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PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
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OF
AGRICULTURAL ECONOMISTS

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CONCLUDING SPEECHES

DR. LAUR.

Ladies and Gentlemen,

I hope you will allow me to give first of all my general impression of our discussions and then to go a little more into the details of the problems we discussed to-day.

One notion went like a golden thread through all these lectures : *The basis of all state policy has to be the preservation of the farming population.* This has become particularly clear to the nation whose hospitality we are here enjoying. In Germany the preservation of the peasant population has become the foundation of all economic policy. The representatives of agriculture from countries where the fight for the full recognition of the agrarian population is still in full swing gratefully acknowledge this ideal conception. Only a few years ago the opinion was predominant that the well-being of mankind depended on cheap foodstuffs. To-day it has been realized by science that there is something more important than cheap foodstuffs, viz. the necessity to preserve the farming population. International relations and agreements must be dominated by the right of every nation to preserve their peasant population.

Mr. Ashby in his splendid paper has uttered certain doubts as to the economic efficiency of the peasant system. But I venture to say that wherever the conditions for intensive farming exist the economic efficiency of the peasant system is beyond any doubt. May I remind you that in Switzerland the reports on productiveness issued by the Swiss Peasants' Secretariat have conclusively proved for more than thirty years that the peasant farm is superior to larger holdings in respect of output and income. Holdings larger than 30 ha. had, for example, in 1931 an output of 834 francs per ha. while that of holdings between 3 and 5 ha. amounted to 1,717 francs per ha. But it is only under certain conditions that the peasants can compete with the larger holdings. One of these conditions is technical training. One must look after the peasant by general education, by technical training in agricultural schools and by other means of education. Furthermore the peasant must have at his disposal well-organized co-operative societies. Only where the peasant gets the necessary backing from his co-operative society will he remain in the running. These conditions are not fully given in all countries and especially not in Great Britain, and that explains the criticism heard.

It was also interesting to find that the idea of planning has made progress in all countries. The Governments have to-day accepted solutions which, a few years ago, would have been considered utopian. Thus it may perhaps be just as well at the end of our Conference to stress again the fact that planning has its limits, especially in farming, and one ought not to accept the view that it is possible to treat the peasant farm simply like a cell of state economy. The peasant farm will retain its individuality for all time. To-day the peasant farms are still predominantly connected with the market, in all countries except the Soviet Union, but even there in parts. I had prepared for the postponed Conference of last year a paper on the proportion of the agricultural production used for the personal demands of the peasant. The results showed that 93 per cent. of the production in Denmark is marketed, 83 per cent. in Switzerland, 76 per cent. in Norway, even in Roumania 57-61 per cent., and in Sweden in the farthest north 54 per cent.

In Germany the situation is similar to that in Switzerland. In spite of all planning the peasant therefore remains an *entrepreneur* dependent on the market. Here I have to underline a sentence lately pronounced and attacked. 'The peasant is an *entrepreneur* and you cannot change him into a producer of output who does not care a bit for what is going to happen as a result of his work.' This holds good also for farms free of debts and even for farms managed by *Erbhof*¹ peasants. The *Erbhof* is fortunately cut off from land jobbery, the peasant is no longer allowed to speculate in land. But he remains an *entrepreneur* dependent on the market, and it would be a bad thing indeed if people would try to change the *Erbhof* peasant into an '*Erbhof* beneficiary'. It is hopeless to try and induce the peasant continuously to work against his own interests out of regard for the interests of the community. Those who know the peasant's character will also know how capable the peasant is of doing extraordinary things in years of high national emotions, e.g. the Swiss peasant at the outbreak of the War. But it is impossible in the long run to deviate from the principle of profitability. The only way to make the peasant work in the common interest is for official planning to try to combine the private interest with that of the public and the State. Thus planning obtains a twofold importance. It has to guide agriculture on the lines of common interests, but, at the same time, it has to serve the private interest.

