Deutsche Bank numbered some 16,000 only in 1925, as against 18,000 the year before and about 40,000 in 1923. The total turnover was 133 milliard, the net profit 17.47 mill.

The *Commerz- und Privat-Bank* has also proposed a similar dividend for 1925 as for 1924, namely 8 per cent. The task of meeting falling receipts by a reduction in working costs has likewise been effected successfully by this institution. The total turnover increased from 51 to 68 milliard, working costs fell from 49.7 to 40.5 mill. The staff numbered at the end of 1925 only 7,100 persons as compared with some 25,000 at the end of 1923. In 1913 the staff was only about 5,000. Yet this year's report states that the movement of compression may now be considered finished. Net profits for the year totalled 5.12 mill. (5.06 mill. in 1924), gross profits 24.97 mill.

The report of the *A. Schaaffhausen'scher Bankverein A.-G.* in Cologne, all the shares of which are held by the *Disconto-Gesellschaft*, announces a reduction in net profits from 3.33 to 2.81 mill. As in 1924, a dividend of 10 per cent. will be paid on the share capital of 25 mill., but no allocation to the reserve can be made. The balance of assets and liabilities was 165.9 mill. as against 129.3 mill. in 1924. The staff has been reduced from 1,540 to 1,157 persons.

The dividend proposal of the *Dresdner Bank*, like those of the other large banks, remains unaltered at 8 per cent. on a share capital of 78 mill. Gross profits have fallen from 76.7 to 69.6 mill. Nevertheless, 1.6 mill. is to be placed to the reserve fund as compared with a previous 1.4 mill. The net profits work out at 8.67 mill. as against 8.35 mill. in 1924.

The profit and loss account of the *Norddeutsche Bank* in Hamburg shows gross profits of 5.87 mill. (6.38 mill. in 1924) and net profits of 1.55 mill. (1.80 mill.). The 1924 dividend of 10 per cent. is to be repeated.

The net profits of the *Bayerische Landwirtschaftsbank* in Munich totalled R.Mk.547,996, from which a 4 per cent. dividend will be paid. At the end of 1925 the gold mortgages in circulation amounted in value to 14.51 mill. as against a previous 4.99 mill. Loans numbered 6,575 (3,281) to a total value of 19.18 mill. (9.37 mill.). (*Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung, Frankfurter Zeitung, Hamburger Fremdenblatt, Kölnische Zeitung.*)

TRADE

Trade in Potash in 1925.—The annual report of the German Potash Association states that the endeavours towards rationalisation and concentration in the potash mining industry have made great progress, greatly owing to the large foreign loan raised by the industry. Sales of crude potash salts and preparations aggregated 12,255,117 d.ctr. of pure potash in 1925 and thus almost equalled the sales of the record year 1922, which were 12.9 mill. d.ctr. Foreign sales, which before the war showed a rising tendency, totalled in the year under review 3.5 mill. d.ctr. as compared with 5 mill. d.ctr. in 1913. During the war years sales abroad averaged 1.5 mill. d.ctr. of pure potash. The share of home industry in potash consumption does not fluctuate much; it amounted in 1925 to about 700,000 d.ctr. of pure potash, or 7.9 per cent. of the total sales. By reason of the steadily increasing consumption of agriculture, the percentage consumption of potash by industry has considerably decreased in the past year.

A survey of price developments shows the following changes (price per d.ctr.):—

	1914.	Since April 1925.
Carnallite	8.50	7.56
Kainite	10.0	8.97
Potash manure salts 20 per cent.	14	12.24
" " " 30 "	14.50	15.64
" " " 40 "	15.50	16.68

	1914.	Since April 1925.
Potassium chloride 50-60 per cent.	27.0	27.0
" " over 60 "	29.0	29.0
Potassium sulphate	35.0	31.25
Potassium-magnesium-sulphate ...	31.0	28.85

(*Kölnische Zeitung.*)

INDUSTRY

The Coal Output in 1925.—The total output of hard coal and lignite in the Reich compared as follows in 1925 with that of 1924 and 1913 (in millions of tons):—

	1925.	1924.	1913.*
Hard coal	132.73	118.77	140.75
Lignite	139.79	124.64	87.23
Coke	26.81	24.88	31.67
Hard coal briquettes	5.00	4.36	6.49
Lignite and wet press briquettes	33.63	29.40	21.98

* Present political area.

The above table shows that the hard coal output in 1925 exceeded that of 1924 by 11.8 per cent., but fell short of that of 1913 by 5.7 per cent. The actual output in 1913 for the Reich as it then stood was 43 per cent. bigger than the 1925 figure. The rapid expansion undergone by the lignite industry in Germany since the war is visible in the above-quoted figures. The 1925 output reveals itself as 12.2 per cent. greater than that of 1924 and as 60.3 per cent. greater than that in the last peace time year, while lignite briquette production is now 53 per cent. above that of 1913. (*Wirtschaft und Statistik.*)

Mining Company Reports.—We publish below extracts from some of the leading mining company reports, as affording a reliable guide to the conditions ruling in the German mining industry during the past year. The report for 1925 of the famous Friedrich Krupp Company at Essen shows that this company suffered the most severely of all the great west German mining companies in the past year. In this year the destructive activities of the International Military Commission of Control came to a close after six years' work. It has naturally effected very radical alterations in the working of the firm and a great sacrifice of material. Some 9,300 machines, weighing about 60,000 tons, have been destroyed or dispersed, i.e. 45 per cent. of the machinery park existing on November 1, 1918. The value of the destroyed machinery is estimated at 104 mill. gold marks. The gross profits for 1925 amounted to R.Mk.32.1 mill., but the net results were a loss of 15.3 mill. It is proposed to withdraw the 60 mill. worth of preference shares created in 1923, when the capital of the company will stand at 100 mill. This is far smaller than the capital of the Phoenix Mining Company, for example, which is 300 mill.

The balance-sheet for 1924-25 of the Bochum Mining Association shows an unaltered capital of 56 mill., reserves, also unchanged, of 16.26 mill., 6.72 mill. set apart for amortisation purposes (nothing the year before) and net profits of R.Mk.130,928, all of which is to be carried forward.

The Deutsch-Luxemburg Mining and Foundry Company reports gross profits for the last business year of 11 mill. and net profits of 1.9 mill., all of which is to be carried forward. In the balance-sheet, the value of the company's plant is booked at a higher figure than formerly, namely at 119.8 instead of 117.5 mill. Share capital and reserves are unaltered. The report emphasises the bad conditions prevalent throughout the year. During the first six months the works were fairly well occupied, though prices were inadequate. In the last half-year competition grew so keen, chiefly by reason of the falling franc and the Saar Customs barrier, that the Raw Steel Combine enforced an ever higher restriction quota, which since August 1925 had amounted to 35 per cent. The workshops of the Deutsch-Luxemburg, which before the war manufactured chiefly for the Reich Railways, became increasingly idle, so that finally waggon construction, which had amounted to 300 waggons monthly, was suspended altogether and only

repair work was carried on. The burden inflicted on industry by the present high rates of taxation is well illustrated by the fact that in 1913 this company paid out Mk.4.64 mill. in taxes and social obligations, whereas in 1924-25 the sum paid out in those connections was R.Mk.13.55 mill., or 14.89 per cent. of the dividend-paying share capital.

The report of the Gelsenkirchen Cast Steel and Iron Works explains how it is that the year closed with a loss of some R.Mk.4 mill. Considerable sums were spent in modernising plant, greatly to the benefit of the working of this and its allied companies, of course, but the sums in question had to be procured on credit. Most of the company's works ended the year with modest profits or at worst only small losses; all except the German Power Wagon Works and one other works. A way out of the financial difficulties was found by arrangement with the firm of Stumm Brothers, large shareholders of the company. To cover the resultant losses of about R.Mk.2 mill., as well as the loss of 3.8 mill. on the year's balance-sheet, it is proposed to reduce the share capital from 12 to 4.5 mill.

The Siemens-Schuckert Concern is composed of the firm of Siemens and Halske in Berlin and of the Electricity Works formerly Schuckert and Co., in Nuremberg. The former company showed in its report gross profits for 1924 of 9.59 mill. (3.32 mill. previously) and net profits of 8.89 mill. (2.65 mill.). It is proposed to pay a dividend of 6 per cent. (nothing the year before) and after employing certain sums for social purposes and strengthening the reserves, to carry forward 2.62 mill. to the new account. The Schuckert Company showed for 1924-25 gross profits of 2.84 mill. and net profits of 1.98 mill. It is proposed to employ 1.96 mill. in paying a 4 per cent. dividend (nothing the year before), the rest of the profits to be carried forward. The supervision council of the Siemens-Schuckert Works approved the statement of accounts as on September 30, 1925, in which the gross profits appeared as 10.04 mill. (1.52 mill. in the previous year), the net profits as 8.95 mill. It was proposed to pay a dividend of 6 per cent. (nothing previously) on the original share capital of 90 mill. (*Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung, Hamburger Fremdenblatt, Kölnische Zeitung.*)

SOCIAL AND LABOUR CONDITIONS

Provisional Census Results.—The preliminary results of the census of June 16, 1925, as published in *Wirtschaftsdienst* show a total population of 62,539,098 souls. If to this number be added the conjectural population of the Saar area in the middle of 1925 (770,000), the total population of the Reich proper works out at some 63.3 mill., a number corresponding approximately to the population of the Reich, as it was in 1908. At the beginning of the war the count was about 67.79 mill. souls. The number of the resident population is estimated provisionally at 62,365,478 souls, or 0.3 per cent. less than the total count. This number excludes persons having no permanent abode.

Germany still takes the second place after Russia among European States in the matter of population; she shelters 13.9 per cent. of the total population of Europe. Taking colonial possessions into consideration, Germany's population takes the seventh place in the world to-day, whereas before the war it occupied the sixth place. Leaving such possessions out of account, it occupies the fourth place, after China (with 78 mill. inhabitants), Soviet Russia and the United States. The German language, as a matter of fact, is spoken in fifteen States by an aggregate of some 80 mill. inhabitants.

The following table compares the total count according to sex at various recent census dates:—

	Total.	Male.	Female.
Dec. 1, 1910 ...	57,798,339	28,489,787	29,308,552
July 1, 1914 ...	60,420,000	29,780,000	30,630,000
Oct. 8, 1919 ...	59,176,214	28,171,007	31,005,207
June 16, 1925 ...	62,539,098	30,183,567	32,355,531

This table shows that between 1910 and 1925 there has been an increase of 4.74 mill. persons, or 8.2 per

cent., that the male population increased by 5.95 per cent. and the female by 10.4 per cent. These increases may be attributed to natural growth on the one hand and to immigration on the other, as follows:—

	Total.	Male.	Female.
	(In millions.)		
Between 1-12-1910 and 15-6-1925			
Excess of births over deaths ...	+4,531	+1,796	+2,735
Missing military, probably dead	— 170	— 170	—
Estimated surplus of immigration over emigration ...	+ 380	+ 68	+ 312
	+4,741	+1,694	+3,047

A comparison of the density of population in the various large towns is interesting. In Berlin, for instance, there are 30,169 persons to every square kilometre of built-on area; in Hamburg there are 34,332, in Cologne 24,411, in Munich 23,984, in Leipzig 27,392, in Dresden 22,030, in Breslau 36,869 and in Essen 17,201. The average density in the large towns is 23,972 inhabitants to every square kilometre.

Migration Statistics for 1925.—According to provisional figures, 62,643 Germans left the country in 1925, as compared with 58,328 in 1924, 115,416 in 1923, 36,527 in 1922 and 23,451 in 1921. The following table shows the extent of emigration and immigration of both German nationals and foreigners by German and foreign ports in 1924 and 1925:—

	1924.	1925.
<i>Emigration.</i>		
Germans by home ports ...	56,058	58,225
„ „ foreign „ ...	2,270	4,418
Total ...	58,328	62,643
Foreigners by German ports ...	18,667	20,119
<i>Immigration.</i>		
By Bremen ...	24,431	32,032
By Hamburg ...	36,602	45,939
	61,033	77,971
Of which Germans ...	—	32,956

(*Wirtschaft und Statistik.*)

RUSSIA

POLITICAL AND GENERAL

General Economic Conditions.—The general economic situation in Russia is a matter of such vital interest, not only to the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics itself, but to the world at large, that the Press of Russia and of countries whose interests are greatly dependent on the state of Russia may well be forgiven for devoting a large amount of space in their columns to vigorous discussions on the subject. In a country of this magnitude, where for the last few years a would-be Socialist Government has not scrupled to employ more or less autocratic methods of drastic reform in economic spheres, it is natural to find the results of these activities hotly defended by official organs and rather cautiously criticised by opinion outside of Russia. Some of this opinion, while evidently not entirely in sympathy with the Russian official plan of action, knows perhaps that it has more to gain from helping the Soviet Union to reconstruct itself than from too wholesale condemnation of its methods of reconstruction.

The official standpoint in regard to economic conditions at the beginning of January is displayed and other standpoints very fairly set up against it in an article in the *Agence Economique et Financière*. There are, says this organ, two radically different standpoints from which the situation may be reviewed; namely, those of supply and of demand, that is to say, on the one hand the degree of intensity of the requirements of the people, on the other hand that of their satisfaction by the Soviet system. The first of these standpoints is reflected in the development of trade, the second in the growth of production and importation.

If the economic state of the Soviet Union at the beginning of 1926 be examined from the point of view of demand, especially in connection with home trade, the general impression gained is favourable. Demand is

undoubtedly not diminishing, there has been a distinct movement towards the more normal satisfaction of the requirements of the people. Stocks are exhausted and in need of replenishment, industrial plant is worn out; the peasants, thanks to better harvest yields and to the high prices of agricultural produce, have better resources at their command. Finally, not only in the towns but in the country, the accumulation of capital, if for the present only on a modest scale, has begun again.

This explains why the Soviet Press, reviewing the situation from the standpoint of home trade, has arrived at very favourable conclusions on the position at the start of the year. That well-known official organ *Ekonomicheskaya Zhisn*, states that the economic index numbers for December 1925 and the first half of January 1926 are a proof that the pessimism in regard to the economic situation was not justified. It continues "During December and in the beginning of January retail trade experienced a very considerable increase in demand, an increase which has been evident for some four months past. Even in wholesale trading, notwithstanding the restriction of credit and other unfavourable conditions, no decrease in the volume of business has been recorded."

Viewed from the standpoint of the satisfaction of the needs of the population, however, the picture is very different. Then are revealed the difficulties the Soviet Government are experiencing in assembling grain stocks, because the peasants are retaining their grain on account of the shortage of industrial products on the market; the effect of this on foreign trade and the insurmountable difficulties in realising the programme drawn up for the development of nationalised industry are also apparent.