¹ i.e. farms which cannot be sold or mortgaged and are inherited by the first son. The other children have no right of compensation but, speaking generally, only of maintenance.

It did not seem to me to be out of place to draw your attention to these facts by summing them up in this last debate. After all, if this Conference is really going to serve practical purposes and not only agricultural theory we have to try to draw practical conclusions.

The papers on population statistics have cast a dark shadow on the future of our agriculture. If the growth in population is really going to take on this shape we have to ask ourselves: What will be the future fate? It is in this connexion that I should like to stress the great importance of animal production. The over-production of agriculture can only be eliminated by an *increase in the consumption of animal products*. Pig-fattening out of 100 vegetable calories leaves only 35 for human food, milk perhaps only 29, and the fattening of a cow two years old not more than 8. The destruction of calories by cattle-breeding, that is the future! But this demands consumers in a financially sound position, and thus we find as second factor of the future of both the farming population and agriculture an improvement in the standard of living of the broad masses of the population. Animal products will obtain a greater share in consumption only if it is possible to increase the general standard of living. Only then will it be possible to equalize the disadvantage resulting from the adverse growth of population by a higher consumption.

Here we have to add international planning. We are all connected with each other, and it will be possible to solve many problems only on an international scale. Mr. Lloyd in his excellent paper which we heard to-day gave you a clear picture of the extent this international organization has already reached. And yet all these are only first groping attempts and we predict that, after this crisis, the international organization will have achieved a considerably greater importance than to-day—I should even like to add my conviction that in future we shall scarcely get out of periods of crisis without the international organization of production and distribution. These periods will always return after short improvements.

Amongst the measures taken so far the wheat agreement—as you know—holds first place. What was done in London was a first attempt. The first agreement could not be concluded on a basis of the most useful policy but chiefly on the basis of arousing the least resistance. We who helped to its conclusion were well aware of its weakness, its gaps and deficiencies, and yet in London a fortnight ago there was unanimous opinion that the agreement had exercised a good influence and that, but for the agreement, the situation on the world wheat market would have been considerably aggravated.

We are now trying to improve this agreement by introducing lower

quotas in relation to the requirements. A certain reserve will be placed at the disposal of the Committee, which will have the right to distribute it. Quarterly quotas will replace the annual ones. All these are considerable improvements. But even if the Governments agree to these proposals this agreement will not yet be complete. There still remain some gaps which will have to be closed later. The opinion, expressed here to-day, that it is essential to restrict the cultivation of cereals in the old European civilized countries is, I think, erroneous. Even if the area under cultivation were restricted the improvement in technique in Europe would inevitably result in an improvement of the output. The restriction has to be enforced primarily in the transatlantic countries, if indeed it is going to happen at all; for there the soil is cheap and the extension of grain cultivation has been much greater. But even there the restriction will be a thankless and difficult task, and we do hope it may be possible to avoid this restriction by the transfer of a great deal of the grain to animal products.

Here I should like to draw your attention to still another international problem, unmentioned so far, which I believe to be of decisive importance in the present situation and in the future of the white farming population. This is the *problem of fats*. If you follow the statistics—as I have done—of the development in the consumption of fats, and if you come to see what enormous quantities of tropical vegetable fats are consumed in European and other countries; and then think, on the other hand, how much grain would be necessary if only a small part of these quantities were replaced by butter, you will realize that the fundamental cause of over-production lies in the question of fats. Only if the countries interested in the production of milk, pigs, and cereals, especially feeding cereals, bring about a greater consumption of butter and lard instead of vegetable oils, will it be possible to maintain an intensive agriculture. If this is done there will be no difficulty for us to consume the cereal surplus of the transatlantic countries. I could prove that by figures. But as I must not trespass too long on your time I will just stress the fact again that the fat problem is a problem of primary importance. It is easier of solution than others, as we can, helped by legislation, exercise here a deep and thorough influence. I am glad to state that the fat economy as organized in Germany may be considered an ideal solution. Moreover, if the other countries follow on similar lines, we may arrive at a solution of the fat problem less by international agreements than by similar measures of every individual country with due consideration to the national conditions.