The view promulgated by Dr. Hans von Eckardt in *Wirtschaftsdienst* is clearly stated and interesting. He draws attention to the fact that the old and characteristic economic policy of Russia, namely, protective duties, industrial protection, the spirit monopoly, high agricultural taxation and a forced grain export, has gradually been restored, but that in contradistinction to former days the planning system is now being arbitrarily and rigidly maintained. Dr. Eckardt is of opinion that herein, and in the mistakes and exaggerations of State statistics, lies the reason why the past year opened with such great and ambitious hopes and closed with such bitter disappointment. For the first time one uniform plan for the whole of Russia had been drawn up. Industrial output was to be made definitely dependent on the results of the harvest; export was then to be greatly increased in order that import in its turn should suffer a noteworthy extension. The result of this plan was expected to be an improvement in Russian credit and the stabilisation of the slowly depreciating chervonetz. The whole of this plan, however, came to nought in the autumn, as the harvest yields proved greatly over-estimated and the peasants could not be induced to part with their grain. In addition, the price of Russian grain at home was so much greater than the prices ruling on the world market that the sale of corn abroad, as intended, would have resulted in severe financial losses. This part of the plan had therefore to be abandoned, and in consequence there was a decrease in Russian orders abroad and a decrease in imports; the result was a serious menace to State finances. This last factor prejudiced the subsidising of State industry, and so it is that there still are to-day general depression, poor prospects for industry, a still further decrease in the purchasing power of the people, unemployment and strikes. A way out of these difficulties can only be provided by the provision of extensive credits, and it is therefore greatly to be hoped that the reported credit from Germany of R.Mk.300 million will materialise. It would permit the Soviet Government at all events to cover the most urgent requirements in machinery and so forth, whereas without such credit it is difficult to see what can be done.

TRADE

Changes in the Import Trade.—In our issue of March 5 (p. 207) a brief statement is made of the value of Russia's foreign trade in the economic year 1924-25 (October 1924 to September 1925). According to figures published in the *Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung* the value of imports was R.718,787,000 as against R.437,372,000 in the previous year, an increase of 63.5 per cent. The chief articles of import were: cotton to the value of R.133.7 mill. (13.6 per cent. of the total value of imports), grain products to the value of 92 mill. (12.8 per cent.), wool to the value of 47.5 mill. (6.6 per cent.), sugar 40.2 mill. (5.6 per cent.), agricultural machinery 30.6 mill. (4.3 per cent.), metals 22.5 mill. (3.1 per cent.), paper 22 mill. (3.1 per cent.), dyestuffs 19.3 mill. (2.7 per cent.), prepared hides 17.2 mill. (2.4 per cent.), tea 17.3 mill. (2.4 per cent.), undressed leather 16.8 mill. (2.3 per cent.), manufactured goods 11.2 mill. (1.6 per cent.), tanning materials 8.8 mill. (1.2 per cent.), rubber 8.4 mill. (1.2 per cent.), and automobile accessories 6.9 mill. (1 per cent.). It may be noted that far larger quantities of grain were imported last year than in 1924, that sugar imports were ten times as great and imports of agricultural machinery five times as great. Cotton imports (the largest item on the import list) remained unchanged.

These changes were accompanied by a change in the distribution of Russia's imports by country. The latter is shown in the following table, where the percentage shares of Russia's chief suppliers in her total imports during the two years in question are compared:—

	1924-25.	1923-24.
United States	29.8	20.7
England	17.0	25.8
Germany	16.1	25.5

The improvement in the positions of the United States and England as compared with Germany are due to Russia's large purchases of cotton and corn from the former countries last year. Germany is still the chief supplier of industrial goods to Russia apart from the above raw materials.

INDUSTRY

Cotton Cultivation Plans.—The *Hamburger Fremdenblatt* learns that the Russian Textile Trust at a recent assembly at Moscow drew up a five years' programme for cotton cultivation and manufacture. Russia is not yet in a position to cover her own requirements in cotton; the estimated home output for 1926-27 is given as 14.7 mill. poods of pure cotton fibre, whereas the requirements of the Russian cotton industry for the year in question are estimated at 21.3 mill. poods. In the following year requirements are estimated at 23 mill. poods, the home output at 18.3 mill. poods of fibre. In 1928-29 the yield is to be increased to 22.3 mill. poods to meet estimated requirements of 24 mill. poods, and in the fourth year, 1929-30, Russia's cotton cultivation is to be so advanced that she will be able to export cotton after covering her own requirements. By 1930-31 the area under cotton is to have reached 5.2 mill. dessiatines, or 18 per cent. more than before the war and 58 per cent. more than in the current economic year. Simultaneously, 83 new cotton retting works are to be established in Russia, bringing the total up to 167 works by 1930-31. The cotton-seed oil industry is also to be greatly extended, namely by increasing the works from 84 as at present to 148 in 1930-31.

AGRICULTURE

General Situation.—Agriculture is the hinge on which Russia's door to economic recovery mainly hangs; any information, therefore, which may afford guidance to the state of the agricultural production areas in Russia is of interest. We are indebted to an article in *Wirtschaftsdienst* by Dr. Hans von Eckhardt for the following details: Russian agriculture was able to increase its area under cultivation last year from 65.7

mill. to 72 mill. dessiatines. The yield was 3,860 mill. poods as against 2,548 mill. poods in 1924. The increase is noteworthy, notwithstanding the fact that the results fell considerably short of the official programme. It should not be forgotten, of course, that the pre-war yield aggregated some 5 milliard poods. A detailed examination shows that the area under flax and cotton had increased by 20 per cent. as compared with the year before. The sugar beet yield rose from 204 mill. to 343 mill. poods (787 mill. in 1914). Cattle stocks show an increase; according to official figures the number of horses now totals 76.2 per cent., that of large cattle 100.4 per cent., that of sheep and goats 91.9 per cent., and that of pigs 85.7 per cent. of the 1916 stocks; these figures are only of relative value, since the 1916 stocks were far behind those of the last year of peace. According to recent information published by *Isvestija*, the state of agriculture is more precisely described by the following data: in western Russia every farmstead possesses a plough; in the Upper Volga district three farms have to content themselves with one plough jointly, and in the Central Volga district there is one plough to every eight farms.

The *Agence Economique et Financière* gives the following account of the agricultural situation at the beginning of the year. The weather has been very variable; after the thaw hard frosts set in again, and vast stretches of country in the Urals, in the north-west, along the Volga and elsewhere in the most productive agricultural areas were frozen over, so that fears are still entertained for the state of the winter sowings. The Soviet Government have continued to experience great difficulty in constituting agricultural stocks. In December 1925 the stocks acquired officially certainly totalled 53.1 mill. poods of cereals and oil seeds as compared with 47 mill. poods in December 1924, but if account be taken of the fact that the 1925 yields were fairly good whereas those of 1924 were bad, the conclusion is arrived at that the farmers will not part with their stocks. This fact is even better established if the figures relating to the separate areas be examined. In the Urals and Siberia the Government was only able to amass in November and December 1925 some 16.12 mill. poods as compared with 34.36 mill. in the corresponding period of 1924. The situation was better at the beginning of the campaign, for the Government acquired during the six months July to December 1925 a stock of 460 mill. poods of the chief cereals, as against 265 mill. poods in the corresponding period of 1924. Of these 460 mill. poods, 126 mill. are wheat, as against 63 mill. poods of wheat collected from July to December 1924.

A paragraph in the *Hamburger Fremdenblatt* states that the Siberian corn market was very short of supplies in January, consignments of rye being particularly poor. The prices of rye rose, while those of wheat fell. The average prices of wheat, rye and oats in different parts of Siberia in January were as follows (in kopeks per pood):—

	Wheat.	Rye.	Oats.
Western Siberia	99.6	66.0	72.6
Central Siberia	95.4	62.5	70.0
Eastern Siberia	84.3	56.6	65.2

COMMUNICATIONS

Railway Transport.—Railway traffic in Soviet Russia has greatly increased during 1924-25 in comparison with the previous financial year, but this increase, which does not exceed 40 per cent., is inferior to the percentage of increase in industrial output (more than 60 per cent.) and agricultural production. The Soviet Russian railways, which in spite of deterioration and wear and tear of superstructure and rolling stock satisfied the much restricted requirements of the circulation of goods in Soviet Russia up to 1924-25, were found incapable during that year of adequately performing the task required of them. Hence, on the one hand, the difficulties of transport for Siberian, Uralian and Caucasian cereals, and, on the other hand, the restriction of coal transport, and the substitution,

during the latter part of the financial year under report, of water transport for railway transport.

The utilisation of the waterways of the interior is rendered very difficult by defective upkeep of the routes and the state of the fleet, which is much reduced in numbers, while 60 per cent. of the steamers are over twenty years and 20 per cent. over forty years old, while 40 per cent. of the lighters have seen more than twenty-four years' service. Only 24 per cent. of the quantities transported in 1913 has been carried over the waterways in 1925.

The superstructure of the railways (track, stations, bridges, tunnels, etc.) represents 70 per cent. of the capital of the railways, and the remaining 30 per cent. is accounted for by rolling stock and repair workshops. On January 1, 1926, about half the sleepers had exceeded the limit of service after which the rails can only be used subject to various precautions, such as reduction of speed and restriction of weight of trains, etc. The station buildings and the structure of bridges are not kept up and are in a dangerous state, which fact is recognised even in the Soviet Press.

In the table given below the goods wagons are marked as good for service, but they are in the majority of cases wagons built for a maximum load of 750 poods, which for a number of years have been loaded up to 1,000 poods, and are therefore worn out and difficult to repair. Out of 25,300 passenger wagons there are but 13,000 which are more or less fit for service, a quantity so insufficient that a number of the passengers are carried in goods trucks. With the above reservations the following table is submitted for perusal:—

	1923-24.	1924-25.
Length of track in use (versts) ...	68,003	68,605
Number of locomotives ...	20,222	20,270
Percentage good for service ...	45.0	47.5
Number of goods wagons ...	435,000	445,000
Percentage good for service ...	69.0	73.9
Average number of wagons loaded per 24 hours ...	13,517	17,398
Circulation of trains in thousands of versts ...	162,983	200,361
Despatch of goods in thousands of poods	4,120,182	5,049,691
Receipts in thousands of roubles ...	606,728	873,284

(*Agence Economique et Financière.*)

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SPAIN

FINANCE

Annual Report of the Bank of Spain.—The report of the Bank of Spain for the year 1925 shows that, including the amount brought forward from 1924, the total profit was Ptas.121,411,945.60. From this sum must be deducted Ptas.21.83 mill. for administrative costs; Ptas.2.05 for the printing of notes; and certain other smaller amounts. The liquid profit thus figures at Ptas.97,055,302.67, which the board proposes to distribute as follows (in mill. pesetas): to dividends at 130 pesetas per share, 46.02; to the special fund, as provided in the statutes, 2.00; to State participation, 24.68; to profits tax, 22.63; to stamp duties, 1.51; carried forward, 0.19. The sum of Ptas.24.68 mill. which falls to the State represents more than 50 per cent. of the total net profits distributed.

During the course of 1925 bills discounted at the central bank totalled 267,074 representing an aggregate amount of Ptas.11,231 mill., which is an increase of Ptas.523 mill. on the total value of discounted bills in the preceding year; bills discounted elsewhere totalled 1,068,797 to an aggregate value of Ptas.895 mill., or an increase of Ptas.48.18 mill. Loans on securities were made to the total of Ptas.163.27 mill. (a decrease of Ptas.62.53 mill. on 1924); loans on merchandise or bills of lading numbered 381 as against 512; sixteen credits to the total value of Ptas.6.19 mill. were opened against commercial documents. Deposit accounts numbered 12,356 with a total of Ptas.22.46 mill., which is but a slight variation of the preceding year; the balance of the current accounts at the close of the year was Ptas.1,293.72, showing an increase of Ptas.331.59. (*La Voz.*)

Treasury Receipts.—According to the statistics issued by the Ministry of Finance the Treasury receipts in February amounted to Ptas.262,791,852, as against Ptas.247,141,779 in February 1924, an increase, that is, of Ptas.15,650,073. These returns bring the total receipts for the first eight months of the financial year 1925–1926 to Ptas.1,902,774,486, which represents an increase of Ptas.21,697,693 on the yield of the corresponding period of the preceding financial year. The aggregate amount has been obtained from the following sources (in pesetas): territorial taxes, 195,912,812; industrial taxes, 103,613,793; profits tax, 207,354,602; royal dues, fees, etc., 92,407,512; yield of the mines, 10,225,192; personal bills, 9,149,843; Customs, 401,721,960; spirit duty, 26,801,696; beer duty, 2,570,861; sugar monopoly, 59,013,308; consumption tax, 2,692,240; transport tax, 46,430,380; matches monopoly, 21,420,887; property tax, 19,088,275; tobacco monopoly, 173,036,586; stamp duties, 181,988,377; lotteries, 250,170,359; other sources, 99,166,803. The increases effected were as follows (in pesetas): royal dues, fees, etc., 611,927; mines, 139,317; bills, 730,548; Customs, 422,776; beer duty, 232,071; sugar monopoly, 9,662,006; transport tax, 74,507; matches monopoly, 2,827,104; stamp duties, 10,324,623; lotteries, 21,197,533; miscellaneous, 7,792,836. Decreases were registered in the following (in pesetas): territorial taxes, 4,365,491; industrial taxes, 7,843,183; profits tax, 580,891; spirit duty, 2,260,501; consumption tax, 2,632,922; property tax, 14,267,221; and tobacco monopoly, 467,346. (*Informaciones.*)

INDUSTRY

The Coal Crisis.—The Royal Decree recently issued by the Spanish Government attempts to solve the prevailing crisis in the coal industry by regulating the home consumption of foreign coal. Most of the imported coal comes from Great Britain; a smaller volume from Germany. Imports of coal from other countries are practically negligible. Owing to the existing agreements with Great Britain and Germany,

direct protection of the Spanish coal industry by means of an augmented duty on the imported coal is out of the question. The system now to be adopted, however, is virtually a form of protection.

By the terms of the existing agreement with Great Britain a yearly contingent of 750,000 tons of British coal is admitted into Spain at a special minimum tariff. On volumes over the agreed quantity the duty is graded. The quotations for British coal on the Spanish market are slightly lower than those for coal from the Spanish mines. To this advantage enjoyed by the British product must be added the traditional preference of certain industries for British coal. In regard to quality there is not much difference between the two; in any case, the Spanish mines are able to supply the various qualities that are required within the country. Although the estimated annual consumption of coal in Spain is about two million tons superior to the output of the Spanish mines, the situation in the coal mining industry has been becoming worse with time. Unemployment has been increasing and many of the mines are working on short time. There has, indeed, been a pronounced reaction to the prosperity enjoyed by the industry during the course of the war.

The Decree just issued contains an order to the Navy, to the various arsenals and other Government institutions to use Spanish coal in greater proportion than hitherto whenever possible. The fisheries and the coastwise trade are permitted to consume 50 per cent. of foreign coal. The regulation of the general inland consumption is more severe. In respect to the total consumption of coal electrical power stations, textile mills and certain other industries of less importance may use only 20 per cent. of imported coal; railway companies that run regular express trains may consume no more than 15 per cent. of foreign coal, whilst the maximum set for other railway concerns is 10 per cent. Gas manufacturing works, blast furnaces, manufactories of metal wares in general, and certain other specified industries are restricted to the consumption of Spanish coal. The Government has also agreed to grant a subsidy of 0.75 pesetas per ton of coal brought to the surface during the months of March, April and May, at the end of which period it is hoped that a more permanent measure will be introduced for the fostering of the coal mining industry.

In certain economic circles, especially in the exporting branch, it is feared that the Government measure, although directed towards the settlement of a very urgent problem, may lead to retaliatory measures being introduced by Great Britain against the importation of Spanish wines, fruits and other products of vital importance not only to Spanish commerce, but to Spanish industry in general.

AGRICULTURE

The Agricultural Situation.—Notwithstanding the favourable general harvest last year the situation in the agricultural industry is far from satisfactory, states *El Sol*. The main trouble is that whilst the consumer is still paying very high prices for the various products, the prices offered to the farmers are so low that many cultivators are scarcely paying their way or are even losing money. The situation in the wine-growing branch is particularly bad and a grave crisis has set in. The quotations for home-grown rice are so low that it is not worth the farmer's while to grow or sell this product. The conditions governing other commodities are very similar. Beans, for example, which for some years past have been quoted at from 80 to 90 pesetas per 100 kilogrammes, are now at 42 pesetas, a price that is below the actual cost of production, whilst other pulse and peanuts are offered at correspondingly low figures. To

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make matters worse, more than half of the orange crops have been affected by frost, with the result that the exportation of this fruit has fallen below that of preceding years, and the sales effected have been at prices much inferior to those estimated by the growers.

The Agrarian Federation attributes the present crisis and the disparity between the prices obtained by the producer and those paid by the consumer to the fact that similar products are being imported in large quantities from abroad and offered at prices against which it is difficult for the home product to compete. The manufacturers of vegetable oils, for instance, have received permission to import 40,000 tons of peanuts, despite the fact that there is a large stock of the home-grown nut still on hand. The Federation calls upon the Government to take measures to save the situation and also to organise in an efficient manner the production and distribution of agricultural products that are grown in Spain.

With reference to the above complaint as to the condition in the wine-growing industry, it should be noted that, consequent upon a number of meetings organised by the various Chambers of Agriculture to consider means for protecting the Spanish wine industry, the Government has entered into new arrangements with Germany and Switzerland, by which these countries are able to obtain Spanish wines under special conditions. As a result of this modification of the existing agreements the Spanish wine industry is reported to be better occupied than for some time past and to be preparing large consignments for exportation. The general impression prevails that the worst stage of the crisis has been passed.

The Government's scheme for the provision of credit facilities to farmers on the security of their wheat crops which was introduced last year, has not met with much success, states *España Económica y Financiera*. On account of the apparent disinclination of the farmers to take advantage of the facilities offered by the Government it is probable that the Minister of Agriculture will introduce some important modifications in the original scheme. The present measure empowers the Ministry of Public Works to offer loans not exceeding a total of 50 mill. pesetas, for a term of three months, renewable for an equal period. No individual loan may exceed 50 per cent. of the estimated value of the mortgaged wheat, the rate of interest being 5 per cent. per annum. Agriculture at the present moment doubtless stands in need of good credit facilities, and the reluctance on the part of the farmers to respond readily to the Government's plan is probably due to their belief that under the present conditions the terms of the offer were not satisfactory enough from the producers' point of view.

El Debate reports that the Banco de Vizcaya at Seville has submitted to the Government a plan for the reclaiming of 60,000 hectares of swampy land on the right bank of the Guadalquivir for the purposes of agriculture. It proposes to cut up the reclaimed land into parcels of three hectares and to lease the small holdings to working people. The work would cost about 75 million pesetas and would take seven years to complete.

Official Crop Returns for 1925.—The past year was satisfactory for Spain in respect to the yield of the chief cereal crops. The revised statistics, recently issued by the Ministry of Agriculture and reproduced below, show a big improvement in comparison with the aggregate yield in 1924, 1922 and 1921, and also an advance on 1923, which was considered a good year. The yield of the five main cereal crops was as follows (in thousands of quintals):—

	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.	1925.
Wheat ...	39,503	34,147	42,785	33,142	44,250
Rye ...	7,142	6,668	7,131	6,675	7,589
Barley ...	19,447	16,881	24,355	18,223	21,538
Oats ...	5,169	4,530	5,869	4,379	6,305
Maize ...	6,324	6,815	6,077	6,554	7,165

Expressed in percentual proportion the increased production of the various crops in 1925 on that of 1924

and on the average for the period 1920-1924 was as follows:—

Percentual increase on 1924; on the average, 1920-1924.

	Percentual increase	
	on 1914.	1920-24.
Wheat ...	138.51	118.14
Rye ...	113.32	109.4
Barley ...	118.19	109.21
Oats ...	143.99	123.97
Maize...	109.32	109.21

(*El Sol.*)

YUGO-SLAVIA

POLITICAL AND GENERAL

Yugo-Slavia as a Maritime State.—In a recent Parliamentary debate several deputies, criticising the Government's programme for the development of communications in the country envisaged the possibility of the evolution of Yugo-Slavia into a maritime State of importance. The development of the maritime trade and the national fisheries, stated one speaker as reported by the *Zagreber Tagblatt*, received only too little attention from the Government, despite the fact that Yugo-Slavia geographically was intended to be a maritime State and must eventually gravitate towards the sea. Individual shipping companies were making splendid progress, but this was due to their own initiative and not to Government interest in this important branch of national life. The Government had done practically nothing in this direction. The coastwise trade had been neglected and the Government had not even worked out statistics concerning it. Instead of rendering assistance the Government had cut down the grant for shipbuilding from 40 mill. to 35 mill. dinars. The saving of money on the ports was bad national economy. The work begun before the war in numerous ports had been neglected or altogether abandoned, resulting in the wasting of millions of dinars. The Government should submit a programme of active fostering of the maritime trade and for the development of the Adriatic ports. The Italians were following very closely everything that took place on the Yugo-Slav Adriatic coast and regarded the Adriatic Sea as an Italian preserve, permitting by grace a strip of coastline to Yugo-Slavia.

Another speaker mentioned that Yugo-Slavia possessed a coastline of some 1,000 kilometres, but that while the Italian Government was making great sacrifices in order to improve and strengthen the position of Italy in the Adriatic Sea, Yugo-Slavia was afflicted by an inertia that would spell disaster. Yugo-Slavia was essentially not a continental but a maritime State. Her ports, though at present small, were well situated and capable of becoming important shipping centres. The development of these ports, together with the establishing of an efficient and extensive railway system connecting the ports with the vast resources of the

The Czechoslovak Market

A Monthly Review

Published on the 1st of
Every Month.

Publishing Offices: 25, Havlickovo nam. Prague II.
Annual Subscription, including postage, 10/-.
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hinterland, would be the surest means of creating and consolidating national prosperity. To neglect the sea was altogether a mistaken policy on the part of the Government.

FINANCE

The Foreign Debt.—In an interview granted to representatives of the Press, M. Stoyadinovitch, Minister of Finance, referring to his deliberations with Mr. Winston Churchill in London, stated that the Yugo-Slav Government had recognised its debt to Great Britain at a round £32,000,000, which sum Yugo-Slavia was prepared to pay. Definite negotiations towards the settlement of this debt would probably be begun later in the year, after the Budget has been passed by the Yugo-Slav Parliament. The negotiations with the United States were proceeding satisfactorily and should be nearing conclusion. The payment of the nation's debts to Great Britain and the United States would, he said, constitute a liquidation of about two-fifths of the total foreign obligations. The funding of the debt to Great Britain would be the crowning effort of the persistent endeavours to reconstruct and consolidate the financial and economic conditions in Yugo-Slavia. Moreover, a satisfactory settlement of the debt to Great Britain would doubtless stimulate the commercial relations between the two countries, encourage the investment of British capital in Yugo-Slavia and enable many important public works to be undertaken, such as the construction of new railways, of electric tramways and general municipal improvements. Yugo-Slavia was greatly in need of agricultural machinery of all kinds and should prove a good market for British manufactures.

In a contribution to the *Zagreber Tagblatt*, Dr. Ivo Belin points out that the debt to France consists of the pre-war debt contracted by the Kingdom of Serbia, and others contracted during the course of the war. The definite amount of the latter total debt has not yet been fixed owing to the double account for war material supplied by Great Britain through the intermediary of France. The pre-war debt stood at Fr.815,305,500 on July 1, 1925, whilst the yearly interest amounted to Fr.46,014,550. This debt may be regarded as consolidated; but trouble has arisen from the different point of view of the Yugo-Slav Government and the French holders, the former maintaining that inasmuch as the debt is a franc debt payments should be made in current francs, whilst the representatives of the French holders regard the debt as a gold franc debt and accordingly demand payment in gold francs. On the former basis of reckoning the original debt of some Fr.815 mill. is equivalent to 1,728 mill. dinars and the interest to 97 mill. dinars, while on the latter basis the national burden amounts to 8,911 mill. dinars and the annual interest to 502 mill. dinars. The acceptance of the view of the Yugo-Slav Ministry of Finance would mean a saving of some 7 milliards of dinars and of about 400 mill. dinars annually in interest and annuities. These figures suffice to indicate the extreme importance of the dispute, in which the French Government is not directly intervening but only to the extent of protecting the interest of its nationals. Taking all the circumstances surrounding the loan into consideration there seems to be no good ground for expecting that Yugo-Slavia can be forced to pay in any manner other than that at present adopted.

In regard to the liability of Yugo-Slavia to foreign holders of bonds inherited from the former Austrian and Hungarian debts (in gold and qualified securities only), the Prague Agreement has fixed Yugo-Slavia's share in the Austrian debt at 8,982,891 gold florins in the 4 per cent. gold securities and 4,544,023 gold kronen in the mandate in four currencies of 1914; while the share in the Hungarian debt amounts to 84,788,129 gold florins in the 4 per cent. gold securities, to 18,512,960 gold kronen in the 4½ per cent. securities in four currencies of 1913, and to 67,314,632 gold kronen in the 4½ per cent. securities in four currencies of 1914

Treasury Receipts.—The yield of the direct taxes and of the supplementary taxes in 1925 in the different provinces of Yugo-Slavia is shown in the tables below (in dinars):—

Direct and Supplementary taxes, 1925.

	Actual yield.	Budget estimate.
Croatia-Slavonia ...	186,791,920.50	137,300,000
Bosnia-Herzegovina ...	98,169,166.00	55,249,600
Voivodina ...	313,403,139.62	169,965,000
Slovenia ...	144,328,335.78	70,000,000
Dalmatia ...	33,800,105.86	15,983,000
Serbia and Montenegro	211,740,187.78	171,604,557

Total ... 988,232,855.54 620,102,157.00

The actual yield to the Treasury of the above source of revenue was therefore 368,130,698.54 dinars in excess of the estimated amount.

The supplementary tax of 500 and 30 per cent. yielded during the course of 1925 (in dinars): in Croatia-Slavonia, 84,146,661.52; Bosnia - Herzegovina, 99,683,117; Voivodina, 133,982,965.92; Slovenia, 68,203,931.75; Dalmatia, 6,602,122.59; Serbia and Montenegro, 106,353,931.04; total, 498,972,729.82 dinars.

The turnover tax yielded (in dinars): in Croatia-Slavonia, 58,793,967.98; Bosnia - Herzegovina, 25,194,125; Voivodina, 43,101,719.25; Slovenia, 47,176,573.80; Dalmatia, 6,322,270.43; Serbia and Montenegro, 40,140,828.27; total, 220,729,484.73 dinars.

The returns for the special tax for the benefit of disabled ex-soldiers were (in dinars): in Croatia-Slavonia, 42,681,080.92; Bosnia - Herzegovina, 18,176,527; Voivodina, 27,535,290.93; Slovenia, 27,709,691.97; Dalmatia, 4,457,205.75; Serbia and Montenegro, 21,708,156.44; total, 142,267,953.01 dinars. The special military tax yielded a total of 35,657,267.74 dinars throughout the Kingdom from April 1 to December 31, 1925, as compared with the estimated sum of 37,612,499.85 dinars.

The receipts from the various monopolies during the financial period April 1 to November 30, 1925, that is, during nine months of the financial year, were as follows in comparison with the estimated figures and also with the returns from the same sources for the corresponding period of the preceding year (in dinars):—

Monopolies, April 1 to November.

	Actual returns 1924.	Actual returns 1925.	Estimated 1925.
Tobacco ...	1,112,265,315	1,147,748,046	1,080,000,000
Salt ...	212,279,813	262,505,834	200,000,000
Petroleum ...	87,353,315	100,002,482	86,666,666
Matches ...	105,008,315	97,287,493	108,400,000
Cigarette paper ...	89,265,093	97,218,064	66,666,666
Miscellaneous ...	6,044,354	5,116,498	2,000,000

Total ... 1,612,216,205 1,709,878,417 1,543,733,333

The aggregate result for the 1925 period was greatly in excess of that of the corresponding period in 1924 and also of that of the estimates. (*Trgovinski Glasnik.*)

SOCIAL AND LABOUR CONDITIONS

Workers' Insurance.—Dr. Stevan Popovich, general secretary of the Belgrade Chamber of Industry, offers some valuable information on the insurance of workers in Yugo-Slavia in a recent contribution to the *Belgrade Economic and Financial Review*, the salient features of which are summarised below.