Herewith, ladies and gentlemen, I will come to an end. But I should like to express the conviction that *the nations and their well-being are mutually connected to-day more than ever* and that every suffering people casts its shadow on the whole of world economy. He who weakens and damages his customer damages himself. If we want to help ourselves we have to help the others. I am speaking here as the representative of a country the economic conditions of which are generally still above those of other countries. But I am convinced that we can keep up my country's good position only if the well-being of other nations is again increasing. That is one of the reasons why I as a Swiss peasant secretary and peasant leader thought it an important task to collaborate in all international movements concerned with improving the agricultural situation in other countries. Out of this improved agricultural position there will arise the recovery of industry, business, and trade, and the equilibrium between production and consumption.

May this Conference which has produced such important thinking on the international situation be a brilliant star leading the nations to a happier future!

DR. WARREN.

Mr. Chairman,

May I make a few miscellaneous suggestions?

First: I should like to suggest that the efforts of Europe to be self-sufficient in agriculture are quite as disturbing to North and South American agriculture as are the American tariffs to European industry.

Second: It is far easier to destroy than to build up. We are in the stage of crop destruction. Russia learned that while she could kill a five-year-old horse in a second, there is no way to create one in less than five years and eleven months. We will see later how the hog-killing programme of the export countries works; several of these countries have now killed the hogs. We are entering into a period of hog shortage. I believe that the rise in the purchasing power of the hogs will be very violent. This will stimulate such production in consuming countries to the later detriment both of themselves and of the export countries.

Third: May I suggest a few plans for planners?

1. Let us develop facilities and men for research work so that we may develop the scientific facts of economics of which we have yet discovered all too few.
2. Let us teach these facts without propaganda to farmers so that

they may plan more wisely. Thus far I think the farmers have planned production more wisely than the Governments.

3. If the Governments are to plan our enterprises, let us train men for government service so that the government planners will know more of economics to the end that they may know, or at least guess more intelligently, what the effects of their acts will be.

I think this has been an excellent conference both as a stimulus to science and to friendship—two things badly needed in this sick world.

DR. MAX SERING.

The speakers to whom we have just listened were right in mentioning how fruitful our exchange of ideas has become through the fact that we do not restrict our discussions to problems of agricultural science in the more limited sense of this expression, but that we endeavour to tackle all factors of importance for the well-being or misfortune of the nations. That is why we devoted a whole day to the discussion of farm organization and the rights of land-holding and another day to the problems of currency and international debts. I have gained the impression that this Conference is entirely convinced that all attempts to replace international capitalism by international or national planning are doomed to failure if we do not have a restitution of those moral and legal foundations without which peaceful harmony and co-operation of the nations is impossible. It was the task of my introductory paper to draw your attention to this fact, and again and again we found in the various papers the notion that whatever we may do as separate nations is bound to fail as long as great parts of the civilized population of the world are drowned in impoverishment for reasons other than economic. We have heard from Mr. Laur that even in Switzerland, though she is a country full of capital, industries, and great tourist traffic, certain branches of the economic life are languishing and that in spite of the fact that the Swiss Peasant Association led by Mr. Laur has succeeded in establishing Swiss policy for the preservation of the farming population. Troublesome worries are dwelling in the huts of the cattle-breeders up in the mountains, as the foreign customers have no longer got the necessary means to support the high-grade breeding on the old standard. Similar complaints came from Holland; similar considerations formed the basis of the excellent remarks of H.E. the Minister Frangeš when he gave a description of the distressing conditions in those Balkan countries of which he is the representative. Thus I should like to draw your attention again