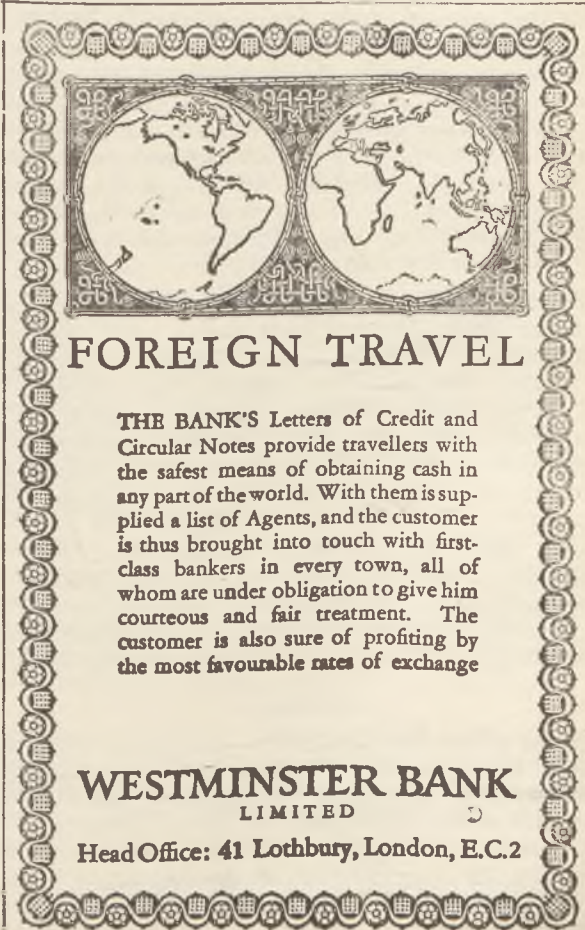
At the time of the Union several legislative measures were introduced to establish the insurance of workers. Serbia's Labour law of 1910 had introduced obligatory insurance against illness and accidents during work; but neither South Serbia under Turkish rule nor Montenegro, where economic life was poorly developed, had had any legislation of the kind. In Croatia, Slovenia and Voivodina social insurance had been provided for by the Act of 1907. Obligatory insurance against illness and accidents was enforced in 1887 and 1888 in Slovenia and Dalmatia, and against illness in Herzegovina in 1909. The new Constitution of Yugo-Slavia established a uniform law for the whole Kingdom in 1922 in respect to obligatory insurance against illness, accidents, disablement, old age and death

although the provisions for insurance against disablement have not yet come into force. By the new Act all workers, male or female, are automatically insured. The maximum wage insurable is 40 dinars per day. State officials who have the right to a pension are not forced to insure themselves, and railway employees and miners are subject to special regulations. A later regulation will enact special provisions for agricultural workers, foresters, gardeners, washerwomen and tailors working at home. Every month an order for payment is made out in the name of the employer for his staff, stating the contribution payable. Insured workers are divided into 17 groups according to their wage, the grades rising from a wage of 2.50 dinars per day, for which the assured salary is 2.00 dinars, up to a daily wage of 40 dinars per day and an assured salary of 40.00 dinars. The rate of contribution for illness insurance may not be less than 4 per cent. nor more than 7 per cent. of the wages insured. At present it is 6 per cent. The rate against old age and death is 3 per cent. These rates should be sufficient to cover the cost of insurance and to create two reserve funds, the premium and the guarantee fund, the latter not to exceed 10 per cent. of the amount devoted to the premium fund. The contributions against accident in the course of work are paid according to the scale of classification in proportion to risk. On a 100 dinars wage it is 5 paras, and this is multiplied by the rate of risk classification of the employment in question. Thus, an employment classified as having 100 per cent. risk pays 5 dinars per 100 dinars of insured wages as insurance against accident. This insurance is managed on the system of recovery of capital for the payment of premiums. The contributions for insurance against illness, old age and death are paid half by the employer, and half by the employee. The contributions against accidents during employment are paid by the employer alone. The state also pays a share towards insurance against disablement, old age and death, for which purpose it makes a grant of 1 mill. dinars per annum. It also makes a grant of 1 mill. dinars for insurance against accident. Further, the State must supplement pensions for disablement which are less than 1,500 dinars, and must pay the insurance contributions against disablement of all workers doing military service. Insured workers suffering from illness have the right to free medical and surgical attendance, medicaments, sanitary apparatus, etc., for 26 weeks; if the illness lasts longer than three days, they have also a claim to two-thirds of their insured wages. Women workers are entitled at childbirth to an allowance equal to three-quarters of their wages besides free medical attendance, the allowance lasting from two months before to two months after confinement. A feeding allowance is made up to 3 dinars per day, for 20 weeks following the expiry of the maternity allowance, if the mother feeds the child herself, or otherwise an allowance in kind not exceeding the money grant. Family dependents of an insured worker have the right to free medical attendance, etc., for 26 weeks. In cases of maternity the members of the family obtain 1.50 dinars per day for 4 weeks before and 4 weeks after the confinement. There is also a layette allowance equivalent to 14 times the wage insured. In case of accident the insured worker receives, besides medical care and grants, an allowance equal at most to one-third of his insured wages (maximum, 16,000 dinars per year). If the accident results in the death of the insured person the widow has the right to an annual income up to one-third of the wage insured until her death or re-marriage. The annual income allowed for the children of the deceased under 16 years of age is one-quarter of the insured wage. The members of the family receive an allowance for life and each living child one-third of the insured wage. All allowances thus granted must not exceed the annual earnings of the deceased worker. Incapacity which reduces a wage to one-third of the normal wage is regarded for the purpose of the law as disablement. Old men of 70

years are entitled to receive their pension even when they are still at work. Right to pension for disablement is acquired after 200 weeks, and to old age pension after 500 weeks of contributions. If the person disabled has not paid in for 200 weeks, the pension is reckoned at 8 times the average of the contributions made; if contributions have been made for at least 500 weeks the average contribution is multiplied by 12. In case of death every child of the deceased has the right to one-quarter of the insured wage; the widow to one-quarter of the disablement pension for three years only.

This Act centralises insurance, at present at Zagreb, but the central office may be transferred to Belgrade in 1930. The central office has 26 provincial offices under its control and organises dispensaries, hospitals, sanatoria, etc. It also supervises the health and hygiene of workers and endeavours to remove the causes of accidents, etc. The Administrative Council, elected by the General Assemble of delegates, consists of 12 employers and 12 workers.

The statistics of insurance since 1922 are as follows: On July 1, 1922, the number of insured persons was 400,709; on July 1, 1923, = 459,566; July 1, 1924, = 459,288; November 1924 = 471,232 obligatory insured (374,487 men = 79.4 per cent.) and 2,238 voluntarily insured (1,980 men = 88.4 per cent.). Of the 12 mill. population 3.6 per cent. are insured; 125,000 enterprises are under insurance obligations. The average wage insured at the end of 1923 was 21.36 dinars. The receipts of the insurance service against illness in 1924 were 187,676,759 dinars, of which sum 81 per cent. was spent on members. Allowances in money amounted to 33.17 per cent., while nearly 26 mill. dinars were spent on medicaments, etc. Contributions against accident totalled 55 mill. dinars, and the costs of allowances approximately 12 millions. The provincial offices have over 30 dispensaries and also large, properly installed ray institutions with specialist doctors. The workers' insurance organisation has four sanatoria of its own.



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SOUTH AMERICA

BOLIVIA.

Budget for 1923.—The Budget estimates for 1926 which have been submitted to the Chamber of Deputies provide for a revenue of 44,482,183.30 bolivianos to balance an expenditure of like amount. The estimated yield of the various sources of revenue is as follows (in bolivianos): import duties, 10,925,000; direct taxes, 9,771,000; export duties, 8,881,000; public services, 4,652,600; internal consumption tax, 3,041,000; industrial department, 2,303,412.50; financial department, 1,977,976; territorial department, 1,070,500; other sources, 1,869,694.80.

The estimated expenditure is distributed as follows (in bolivianos): Public debt, 18,674,041.76; Ministry of War, 8,500,000; Ministry of Public Instruction, 3,950,564.60; Ministry of the Interior, 3,359,152; Ministry of Communications, 2,239,539.60; Ministry of Justice, 2,013,312; Ministry of Finance, 1,806,510; Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1,266,710; Administrative services, 815,352; Ministry of Public Works, 763,661.34; Land Settlement Department, 480,000; Ministry of Industry, 298,600; Ministry of Agriculture, 163,360; Department for Ecclesiastical Affairs, 146,380. (*España Económica y Financiera.*)

The *West Coast Leader* reports that the Centenary Tax is to be renewed till December 31, 1926. This tax amounts to 50 centavos on a Spanish quintal of raw soda, 5 to 15 per cent. on all imported goods and 1 per cent. every month on all wages and salaries earned in Bolivia. The tax is estimated to yield 4,500,000 bolivianos during the present year.

Loans for Railway Extensions.—A Bill was recently introduced to the Chamber of Deputies empowering the Government to raise a series of loans for the purpose of financing the construction of an important railway line from Cochabamba to Santa Cruz, and also for the continuation and completion of the line from Potosi to Suere.

It is reported that the stretch of railway line from Villazóu to Atocha has been leased to a British concern, since the contractors who were constructing the line exhausted their capital and the Government had not the means to undertake the completion of the work.

A German firm is said to be contemplating the construction of a new railway line which would cut off the enormous northern bend from Lobitas station to Tavejva on the Oruro-La Paz-Arica railway. If the project is realised the richest mining district will be directly linked up with the coast. (*Argentinisches Wochenblatt* and *The South American Journal.*)

Foreign Trade in 1924.—The official figures of Bolivian foreign trade in 1924 give a total value of 170,264,271 bolivianos, as against 178,106,076 bolivianos in 1923. The value of imports was 62,570,410 bolivianos, whilst exports figured at 107,693,861 bolivianos. There was thus a favourable balance of trade to the extent of 45,123,451 bolivianos. The main international markets for Bolivian goods were (in bolivianos): Great Britain, 81,909,611; the United States, 25,521,144; Argentina, 3,228,041; Brazil 1,393,702; Belgium, 886,167; Germany, 826,174; France, 654,879; Chile, 463,119; Peru, 161,978. Most of the other countries purchased Bolivian products to the value of under 100,000 bolivianos. (*La Nación.*)

BRAZIL.

Policy of the New President.—In a speech delivered shortly before his election as President of the Republic of Brazil, M. Washington Luis outlined the general economic policy he proposed to follow. Although he was unable under the circumstances to submit concrete measures, the new President, as reported in the *South American Press*, made it perfectly clear that the financial reforms initiated by Dr. Arthur Bernardes would be

maintained and that further advance in this direction would be attempted under the new régime. He emphasised above all the urgent need for most rigid economy. Public expenditure must be adjusted to the national revenue and the equilibrium of the Budget must be established on a real basis. In the next Budget all items of expenditure not absolutely necessary will be eliminated, and if the receipts are then not sufficient to meet this restricted expenditure new sources of revenue will have to be found. All foreign and internal pledges must be met, and a reduction in the floating debt must be effected by the funding of capital and its interest. Efforts will also be made to establish the equilibrium of the commercial balance by encouraging exports and restricting imports. An important task for the Government is the development of more satisfactory means of transport and in this and other ways to foster cattle breeding, agriculture and general industry. More modern methods must be introduced into industrial activity; amongst other measures the eight-hour day will be fixed by law and measures will also be proposed for the protection of women and children.

When the Treasury and commercial deficits have been removed and the fiduciary circulation has disappeared the way will be prepared for the conversion of the currency to a gold basis and a gold circulation. This is to be the main task of the Government. The fluctuations in the rate of exchange, which has been and still is the main cause of national financial disorder, of economic instability, of the high cost of living and general uneasiness and of the frequent crises in the agricultural, industrial and commercial life of Brazil, will consequently be prevented. The resultant stability of the currency should react favourably upon all branches of national life.

Public Finances in 1925.—During the past year the Government has been able to effect a reduction in the deficit of the public finances; if it had not been for the disorders provoked by the revolutionary elements the Treasury would have been able to show a favourable balance. The fiduciary circulation has been reduced from 626,000 contos to 592,000 contos, and the Government also amortized notes to the value of 122,000 contos. The monetary circulation has been diminished by 256,000 contos, whilst the value of the currency has improved and the prices of necessities have fallen. The foreign debt is not a great burden, since the receipts amount to some 1,500,000 contos (paper) and the service of the debt does not demand more than 300,000 contos. In order to amortize the debt Brazil needs a sum of £1,000,000, which is not excessive in relation to the Budget. Without prejudicing the economic possibilities of the country the Minister of Finance has procured railway materials to the value of 14,000 contos for immediate operations. The intervention of the Ministry of Finance to improve communications has been efficacious and decisive. (*Jornal do Comercio.*)

Bank of Brazil's Contract with the Government and Half-yearly Report.—The Finance Committee of the Chamber of Deputies has unanimously approved the Bill for modifying the Bank of Brazil's contract with the Government. Under the Bill the Treasury note currency is to be reduced from the redemption and the conversion fund, formed (a) of the whole amount of the dividends on shares belonging to the Treasury; (b) by at least an equal amount to be voted annually in the Budget; (c) from the net profits of the Bank ascertained half-yearly after deduction of 10 per cent. for reserve, 1 per cent. towards the Bank's benefit fund for employees to be constituted by non-transferable shares to the total of 20,000 contos, quota to cover possible losses, dividend not exceeding 20 per cent. per annum, and $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to be paid to the directors on the amount of dividends distributed.

The Bank is to publish half-yearly as well as monthly statements. Clause 5 of the contract is to be altered

to provide that when the exchange reached 12d. the sums carried to the redemption and conversion fund shall be applied in the purchase of gold in specie as reserve against note issues by the Bank, one-third of such issues to be applied in redemption of Treasury currency. Further alterations provide that the Bank, which already holds authority to issue, shall be authorised during the period of ten years from the date of its contract coming into force to issue bank notes against gold reserve and commercial documents of credit, such notes to be legal currency throughout the country on the following conditions: (a) The issue shall be made as regards at least one-third of its paper value against an equivalent reserve in gold at the rate of 12d. per milreis, and as regards the remainder, not exceeding two-thirds, on the basis of commercial documents of credit not exceeding 120 days currency on the joint responsibility of at least three firms, one being approved bankers. In exceptional cases such documents may be of 180 days' currency if endorsed by the Bank of Brazil; (b) Provision for special issue of not exceeding 200,000 contos by decree of the Executive Government with relaxation of provisions under (a), the Bank to pay 12 per cent. interest to the Treasury until redemption; (c) gold in reserve to include balances at credit in sound banking houses in other countries on certified deposit.

The original Clause 15 is suppressed; and Clause 14 is modified to provide that the Bank shall receive an abatement of 50 per cent. of the telegraphic rates. Clause 18 determines that the currency of bills shall be reduced to 62 days sight. The modification of Clause 21 provides that the redemption and conversion fund shall be divided between the National Treasury and the Bank in proportion to their respective contributions. The Bank's statutes must not be altered unless by the approval of the National Congress.

The modifications which will become operative as a result of this Bill are chiefly in favour of the Treasury. Certain expenditure payable under the contract out of the general funds become a deduction from the profits of the Bank; the directors' percentage, in place of being on the whole profits, is limited to the amount distributed in dividends; the powers of issue are more strictly limited, and Treasury bonds and warrants on general stores cease to be a basis of issue; the share of the Treasury in the ownership of the gold reserve is justly regulated according to its contributions (the present contract gives the Bank too large a share in the gold held or acquired); the period allowed the Bank to pay over gold valé collections to the Treasury is reduced from 90 to 60 days; the Bank is allowed 50 per cent. reduction on telegraph charges, other special privileges being cancelled.

The profits of the Bank of Brazil for the half-year ended December 31, 1925, show an increase, allowing for a dividend of 20 per cent., for the placing of 81,000 contos of reis to the redemption of paper currency, and for 7,100 contos to reserve. By these transfers the fund for the redemption of paper currency figures at 215,862 contos, whilst the reserve fund is increased to 118,775 contos. Nearly two-thirds of the Bank's notes have been destroyed and the cancellation of the remainder as provided by the fund will be effected in equal portions every month during the period of the ensuing six months. During the past half-year no note issues were made, so that the fiduciary circulation still stands at 592,000 contos of reis, despite the fact that the gold reserve permits a much higher amount. By strictly following a policy of deflation the Bank of Brazil has, during the course of the year, raised the exchange value of the milreis from 5 29-32d. to about 7½d. Notes to the value of 160,000 contos have been redeemed and a reduction of 134,000 contos made in the note circulation.

The Bank will continue to carry out and enforce the policy of deflation adopted by the Government, a policy which has already proved its advantages to the

country. (*La Nación* and *Bulletin of the British Chamber of Commerce in Brazil*.)

Foreign Trade Returns.—There was a pronounced increase in the volume of Brazilian foreign trade during the ten months ended October last, exports amounting in value to £83,544,000, as compared with £76,929,000 for the corresponding period of 1924, while imports totalled £71,163,000, as against £53,456,000. There was thus a surplus of exports for the first ten months of 1925 of £12,381,000, as compared with £23,473,000 for the corresponding period of the preceding year.


Entries of coffee at Rio de Janeiro during the four weeks ended January 23 last totalled 284,200 bags, as compared with 384,550 bags in the preceding four weeks, while entries in respect to the current crop up to the date mentioned aggregated 2,972,800 bags. Clearances overseas in the same periods respectively amounted to 222,850, 262,700 and 2,421,800 bags. Entries of cotton at Rio de Janeiro during the four weeks ended January 23 last totalled 14,860 bags, as compared with 12,970 bags in the preceding four weeks, and clearances during the same period, 14,330 bags, against 11,770 bags. In the money market rates of discount for first class bills ruled in January at about 11 per cent. to 12 per cent. per annum.

Customs House receipts at Rio de Janeiro during January 1926 amounted to Rs.5,739,516\$595 (gold) and Rs.5,972,777\$395 (paper), as compared with Rs.5,157,163\$577 (gold) and Rs.5,175,335\$163 (paper) in January 1925. (*Report of the Anglo-South American Bank*.)

According to *Wileman's Brazilian Review*, exports of coffee in November last were valued at £6,168,000; manganese, £84,000; meat, £4,000; cotton, £164,000; and hides, £51,000. For the period January to November 1925 the total value of coffee exports was £63,107,000; and manganese, £675,000. Following the official figures, as published in the general Press, other leading exports during the first nine months of 1925 were rubber, £2,850,000; hides, £2,313,000; cotton, £1,961,000; cocoa, £1,677,000; yerba-mate, £1,575,000; oil seeds, £1,560,000; tobacco, £1,536,000; and meat, £1,345,000.

Tariff Alterations.—The Budget Bill for 1926 contains certain provisions affecting the Customs tariff. Among the chief items the duty on cast iron (in bars) is raised from 20 reis to 60 reis per kilogramme; the duty on cement is increased to 20 rise per kilogramme; and a new supplementary duty of 3 per cent. of the Customs rate is imposed on all goods, including those under Group 18 of the tariff (silk: raw, yarns, fabrics and products). The yield of this new tax will be devoted to fostering the home silk industry. The temporary reduction on paper for newspapers and periodicals is henceforth to apply to certain qualities only. Customs payments are to be made 60 per cent. in gold and 40 per cent. in paper money. The Government is empowered to restrict the importation of foreign products, or even to prohibit certain imports if it be proved that they are offered on such advantageous terms as to be injurious to the manufacturing or cultivation of similar goods in Brazil. (*La Nación*.)

Cotton Production, 1924-25.—The Cotton Section of the Ministry of Agriculture has issued the following statistics respecting the production, the home consumption, the exportation and the monthly stocks of cotton in the different months of the period August 1924 to July 1925 (in tons):—

 In order to avoid delay in the delivery of *Foreign Papers*, attention is drawn to the change of address of THE ECONOMIC REVIEW, the Business and Editorial Offices of which are now at 6, John Street, Adelphi, London, W.C.2.

	Production.	Home consumption.	Exports.	Stock.
1924 August ...	13,350	9,354	84	24,039
September ...	12,835	10,002	7	26,865
October ...	10,940	10,140	12	27,653
November ...	8,000	9,665	146	25,843
December ...	7,484	8,421	1,430	23,425
1925 January ...	10,450	8,947	1,392	23,536
February ...	7,800	9,334	1,643	20,359
March ...	6,650	9,660	1,427	15,922
April ...	5,525	9,232	994	11,221
May ...	15,543	10,055	1,084	15,625
June ...	16,273	9,872	1,184	20,842
July ...	16,354	9,217	1,653	26,326
Total ...	131,204	113,899	11,106	—

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE. FRENCH POLITICS AND FINANCE.

(From our Paris Correspondent.)

A solution of the financial difficulties of the country has not yet been found and public opinion once more is solely interested in the issue of the Parliamentary debate. The Chamber of Deputies on March 24 voted the last chapter of the Estimates of expenditure, representing a total sum of Fr.36,457 million. This figure does not include the various supplementary expenditures of different Government departments (such as the probable cost of the Moroccan and Syrian campaigns, extraordinary expenses of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs due to the rise of foreign exchange, etc.) amounting to Fr.763 million. Thus the total expenditure, as established by the General Reporter, M. Chappedelaine, comes to Fr.37,217 million. This figure may possibly be reduced by the Senate as the result of further economies. The Finance Committee of the Senate is already at work, but the task of introducing such economies is in the circumstances an exceedingly difficult one because of the continual rise of general prices, a fact on which the official communiqué issued by this Committee lays special stress. Incidentally, it may be noted that the sum of Fr.37,217 million arrived at by the Finance Committee of the Chamber includes Fr.356 million of extraordinary expenditure under the chapter of postal and telegraphical services, an item which provoked considerable discussion, many Deputies, with an influential Press backing, wishing to relieve the Budget by leaving it to the administration of this department to provide the necessary resources.

In a previous letter it was reported that the actual yield of the taxes already voted by both Chambers, but not yet put into operation, would fall considerably short of the original estimates. The estimated yield was fixed at Fr.2,015 million, but as these taxes are mostly indirect, the Treasury can only reap the benefit of them from the moment they come into force. This is not expected to be before April, and therefore the proceeds of three months' taxation is already lost. Moreover, this loss is reckoned to go on increasing at the rate of Fr.6 million (about £40,000) a day. Thus the actual yield of these taxes will probably not exceed Fr.1,400 million. In addition, some Fr.750 million are expected from the increased Customs duties (30 per cent.), although the Chambers have not yet definitely agreed as to the details of this measure.

Together old and fresh revenue represent a total of Fr.34,822 million, leaving a deficit of Fr.2,392 million still to be covered by new taxation.

The *taxe civique* proposed by M. Péret was adopted by the Finance Committee subject to certain amendments. Actually it is a combination of poll-tax and income-tax. Every head of a family not subject to the general income tax (or super-tax) is to pay Fr.40; those who pay the super-tax will be taxed at the rate of 8 to 10 per cent. of their assessable income. The Committee expect Fr.600 million to be yielded by the impost in its amended form. The tax is to remain in force for one year. It may be of interest to indicate the figures on which this calculation is based. There are:—

808,000 tax-payers with an assessable income of less than Fr.100* a year.

300,000 tax-payers with an assessable income of between Fr.100 and 10,000* a year.
530,000 taxpayers with an assessable income of between Fr.10,100 and 20,000* a year.
275,000 tax-payers with an assessable income of between Fr.20,100 and 50,000* a year.
58,000 tax-payers with an assessable income of between Fr.50,100 and 100,000* a year
22,000 tax-payers with an assessable income of between Fr.100,100 and 200,000* a year.
10,000 tax-payers with an assessable income above Fr.200,000 a year.

* Not subject to super tax.

As to the remainder of the deficit the opinions of the majority of the Chamber and of the Minister of Finance are not in accord. The latter proposed to raise the general turnover tax from 1.3 per cent. to 2 per cent., as, in his opinion, this would give a yield of Fr.1,875 million, which would nearly suffice to cover the deficit. But it was evident that the Chamber, after defeating M. Doumer on a similar question, would not be prepared to accept the proposal. The General Reporter of the Committee suggested as an alternative raising the existing property transfer taxes on real estate, business and goodwill, and an increase of the stamp duty on stocks and shares, with various minor items. It is reported that the Minister of Finance and the Committee are trying to arrive at a compromise in order that the Budget may be sent to the Senate as quickly as possible, and it is more than possible that a solution of the Budget problem may be realised on the basis of the two proposals.

Last week the foreign rate of exchange rose considerably, the £ ranking as high as 142. An official statement attributed the rise mainly to increased buying of foreign currency for commercial purposes, as many merchants failed to cover themselves at the proper time in the hope that the rate of exchange would become more favourable. Further, there was some Government buying on account of maturing foreign liabilities (£1,250,000 to the British War Stocks Office, £E. to the Crédit Foncier Egyptian, and 1,500,000 gold pesos to the Uruguayan Government). Notwithstanding the rise in foreign exchange there was little activity on the Paris Bourse, and even international stocks such as Rio Tinto, Tanganyika and Chartereds did not follow the upwards tendency, and sometimes even fell. As a rule the uncertainty of the political and financial outlook has a marked influence on business activity in France and to a certain extent checks the effects which inflation usually produces. Notwithstanding the continued rise of prices business people refrain from committing themselves in long operations, and the rise of stocks has therefore become very difficult. Nearly every banking report contains complaints on this score.

Business in the building trade has slackened more than in other branches, seeing the reconstruction work in the devastated areas is nearly completed; but to a certain extent this is also due to the reduction of Government credits for reconstruction purposes. Imports of building materials in 1924 aggregated 4,891,000 tons, but fell in 1925 to 3,632,000 tons. Imports of ordinary timber in 1924 aggregated 1,948,000 tons, and in 1925 only 1,459,000 tons.

In last week's issue it was stated that the proportion of ships of the French Mercantile Marine lying idle was 6 per cent. as compared with 10 per cent. in England: the latter figure should have been 3 per cent.

FOREIGN BANK RATES.

Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Amsterdam 3½	Dublin 6	Prague 6
Athens 10	Geneva 3½	Reval 9
Belfast 6	Helsingfors 7½	Riga 8
Belgrade ... 6	Kovno 7	Rome 7
Berlin 8	Lisbon 9	Sofia 7
Brussels 7½	Madrid ... 5	Stockholm ... 4½
Bucharest ... 6	Moscow ... 8	Tokyo 7.3
Budapest ... 7	New York... 4	Vienna 8
Copenhagen... 5½	Oslo 6	Warsaw 12
Danzig 9	Paris 6	

The official discount rates of the State Bank in Moscow for bills at two months is 8 per cent., for bills at four months 9 per cent., and for bills at six months 9½ per cent.

SPECIAL ARTICLES

(Whilst the Editor of "The Economic Review" welcomes in these columns the expression of all shades of opinion on matters of economic controversy, he is not necessarily identified with any particular opinion expressed.)

THE MINERAL RESOURCES OF THE FAR EAST.

By C. K. LEITH.

Reprinted from *Foreign Affairs*, an American quarterly review New York, by special permission of the Editor. Mr. Leith is Professor of Geology in the University of Wisconsin, and acted as technical adviser to the American Commission to Negotiate Peace in 1918 and 1919.

The common use of phrases like "the yellow peril," "the awakening of the Far East," "the challenge of Asia," imply a widespread belief in the capacity of the Far East* to advance in culture and industry, as well as in political and military power, to a position more or less comparable to that of Western Europe and the United States. It is apparent from the nature of the discussions that this belief is based principally on a consideration of the human factors involved in education, in the growth of population, and in political development. One looks in vain for correspondingly adequate consideration of the physical environment, to see how far it will permit of the expected advances. It seems to be assumed that the necessary physical resources will be found when the eastern peoples come to a point where they can use them. The Far East of the future is pictured with the familiar lineaments of highly industrialised western countries, where the "industrial revolution" has been based to a large degree on the extensive use of coal, iron, and other mineral products. It is pertinent, therefore, to appraise the mineral potentialities in the Far East, in order to see how far they justify the assumption that changes will take place there of the kind we ordinarily associate with modern industrial progress.

At the present time the countries of the Far East yield only an insignificant proportion of the world's total of the essential commercial minerals,—for example, about five per cent. of the copper, one per cent. of the iron ore, five per cent. of the coal, and three per cent. of the oil. Only in a few of the less essential mineral commodities are the proportions larger. In contrast, the countries bordering or tributary to the North Atlantic now furnish the vastly larger part of the world's requirements in essential minerals,—90 per cent. of the coal, 98 per cent. of the iron ore, 65 per cent. of the copper, and 90 per cent. of the oil.

There is a tendency to attribute this situation to the mere lack of exploration in the Far East, and to assume that when this has reached a stage comparable to that of the North Atlantic countries the production of essential minerals will be more or less equalised. But a survey of the facts proves this assumption to have but a slender basis. In fact, the conclusion seems inevitable that (with certain exceptions to be noted) the present small scale of mineral production in the Far East is not a temporary but a permanent condition, being due to the absence of mineral resources in quantity or grade or distribution suitable for effective use. This conclusion has been repeatedly reached by competent investigators.† Nevertheless, due principally to travellers' tales, the prevailing popular notion is that the countries of the Far East, especially China, contain fabulously rich mineral wealth.