to the fact that as a consequence of the War and the Peace Treaties the wealth and the purchasing power of the masses have been ruined in Germany and all the other central and south-eastern European countries. But I should also like to stress the clear conclusions at which Mr. Schumacher, Mr. Schacht, and other speakers arrived and which were approved of in many conversations: Mankind will not recover before those causes just intimated have been removed, before the vast amount of unproductive debts bearing far too high an interest are eliminated and before all nations are filled with that spirit which we may call fair play, that spirit which—I think I am safe here in judging others by myself—has given to all of us a new hope. Representatives of—if I am well informed—twenty-one nations are meeting here, and how well have we all understood each other though each of us knows his deepest sentiment to be the love of his own country. We have understood each other well because we have shown mutual respect and sincere interest in other people's individuality, because we are devoted to those ideals which are cherished and guarded by scholars, the desire for truth and for justice and the courageous acknowledging of what is known to be true and just. I am absolutely convinced that this stimulating Conference will, by the moral—not only the intellectual—forces, serve to a better understanding of the nations, to a higher esteem for the individualities of the others, and to an elimination of the bad relics of the War which keep the nations in a hostile tension.

Finally, I believe that the most valuable result of this Conference has been to strengthen sympathy and the will to mutual understanding. It is with this conviction that we may look back with satisfaction on this Conference.

REPORT OF SPECIAL GROUP MEETING ON MILK MARKETING REGULATION

Speakers: U.S.A.: M. C. BOND, Cornell University, N.Y.

Germany: O. VOPELIUS, Berlin.

Great Britain: A. W. ASHBY, University of Wales.

M. C. BOND.

The United States regulations.

In the United States the first Federal provision to regulate the dairy industry came as part of the 'Farm Act' of 1933. This Farm Act contained three important sections: one dealing with the revaluation of the dollar, one with farm credit, and the other with the adjustment of agricultural production to reduce supplies and obtain a 'parity' price for farmers. That Act also specified those basic commodities for which production control plans could be put into operation. The Act also provided for so-called 'marketing agreements', and these agreements were the means which were employed for improving the position of dairy products. No marketing agreement was put into effect for butter or cheese. A form of marketing agreement was put into operation for evaporated milk, and prices for evaporated milk were announced by the manufacturers. A similar type of scheme was put into effect for dried milk. Fluid milk, however, was cared for by special marketing agreement or licence around each market.

The first Milk Marketing Agreement was put into effect for the area around Chicago, Illinois, August 1, 1933. During the remainder of 1933 thirteen other cities worked out local plans for marketing milk through this co-operation with the Secretary of Agriculture. These early agreements contained provisions for prices to consumers, prices to stores, and prices to producers. The distribution spread was determined by establishing producers' and retailers' prices.

Distributors were anxious to get these special agreements because they provided for relief from price cutting. Price cutting was common in many markets and each market attempted to get first consideration. Producers' organizations joined with distributors in an effort to get immediate assistance.

The confusion which resulted brought about a considerable amount of delay, and only fourteen agreements came into effect by the end of 1933. By that time difficulties were arising in many of the

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markets. Many of the distributors were selling below the schedule of prices, and on January 1 the Chicago marketing agreement was cancelled. All agreements and licences were cancelled January 30, 1934, and a new policy established eliminating resale price schedules.

Co-operative associations were represented and usually held an important place in each of these agreements. In general from two-thirds to three-quarters of the farmers and a similar proportion of distributors signed the agreements indicating their desire for a milk marketing agreement. Later, however, some of these marketing plans became effective through the issuance of a federal licence without the signing of an agreement.

Some of the important policies of the administration.

(i) All distributors were licensed. In some instances licences were issued without having the signatures of producers and distributors to a marketing agreement.

(ii) Prices to producers and resale prices fixed the spread which the distributors obtained. No resale prices were set up in the revised licences.

(iii) In the early agreements no provision was made for price differentials for milk sold through stores. This caused dissatisfaction in markets where a spread of from 1 to 3 cents per quart had been the practice. Elimination of resale prices improved this situation.