In the discussion of this problem confusion may arise unless a scale of comparison is indicated. There are in the Far East many units of mineral resources which seem large in an absolute sense, but which on a world scale must be assigned to a subordinate position. Also, the world scale used for comparison should be that of

recent years, for the reason that the demand for mineral resources has so multiplied during the last quarter of a century that it can now be satisfied only by a relatively small number of mineral districts of exceptional size. The result is a marked concentration of the mineral industry in a few places. While in the aggregate other districts may contain vast quantities of minerals, they are so small individually, or so scattered, or are of such a low grade, or involve such high mining costs, that they play only a subordinate part in the satisfaction of present world demands. Much remains to be learned about the world's ultimate resources, but exploration has gone far enough to disclose many salient features of the mineral geography of the future, from which can be gleaned some of the essential facts of the mineral resource situation of the Far East.

Iron and Coal Resources.—In the Pacific region of the Far East the most talked of and significant of the resources to be considered are the coal and iron ore of China. The coal resources, though but slightly developed, are very large, some estimates indicating that they form nearly a quarter of the world's supply. Some of the largest reserves, however, are in remote regions which will be inaccessible for commercial development for a long time to come. The only coking coal available in large quantities for metallurgical purposes is in Chihli, Fengtien, and Shansi in the north, and Kiangsi in the south.

The iron ore reserves of China, according to latest estimates, aggregate 950,000,000 tons, a figure which represents about one-fifth of the reserves of iron ore of present commercial grade in the United States. An analysis of the estimates, however, shows that much of this tonnage may not be considered workable under present conditions, due to inferior grade or remoteness from existing lines of communication, and should not be included in any comparison that is made with reserves of commercial grade existing elsewhere. For example, it includes low grade, banded hematites and magnetites in Manchuria and north-eastern Chihli, running 30 to 36 per cent. in iron, which must be concentrated before smelting. The feasibility of effecting sufficiently cheap concentration is still to be proved. In the United States and other parts of the world there are large quantities of ores of this class which have not yet been able to compete with the ores concentrated by nature, and which are not included in estimates of commercial reserves. The inclusion of these low grade ores in the commonly quoted figures of China's iron ore resources but emphasises the real poverty of China in ores of present commercial grade.

The immediately available Chinese ores of commercial grade, not requiring concentration, and not handicapped by remoteness from transportation, are estimated at about 100,000,000 tons, about three-fourths of which are along the Yangste river, and one-fourth in the Hsuan-Lung region north-west of Peking. The first named group, which is well known, has been mined on a modern scale. It would supply the iron and steel plants of the United States for less than two years. The remaining reserves will not be able to compete commercially in the world's iron and steel business for a very long time. The present rate of Chinese iron ore production is a million tons or less a year—less than two per cent. of that of the United States. Japan now controls commercially about 90 per cent. of the available reserves.

Obviously, then, the reserves of iron ore now known to exist in China do not warrant the huge capital investment necessary to the building of a great iron and steel industry.

Much has been said about the probability of the existence of great undiscovered reserves of iron ore in China.

* The "Far East" is here used to include India, Eastern Asia, and the adjacent islands of Japan, the East Indies, and the Philippines. It is subdivided broadly into the Pacific region and India.

† See Note at the end of this article.

The best Chinese iron ores are of a type which is hard and resistant to erosion, and therefore outcrop freely. It is true that native methods of smelting favoured the use of softer ores, and that the value of the harder ores was not recognised by the Chinese. Nevertheless, there are few records of actual "discovery," in the geographic sense, since China has been penetrated by foreigners. The chances, therefore, of adding to China's iron resources by further exploration are not promising.

Japan is the chief consumer of iron and steel products in the Far East, but its known resources of iron ore are largely confined to one deposit, the Kamaishi Mine, in Riquchu province, with an estimated reserve of 35,000,000 tons. In various additional sources some of the Japanese estimates indicate the existence of 45,000,000 tons more, but this ore is widely scattered and much of it is of low grade. Domestic production has averaged 209,000 tons yearly for the last ten years, or less than half of one per cent. of that of the United States. Japan also has reserves in Korea, estimated at 4,000,000 tons, and from this source has imported slightly more than the domestic production. Japan's paucity of iron ore explains its activity in acquiring and developing the Yangste deposits of China and its present attempts to concentrate the low grade ores of Manchuria.

Japan is better supplied with coal than with iron ore, but compared with the other principal industrial nations of the world it is very poorly off. It has exhausted a much larger proportion of its reserves than any other country, and its industrial future is correspondingly limited. For some years the Imperial Steel works have been supplied by mixing Japanese coal with Chinese coal. Much of the coke from Japanese coal is weak and porous. The reserve of coking coal is so small that there has been much discussion of a government plan to electrify the iron works, in order to postpone its exhaustion.

The iron ore deposits of the Russian Far East aggregate hardly more than 5,000,000 tons, in scattered deposits. The only coal proved to be of good coking quality is in Sakhalin Island, where the fields are but little developed and good ports are scarce and ice-bound for several months of the year. Both iron ore and bituminous coal fields are insignificant in Indo-China. Siam has a few scattered undeveloped iron ore deposits, but the known coal is mostly lignite. The Malay Peninsula and British Borneo contain some iron ore deposits, but they are only of local importance, the aggregate being not more than 25,000,000 tons.

The situation seems more promising, at first glance, in the Netherlands East Indies, particularly in the south-eastern part of Borneo and in the central part of Celebes. The iron ore in these regions constitutes one of the largest reserves yet known in the Far East; it is estimated at 800,000,000 tons, much of it within easy reach of the sea. But this ore is of the lateritic variety, like that of Cuba and of Surigao Province in the Philippines—a variety which, because of its content of nickel, chrome, high alumina, and moisture, has thus far presented certain metallurgical difficulties which have prevented its extensive use even in favourable locations. A furnace is now being built by a Dutch syndicate, in co-operation with the Government of the Netherlands East Indies. While there is coking coal in this region, the amount is so limited and of such a low grade that a study is being made of the possibility of electric smelting, as well as smelting with oil residue. There is reason to believe, however, that neither of these methods can be developed much beyond the point of supplying small local needs.

The Philippines contain important deposits of lateritic iron ore, estimated at 430,000,000 tons or more, principally in Surigao, on northern Mindanao. Lignitic coal is abundant, and bituminous coal less so. Coking coal exists in very limited quantities, principally in southern Mindanao. Any iron ore industry which may develop is not likely to supply more than local demands.

It appears highly improbable, then, that an iron and

steel industry on the scale of Western Europe or the United States can develop in the Pacific region of the Far East. China, with the best supply of coking coal, does not have enough iron ore of present commercial grade, and the geographic separation of the best available coking coal and iron ore is a heavy handicap. Netherlands East Indies and the Philippines have large supplies of iron ore, but very limited supplies of coking coal. Neither the ore nor the coal is of the best grade. Japan, with the largest plant capacity, largest consumption, and the best organisation, lacks both coal and iron in sufficient quantities. The scattered supplies of coal and iron in all the other countries of the Far East are insignificant in comparison with the ones named. If all the coal and iron resources of the Pacific region were to be pooled under one operation, the total supplies would be adequate for a large industry; but there would still be heavy commercial handicaps, due to the grade of the iron ore and to the wide geographic separation of the best available grades of iron and coking coal, resulting probably in costs too high for successful competition with the other principal iron and steel producing nations of the world. Disregarding political boundaries, perhaps the best potential combination in the Pacific region would be between the iron ores of the Philippines and the Dutch East Indies on one hand, and the coking coal of the north-eastern provinces of China on the other—the whole under the management of the Japanese.

There remains to consider the iron and coal resources of India. Here are large reserves of high grade iron ore, estimated at upwards of one and one-half billion tons. These ores, though considerably less in quantity than the ores of the United States and Western Europe, are far the largest and best of the iron ore reserves of the Far East. It is much less certain that there is an adequate supply of coke in India, notwithstanding large reserves of coal. A committee of the Indian Government, appointed in 1920, indicated the probable exhaustion of the coking coal within forty years, but more recent discoveries are said to have increased the known reserves. (Much of the coal is vitiated by high phosphorus and ash content.) Production of iron and steel is as yet on a small scale, but the capacity has increased faster than has local consumption, pointing to export to Western Europe as the natural outlet. In summary, it may be said that the supplies of raw materials in India are adequate for the growth of a large iron and steel industry. The limiting factors are the small capacity for local consumption and the distance from the principal foreign markets. In the immediate future the mining industry will depend for growth mainly upon exportation, which is another way of saying that it will be dependent upon western industrial centres.

It is sometimes argued that even if the quantity and quality of the resources in the Far East do not favour the development of an iron and steel industry on a profitable commercial basis, such a development might still be effected, at a cost, for political and military reasons. This argument fails to take into account the fact that such an industry involves huge capital outlays, for thousands of plants, not only those necessary for the primary conversion of the raw materials, but for the finishing and manufacturing necessary to put the iron and steel into the highly varied forms used by the ultimate consumer. The financial strain involved in going much beyond the output determined by normal commercial feasibility would test the resources of even the financially strongest countries of the world, and it is hardly to be expected that the financial resources of the Far Eastern countries will permit much building of this kind.

Oil Resources.—The oil produced in the Dutch East Indies, India, British Borneo, and Japan aggregates about 3 per cent. of the world's production. Of this about half comes from the Dutch East Indies. There are large possibilities for further development, particularly in the Dutch East Indies, in New Guinea, in the Philippines, in China, and in Sakhalin Island. The last-named locality, nominally Russian, but under Japanese com-

mercial control, is regarded as particularly promising. But while larger production may be expected in the Far East, there is nothing in sight to indicate that it will ever be a dominant world source ranking with the United States and Mexico, or with south-eastern Europe and western Asia. Local needs will be supplied, and the rest of the oil will be exported to parts of the world where industry is already established. Much of the oil production of the Dutch East Indies has been simply tributary to European demands, and will doubtless remain so. Moreover, in the absence of a general industrial development based on adequate supplies of all the essential minerals, particularly iron and steel, oil development alone has nowhere brought about a high degree of industrialisation.

Copper.—Japan is the only large producer of copper in the East, yielding about five per cent. of the world's total in 1924. The size of the copper reserves of Japan promises the continuance of production on the present scale, but little more. Outside of Japan the production of copper in the Far East is negligible, nor is there anything highly promising in sight.

Lead and Zinc.—The lead and zinc production of Asia is insignificant, the total production in recent years from all countries being four to five per cent. of the world's total of lead and less than two per cent. of zinc. The outstanding lead field is the newly-developing Bawdwin district of Burma. There are other undeveloped deposits in China, but there is little hope that any of these will prove to be large, and as yet nothing promises any considerable change in world proportions. If there are to be any important new deposits revealed, present high prices should soon bring them out.

Gold and Silver.—Gold is scattered in small amounts through Japan, China, Korea, British India, and the Dutch and British East Indies, but the aggregate yield of them all was only seven per cent. of the world's total in 1924. Much the same may be said in regard to silver, the total of eastern Asia for 1924 being about four per cent. of the world's output. The most promising silver development is in the Bawdwin field of Burma, where silver occurs in the lead ore. Gold and silver have been objects of search in the Far East for centuries, with results so unsatisfactory that there are no great hopes for anything better in the future.

Minor Commercial Minerals.—The Far Eastern countries produce considerable amounts of minor commercial minerals, though no one country has any strong combination of them. China is the main source of the *antimony* supply of the world, supplying over 75 per cent. Ceylon has long dominated the markets for flake *graphite*, but is now overshadowed by Madagascar. Korea is an important producer of amorphous *graphite*. *Phosphates*, used as fertilisers, are being mined in increasing amounts from various Australasian islands, particularly from Ocean Island (English) of the Gilbert group, the Isle of Angaur (Japanese) of the Pellew group, Tahiti and Makatea (French) of the Society group, and the Isle of Nauru (English) of the Marshall group. The sum total, however, is less than ten per cent. of the world's production. India produces nearly a quarter of the world's *chrome* ore, being second only to southern Rhodesia. In recent years, also, India has produced between a third and a half of the world's *manganese* ore. The most important *tin* region of the world is in the Malay Peninsula and the adjacent islands of the Dutch East Indies. Siam and China produce minor amounts. These countries together produce about 65 per cent. of the world's total. Over one-half of the world's production of *tungsten*, an important alloy in steel, comes from China, and about 15 per cent. from India. This is a comparatively recent war and post-war development.

Undiscovered Resources.—But what about yet undiscovered resources in the Far East? There is a popular notion that it is largely an unexplored area. It may be pointed out that really large mineral deposits usually have some surface or geologic indications, which are likely to be known in densely populated regions char-

acteristic of the Far East. Up to recent years certain minerals like tungsten, and zinc in the form of carbonate, were not recognised by the natives as valuable, suggesting that there are still possibilities for the discovery of ores not previously known as valuable. But as a matter of fact nearly every so-called discovery in recent years has been really a re-appraisal of a mineral occurrence already known. It has been comparatively easy for explorers to go directly to most of the known mineral indications, except in the far hinterland, and their activities for several decades have yielded results far less notable than those obtained by equivalent exploration in the great mineral-producing regions of the world. Liberal allowance is to be made for the fact that, on the whole, exploration in the Far East, particularly in the hinterland, has not yet been nearly as intensive as in western industrialised countries, and that much miscellaneous development of mineral resources is naturally to be expected. But the fact remains that the considerable mass of information already collected has a decidedly negative bearing.

Conclusion.—The Pacific region in the Far East is deficient in essential minerals necessary for the development of a great industrial civilisation, when considered in relation to their location, grade, and relative quantities. The more conspicuous deficiencies are in iron ore, coking coal, copper, lead and zinc. India alone has really adequate iron and coal deposits, but even here the supply of coking coal is apparently far less than in the industrial nations of the West. Many of the minerals which are produced in abundance, like tin, tungsten, antimony, graphite, manganese, and chromite, are largely exported to the Western world, for the reason that they are of use mainly in a highly industrialised society and are not in themselves a sufficient basis for industrial organisation. Inertia of invested capital will in itself tend to keep the balance of mineral control in the West. If all of the Far Eastern resources could be combined, they would still be far inferior to those of Western Europe or the United States.

This situation cannot be attributed simply to lack of exploration. There has been exploration enough to disclose the probable main outlines of the future.

In so far as the possession of adequate mineral resources is a necessary basis for building future industrial, political, and military power, the countries of the Far East are proportionally handicapped,—the Pacific region more, India less. Whatever progress there may be must necessarily be of a kind produced by other factors. Supremacy resulting from the possession of mineral resources will remain centred about the North Atlantic. "The white man's burden" is partly one imposed by nature's distribution of raw materials.

It remains to consider the human elements in the problem. It appears, at least up to the present, that the kind of skill, organising power, and initiative necessary for the effective use of mineral resources is found to a notable degree where the most adequate resources are found, namely in the countries bordering the North Atlantic. Conditions there have of course afforded the best opportunity for bringing out these qualities. Thence have radiated the influences which have initiated most of the mineral developments in other parts of the world. Whatever the latent capacity of the peoples of the Far East for undertaking mineral developments, the physical conditions do not promise opportunity for rapid progress in its expression. Even though the potential resources were equal, which they are not, it remains to be proven that the human qualities necessary for their use are likewise equal, notwithstanding such conspicuous exceptions as are exhibited in Japan or in the Indian steel industry.

From the standpoint of mineral resources, therefore, we may regard the Far Eastern countries, not as challenging western supremacy, but as calling for our sympathetic co-operation in their contest with unsatisfactory environmental conditions.

World demand will continue to force the development

of such resources as exist in the Far East, and this will require that capital and skill be supplied from the world's industrial centres. Japan, in taking a leading part in this movement, is merely doing what other industrial nations are doing the world over. Whatever we may think of the political desirability of this movement, it is a reality, based broadly on civilisation's mounting demand for raw materials, and it probably cannot be stopped or even materially slowed up by any action of individuals or of governments.

NOTE.—The writer refers readers interested in following the subject of mineral production in the Far East to the following sources of information:—

"The Iron Ores and Iron Industry of China." By F. R. Tegengren: *Memoirs of the Geological Survey of China*, Ser. A. No. 2, in two parts, with atlas, 1921-1924.

"General Statement on the Mining Industry of China." By V. K. Ting and W. H. Wong: *Special report, Geol. Survey of China*, No. 1, June 1921.

Reports of the Imperial Mineral Resources Bureau, London.

"The Mineral Industry." Published annually by McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York.

"World Atlas of Commercial Geology." Part I, Distribution of Mineral Production: U.S. Geological Survey, 1921.

"The Iron Ore Resources of the World." XIth International Geological Congress, Stockholm, 1910, two volumes, with atlas.

"The Coal Resources of the World." XIIth International Geological Congress, Toronto, 1913, three volumes, with atlas.

"Geology and Mineral Resources of the Philippine Islands." By Warren D. Smith: Pub. No. 19, Bureau of Science, Manila, 1924.

"Certain Iron-ore Resources of the World: China." By H. Foster Bain: *Trans. Am. Inst. of Min. & Met. Engrs.*, Vol. 61, 1919, pp. 132-135.

"Recent Development in the Iron and Steel Industry of India." By Charles Page Perin: *Am. Iron and Steel Inst.*, 1920.

"The Mineral Resources of China." By C. Y. Wang: Tientsin Press, Ltd., 1921 or 1922.

THE ECONOMIST'S BOOKSHELF

A STUDY OF INDIAN MONETARY PROBLEMS.

Money and the Money Market in India. By P. A. WADIA, Professor of Politics and Economics, Wilson College, Bombay, and G. N. JOSHI, Professor of Economics and History, Wilson College, Bombay. (London: Macmillan and Co., Ltd. Price, 21s. net.)

This volume, like its predecessor, "The Wealth of India," is a well-written and penetrating study of some fundamental economic problems, and its appearance should find its authors with few, if any, rivals among Indian economists of to-day. Not only is sound scholarship and learning patent on every page and throughout every chapter, but the whole work is marked with a literary excellence which can only add to its general attractiveness. In "The Wealth of India" the authors produced a unique model in point of form, and this new volume carries the standard still higher above the achievement of any other Indian economist, a fact which is worthy of emphasis because some sound economic thinking has been done in recent years by Indian students and much of it has lost its mark and force through the awkwardness or slovenliness of its literary clothes. The difficulties are, of course, manifold and great, but Professors Wadia and Joshi have surmounted them with consummate skill and seeming ease.

Few will disagree with the authors when they assert that most of the problems of the world are acknowledged to be problems rooted in monetary policy, in currency measures, in exchange regulation, or in credit control, and in their present study they have endeavoured to assist in the formulation of a definite monetary policy for India, based on "incontestable monetary principles and facts." They recognise that industry, trade, commerce, the entire productive machinery on which depends the satisfaction of the fundamental needs of life, presupposes confidence in the stability of prices, and confidence in the stability of the monetary unit.

They admit what others are slow to admit, namely that it is possible to organise society on a basis different from that of modern economic institutions, but they see also what others are slow to see, that if the evils and harmful consequences incidental to our present economic life are to be avoided it is necessary to undertake a dispassionate analysis of our institutions. Complete absence of partiality, in so far as political or racial prejudice is intended by that term, was a conspicuous characteristic of "The Wealth of India," and it remains dominant in this new work. The authors encourage no narrow or purely nationalistic doctrines of economic faith, and their conception of economic life is conterminous with their conception of the general interests and welfare of mankind. They have vision, and they are idealists, but neither the one nor the other has roughed the edge of the criticisms they feel disposed to make, as, for instance, when they testify to the distinct lack of organisation and development about the money market in India, or, as may be gathered from their remarks on Currency Policy and "the return to a halting clumsy device that secures neither stability of foreign exchanges nor stability of prices, and inevitably involves the wasteful absorption of millions of pounds' worth of gold that do nobody any good." There can be but little doubt that in their studies preliminary to the appearance of "The Wealth of India," Messrs. Wadia and Joshi found questions of money and monetary policy thrust upon their attention, and the present volume is the sequel to that experience. The reader will not find it hard to discover in which direction the authors are looking for aid and assistance in meeting the evils incident to currency and monetary problems. The influence of Mr. J. M. Keynes on the writers of this book is apparent in several places, and they go so far as to recognise readily "the theoretical advantages of a conscious control of currency on the bases of index-numbers—if such control on these lines is practicable at all." However, they assert that the followers of Mr. Keynes in India must reflect long before they think of urging in favour of the Gold-Exchange Standard that it secures stability of prices in that country. In the first place, they point out, it must be remembered that Indian banking is still in its infancy, her credit superstructure is of the crudest type, and it is obviously ridiculous to speak of "the diseases of our credit and banking system." In the second place, industrialism in the proper sense of the expression is only just coming into being; "trade unemployment," in the sense that Mr. Keynes uses the expression, does not exist in an acute form in India. The problem of unemployment is different and of a more acute nature—namely, "a surplus population living parasitically on the land." The policy of keeping a stable price level may meet the economic problem of Great Britain, but, consider Messrs. Wadia and Joshi, it cannot meet that which has risen in India. What is needed, according to them, is industrial development, which requires, among other things, an upward trend of prices. There can be no room for the play of business enterprise and industrial activity with a dead level of prices, and where credit and banking are in their initial stages it is considered that their growth necessarily implies a fluctuating price level. To stop the fluctuations may mean the "destruction of credit and the drying up of the life blood of economic life"; an opinion which Mr. W. T. Layton is effectively drawn upon to corroborate for them. In addition to many excellent chapters relating to monetary theory this volume contains some extraordinarily good historical work, all of which will be found indispensable to the student of Indian economic problems.

Single copies of *Foreign Affairs*, an American Quarterly Review, may be obtained of all leading booksellers or through the International News Company Limited, 5, Bream's Buildings, London, E.C.4, price 6s. 6d. Annual subscription 26s., post free.—*Adv.*

SHORT NOTICES.

Ulster Year Book, 1926.—This Year Book, which presents in a simple, convenient and accessible form statistical and other information regarding Northern Ireland and its people, their environment and social conditions, health and education, transport and communication, agriculture, trade and industry, is published by H.M. Stationery Office, 15, Donegall Square West, Belfast. Official statistics relating to Northern Ireland have at present to be sought in a variety of departmental reports and publications. In this Year Book the aim has been to bring together the more important official statistics of Northern Ireland, arrange them in a simple manner and present them within the limits of a volume of reasonable size. The authenticity of the statistics which became available during 1925 is vouched for by the Departments and Ministries concerned. The Year Book contains an Ordnance Survey map of Northern Ireland and seven plates and diagrams.

The History of the South Wales Miners. By Ness Edwards* (London: The Labour Publishing Company Ltd. Price, 2s. 6d. net.) Mr. Edwards has already produced a very readable account of the Industrial Revolution in South Wales, and in this new little volume he embarks upon a historical study of the South Wales Miners. He commences his survey with the early attempts among miners in the first decade of the last century to organise themselves and ends it with an analysis of the Hauliers' Strike of 1893. The subsequent history of the combinative movement among miners in South Wales belongs to the South Wales Miners' Federation, and to this Mr. Edwards will devote himself in another volume. Of the present small work it may be said that the author has marshalled within a small compass a vast mass of historical material, some of it well worth reviving because it relates to facts which are scarcely old enough to have become part and parcel of antiquity, and which need to be remembered by many others than those in whom the bitternesses generated by actual experience still reside. The memories of the battle between the Ebbw Vale miners and the rest of the miners of South Wales will take long to efface themselves from the traditions of the neighbourhood; other memories revived by Mr. Edwards will take still longer to efface themselves from the traditions of the nation. They are well known to the average student of industrial history, and at most all Mr. Edwards can hope to do in this direction is to throw fresh emphasis upon facts corroborated in other quarters. In this connection his chapters on Scotch Cattle and the Amalgamated Association are most illustrative. The remainder of the book deals with the history of the Sliding Scale Association, and it is interesting also as a sidelight on the career and influence of William Abraham (Mabon). There can be but little doubt that Mr. Edwards has his own sympathies, and we do not like the blood-curdling document reproduced on the cover of this work; but in writing he has held himself well in check and has presented in a particularly lucid manner the details and facts of his case. It would be a mistake to certify the book as mere propaganda, since it contains much that is historically serviceable and true.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

Giornale degli Economisti e Rivista di Statistica. February 1926. (Rome: Via del Tritone, 67.)

The American Economic Review. March 1926. (St. Albans, Vt. Price, \$1.25.)

rates, and the business yields a steady and most satisfactory profit to our members. Our competitors were not slow to follow us in reducing their rates, and several companies now quote rates that are only slightly higher and which, after deduction of the commission they pay, result in lower net premiums. The London Life, with its low expense ratio, should be in a position to quote the lowest rates for this class of business, and with the further improvement in the mortality of assured lives we feel justified in issuing a new table of slightly reduced rates.

We have, after careful consideration, decided to adopt a scheme of assurance without medical examination. In this we are not in any sense breaking new ground, for the system has been thoroughly tried and with careful oversight found not only to appeal to the assuring public but to show most satisfactory results to the pioneer offices. We propose to charge our ordinary rates and to limit the scheme to endowment assurances maturing not later than at age 65, and to whole life assurances with premiums payable during twenty years or less. We reserve the right to require medical examination in any particular case, and for ages over 45 at entry and for assurances of over £2,000 such examination would always be required.

The report and accounts were duly received and adopted, and the meeting closed with a hearty vote of thanks to the chairman and directors.

LONDON LIFE ASSOCIATION.

REDUCTION OF NON-PARTICIPATING RATES.

ASSURANCE WITHOUT MEDICAL EXAMINATION.

The ordinary general meetings of the London Life Association Ltd., and of the Clergy Mutual Assurance Society, which is associated with it, and the joint general meeting of the association and the society, were held on the 24th inst. at Winchester House, Old Broad Street, E.C.

Mr. R. B. Jacomb (the president of the association) presided, and in opening the proceedings alluded to the increase in the total funds by over £1,000,000, and to the new assurances completed of £2,450,000, which was by far the largest total reached in a single year.

Continuing, he said, I will leave the report to speak for itself on other details, and pass to the rates of reduction of premium and of reversionary bonus declared, which are after all of chief importance to members. For members of the London Life under the reduction of premium system we have for the third successive year increased the rates of reduction by two, instead of the average increase by one for the twenty years up to 1922, and for reversionary bonus policies we have again declared a compound reversionary bonus of 36s. per cent. For members of the Clergy Mutual we have been able to declare largely increased rates of reversionary bonus. Policies for the whole of life will for all ages up to 65 get a reversionary bonus of £2 5s. per cent., and above that age an increasing bonus up to £6 6s. 6d. at age 100. Endowment assurance will get a reversionary bonus of £3 per cent.

The report alludes to the difference between a compound reversionary bonus, such as is granted under the system of the London Life, and reversionary bonus based on the sum assured only, such as those declared for Clergy Mutual members, and it also alludes to the low premiums charged by the London Life under its reversionary bonus system. I would like to emphasise strongly the point about the low premiums charged, for while other Life offices are able to declare higher rates of bonus, one is apt to overlook the other side of the question, namely, the larger premiums per cent. that have to be paid. For example, if you take eight of the leading offices which give bonuses on the compound reversionary bonus plan, the average initial assurance at death granted at ages 30 and 40 for an annual premium of £100 is £4,020 and £3,070, whereas in the case of the London Life the initial assurances are £4,260 and £3,240 respectively. It is the return to be secured on the premiums paid which is the main consideration.

There are two matters of importance which are not alluded to in the report, but which I desire to bring to your notice. You will be aware that the mortality of assured lives is considerably lighter than it was—say thirty years ago—and that in consequence a demand has arisen for the reduction of premiums charged for life assurance. So far as with-profit assurance is concerned there is little to be said for reducing the rates of premium for new entrants. It would not be fair on existing members if the new entrants are to have the same rates of bonus, and the better plan seems to be to keep these premiums unaltered and the increased profit from mortality will go, as it now does, to increase the rates of bonus. Assurances without profits—non-participating assurances we call them—are, however, another matter.

The London Life was the pioneer of low non-participating rates, and when, some ten years ago, we issued our new table of premiums, we met with much criticism. We did not, however, take this step in the dark, but with full knowledge that the rates were adequate. We have completed a large amount of assurances, under t

STATISTICAL SECTION

THE TRADE BAROMETER

Our weekly index is composed of quotations for the ten following commodities:—

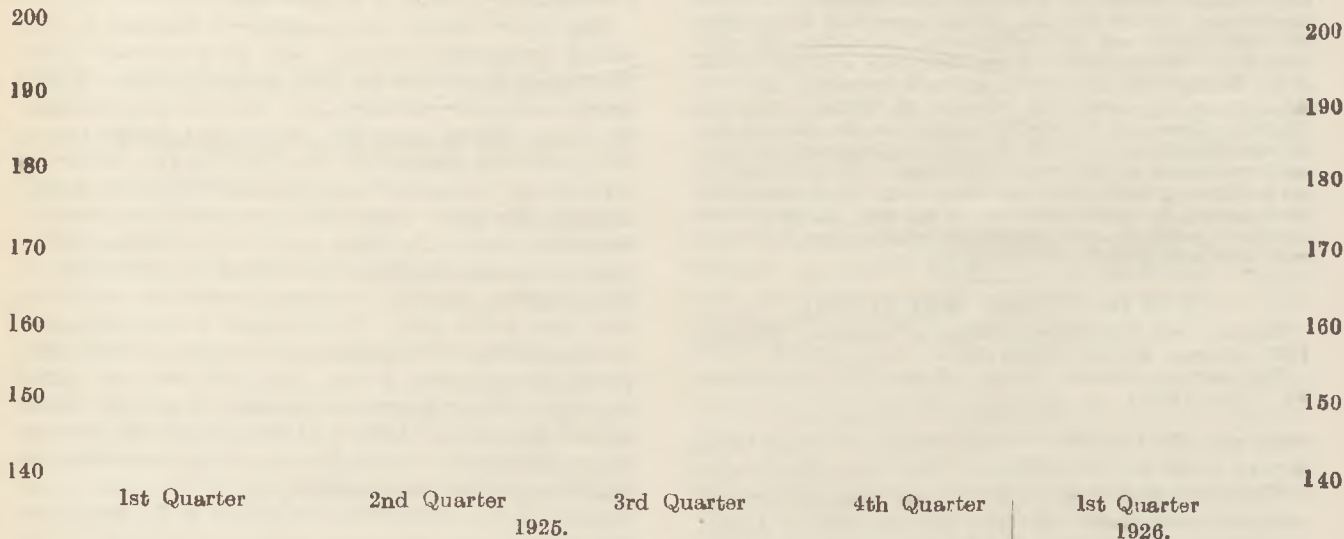
- | | | | | |
|--------------|-----------------|------------|-----------|------------|
| 1. Pig iron. | 3. Coal. | 5. Cotton. | 7. Hides. | 9. Bacon. |
| 2. Tin. | 4. Linseed Oil. | 6. Wool. | 8. Wheat. | 10. Sugar. |

Table I. shows the movements of our ten commodities in the aggregate, and Table II. the movements of each of them in relation to the others. We have chosen December 30, 1921, as our base, the price of each commodity on that day being represented by 100 (at a time when the index in Table I. stood at 150). For a full explanation of our index number see THE ECONOMIC REVIEW, Aug. 29, 1924, page 194.

TABLE I.

Date 1920.	10 Com- modities	Bd. of Tde Monthly Average	Date	10 Com- modities	Bd. of Tde Monthly Average	Date	10 Com- modities	Bd. of Tde Monthly Average	Date	10 Com- modities	Bd. of Tde Monthly Average
Jan. 16	367.9	296.6	1923			Apr. 18	177.5	164.7	July 17	160.3	157.5
May 14	391.2	325.5	Jan. 12	162.8	157.0	May 16	171.2	163.7	Aug. 14	158.6	157.0
July 16	418.8	316.9	Feb. 16	177.2	157.5	June 20	167.8	162.6	Sept. 18	158.3	156.0
Dec. 17	257.0	263.8	Mar. 16	192.4	160.3	July 18	167.1	162.6	Oct. 16	154.1	154.8
1921			Apr. 20	198.5	162.0	Aug. 15	175.3	165.2	Nov. 13	153.2	153.7
Jan. 14	244.2	245.9	May 18	198.1	159.8	Sept. 19	167.9	166.9	Dec. 18	153.0	153.2
Apr. 15	202.8	204.8	June 15	190.0	159.3	Oct. 17	172.5	170.2	1926		
July 15	194.4	194.1	July 20	177.3	156.5	Nov. 14	173.3	169.8	Jan. 15	151.6	151.3
Oct. 14	170.2	180.7	Aug. 17	174.6	154.5	Dec. 12	171.7	170.1	Feb. 12	148.4	148.8
Dec. 16	153.2	167.9	Sept. 14	173.2	157.8	1925			" 19	147.9	
Dec. 30	150.0		Oct. 19	166.0	158.1	Jan. 16	174.8	171.0	" 26	148.0	
1922			Nov. 16	171.7	160.8	Feb. 13	175.2	168.9	Mar. 5	146.4	
Jan. 20	144.0	164.0	Dec. 14	177.0	163.4	Mar. 17	172.8	166.3	" 12	146.1	
May 19	162.1	160.6	1924			Apl. 17	161.9	162.5	" 19	146.8	
July 14	165.1	160.3	Jan. 18	178.6	165.4	May 15	158.7	159.0	" 26	145.2	
Sept. 15	161.2	154.3	Feb. 15	187.9	167.0	June 19	160.6	157.6			
Dec. 15	161.2	155.8	Mar. 14	182.1	165.4						

CHART ILLUSTRATING TABLE I.



We regret to say that Chart had not arrived at time of going to Press.

TABLE II.

Date	Pig iron.	Tin.	Coal.	Linseed Oil.	Cotton.	Wool.	Hides.	Wheat.	Bacon	Sugar.	Mean.	Date.
Dec. 30, 1921	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	Dec. 30, 1921
1922												
July 28 ...	92.9	94.5	97.2	157.9	110.1	111.1	97.1	119.0	116.5	119.2	111.15	... July 28
Sept. 29 ...	94.3	95.2	92.9	135.1	105.9	117.8	96.4	82.8	104.0	134.6	105.90	... Sept. 29
Nov. 3 ...	95.5	107.5	100.0	140.3	119.9	133.3	106.5	91.9	104.8	134.6	113.43	... Nov. 3
Dec. 29 ...	89.4	106.7	91.5	138.6	126.0	120.0	93.5	90.4	89.7	138.5	108.43	... Dec. 29
1923												
May 18 ...	110.8	117.9	128.3	166.7	120.2	137.8	102.9	102.7	91.2	242.3	132.08	... May 18
Oct. 12 ...	93.4	117.1	90.6	150.9	136.4	126.7	84.8	83.0	66.2	145.9*	109.50	... Oct. 12
Nov. 16 ...	97.2	127.4	97.2	149.1	165.8	128.9	87.0	86.2	73.5	132.7	114.50	... Nov. 16
1924												
Feb. 15 ...	96.7	163.4	96.2	171.9	159.6	151.1	91.3	100.4	65.8	156.1	125.25	... Feb. 15
July 11 ...	89.6	128.9	74.5	140.4	140.6	142.2	92.8	111.5	80.9	101.4	110.28	... July 11
Aug. 15 ...	87.7	148.0	78.3	145.6	158.8	151.1	94.2	124.1	84.6	96.6	116.90	... Aug. 15
Sept. 26 ...	85.8	136.6	72.6	151.8	120.6	151.1	97.1	113.8	81.6	108.1	111.91	... Sept. 26
1925												
Feb. 27 ...	84.0	153.8	69.8	178.9	116.0	160.0	95.7	128.9	88.6	95.3*	117.10	... Feb. 27
June 26 ...	77.8	147.9	63.2	147.4	114.7	115.6	84.1	121.7	98.2	85.9	105.65	... June 26
Oct. 30 ...	74.5	171.2	59.4	131.6	90.7	115.6	108.7	97.2	94.9	70.6	101.44	... Oct. 30
1926												
Feb. 5 ...	72.2	165.2	63.2	114.0	92.2	102.2	100.0	114.6	94.1	76.8	99.65	... Feb. 5
Mar. 19 ...	72.2	170.8	62.3	107.9	87.7	102.2	94.2	109.1	94.9	74.1	97.90	... Mar. 19
" 26 ...	72.2	165.7	60.4	108.8	87.7	102.2	92.8	108.3	97.1	72.9	96.81	... " 26

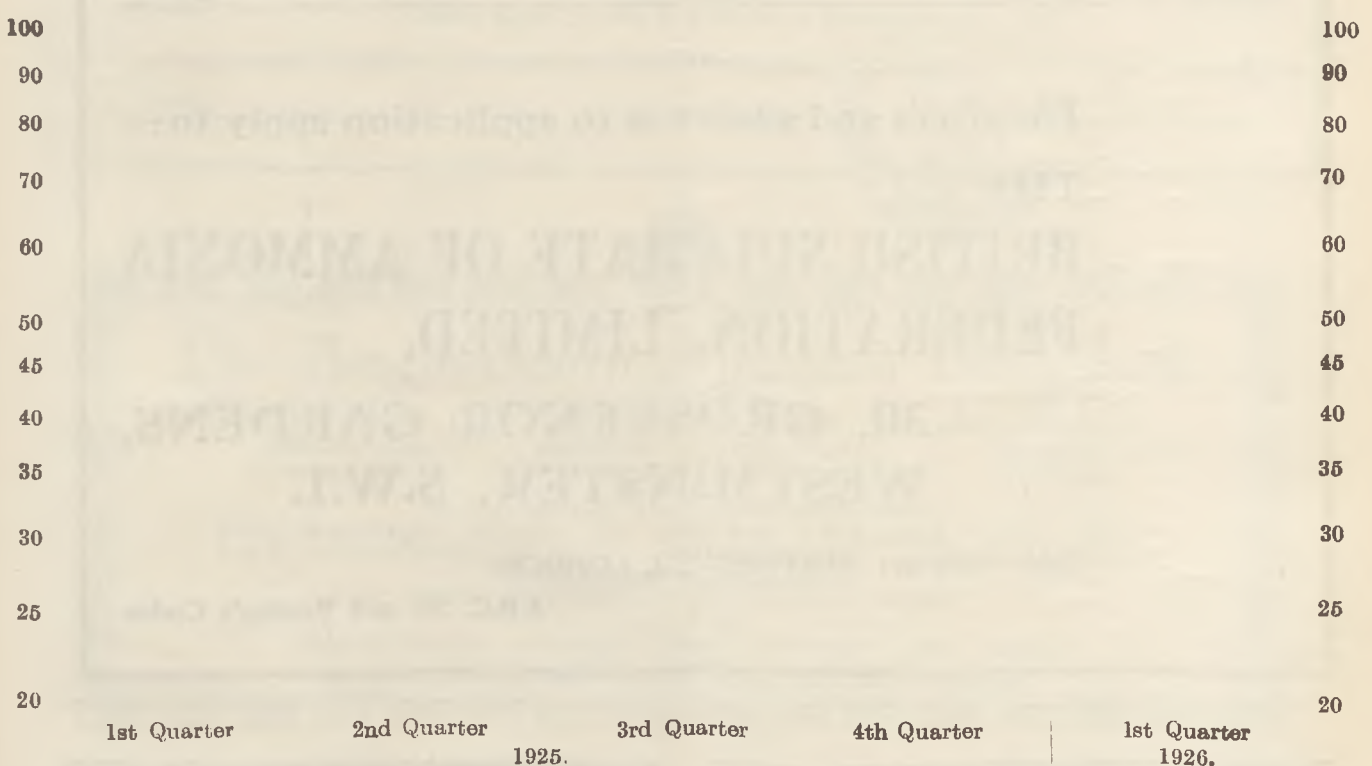
* Revised Quotation.

THE PAPER CURRENCIES.

(Percentage of Dollar Parity to Week ending March 27, 1926.)

Week Ending	Denmark.	Japan	Norway.	Spain.	Brazil.	Belgium.	Italy.	France.
Mar. 27 ...	97.9	92.0	80.0	72.9	44.3	20.8	20.8	18.1
„ 20 ...	97.7	91.6	80.3	73.1	44.6	21.4	20.8	18.5

LOGARITHMIC SCALE



We regret to say that Chart had not arrived at time of going to Press.

SECURITY PRICES.

The following table and chart show the course of prices for a representative number of industrial stocks and long dated railroad bonds in New York, for twenty representative industrial ordinary stocks in London, and for a selected number of long-dated British Government securities. The prices of the last-named have been averaged exclusive of accrued interest. In all cases the price at December 30 1921, is taken as 100. Significant maximum figures are shown in heavy type and minimum figures in italics.

IN NEW YORK.			IN LONDON.		IN NEW YORK.			IN LONDON.	
Week ending	Indus- trials.	Bonds.*	Indus- trials.	Gilt edged.	Week ending.	Indus- trials.	Bonds.*	Indus- trials.	Gilt edged.
1920, Jan. 1	128.5	94.1	172.4	99.7	1925, Jan. 3	150.7	101.6	133.8	117.5
1921, Jan. 1	89.9	89.0	116.3	88.6	„ 17	151.8	101.9	137.8	117.5
„ Aug. 20	80.3	90.4	105.4	93.3	June 6	158.2	105.3	128.0	115.3
„ Oct. 29	91.1	92.0	91.7	94.4	„ 27	160.0	104.7	123.7	<i>113.0</i>
1922, Jan. 1	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	July 18	165.9	103.2	<i>120.4</i>	115.5
„ May 13	114.6	102.4	114.9	117.9	Aug. 1	165.3	<i>101.5</i>	122.2	115.7
„ Sept. 16	123.8	107.6	115.2	112.5	„ 22	176.2	102.5	126.3	117.3
„ Oct. 7	123.9	106.1	113.3	<i>111.7</i>	Nov. 7	195.4	102.7	134.1	114.7
1923, Jan. 1	121.7	102.5	119.5	113.3	Dec. 19	188.9	103.3	130.6	112.8
„ Mar. 17	129.2	98.5	129.3	117.0	1926, Jan. 2	195.5	103.6	133.3	113.0
„ 24	127.3	<i>97.8</i>	129.0	118.1	„ 9	196.1	103.6	135.1	113.1
„ Apr. 28	124.1	99.3	137.9	122.8	Feb. 13	199.9	104.9	132.0	114.8
„ June 9	119.7	100.8	130.6	123.5	„ 20	198.4	105.9	129.8	114.6
„ Oct. 27	<i>105.7</i>	99.7	126.5	119.7	„ 6	184.8	104.7	129.1	114.0
1924, Jan. 1	117.4	98.4	121.3	114.5	Mar. 20	178.5	105.1	126.6	113.6
„ 19	119.1	100.1	119.1	<i>112.2</i>	„ 27	171.4	105.1	127.4	113.6
„ June 21	115.3	103.3	<i>113.2</i>	118.0					
„ Nov. 8	130.1	103.7	133.7	120.4					

*Prices supplied by Messrs. Bernhard Scholle & Co., Ltd.

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