(iv) The resale price schedule usually provided for uniform prices throughout the year. This was a change from the existing practice in some markets.

(v) Smaller towns had commonly sold milk at lower prices than the larger cities. The tendency under the agreements was to raise these prices.

(vi) New producers were limited in their entry to market by being required to take a lower price for a period of months.

(vii) Most of the agreements contained some sort of basic rating plan to adjust production to consumption.

(viii) The geographical limits of the sale area and the production area were set forth. Production areas were not fixed in the revised agreements and licences.

(ix) Agreements were signed by both producers and distributors. Later in some cases no agreements were obtained but licences were issued to distributors.

(x) Agreements were administered by a Board or Council made up of distributors and producers, but, in the final analysis, administered by a man who was appointed by the Secretary of Agriculture. By

January 31 all licences were revoked, and after that for the next two or three months new licences were issued for most of these markets, and gradually new agreements were drawn up for the signatures of producers and distributors.

Markets in which these agreements were put into effect.

Chicago was the first and largest market. Other large markets were Philadelphia, Baltimore and Boston, St. Louis, Detroit, and Los Angeles. Several smaller markets have marketing plans. No agreement was put into effect for New York, which is the largest market in the United States.

Enforcement of the provisions of the licence was one of the largest problems. Although still a problem, enforcement was greatly simplified by the elimination of resale prices. Farmers who do not receive the stated price are usually willing to complain, but consumers who get a discount or special consideration are not inclined to complain.

Parallel with the development, Federal Milk Marketing Agreements legislation occurred in several states providing for State Milk Control Boards. New York was one of the first to pass such an Act. This was put into effect quickly. Within ten days after the Act was passed the first orders were issued. In other States new legislation has provided for Milk Control Boards, and in several cases these Boards have taken over the work which might have been done by Federal Milk Marketing Agreements. There are now fourteen such state laws. A number of states passed these laws this year.

The New York Milk Control Board had a mandate from the legislature to set retail prices and was permitted to set prices to producers. Resale prices were set at the existing quoted price.

In May 1933 an increase was made in the schedule of resale prices and about the same time the first price to the producers was fixed. The distributors' spread was determined by that action of the Board and the way opened for considerable legal difficulty. Later, prices to consumers and to stores were increased by the Milk Control Board so that finally the retail price which was 10 cents per quart in New York was increased to 13 cents in July 1934. The price in 1927 was 16 cents a quart; it dropped to 10, and the Milk Board raised it to 13. The retail price in other markets of the State is lower.

The result of the price-fixing by the State Board was to increase the prices paid to producers for fluid milk. From April 1933 to April 1934 in the centre of the milk shed (about 230 miles from New York City) the price of fluid milk increased from about \$1.30 to about \$2.25, and the pool price paid to producers from \$1.04 to \$1.48 per

100 lb. Thus farmers were materially benefited by the increase in prices, and it appears obvious, in view of the slow increase in the price of butter and cheese, that the fixing of these prices brought about an increase in prices to producers more quickly than would have occurred on a competitive basis.

O. VOPELIUS.

The German regulations.

The early milk marketing position. In order to understand the milk-marketing scheme of to-day and to have a right of judgement about its aims and the progress caused, we must in the first instance consider the condition of the German milk-market in the years 1932 and 1933. The producers' milk price had gone back considerably from 1929 in consequence of the low butter prices and the constant underselling by the dealers on the fluid milk market, so that the farmer was often paid only 7 Pf. per litre of manufactured, and 10-14 Pf. for liquid milk. The result was that many farmers could not go on with their trade and had to give up the farms which had for generations been in the possession of the family. Only the farmer with direct interest in the liquid milk market had at that time any sort of price security through the Reich Milk Law of 1931, introduced in 1932 in southern Germany (Bavaria and Baden) and in Berlin. This law made it possible to unite milk producers and creameries for the purpose of price agreements, under control of the various states. Dealers were not included in this market organization (*Zusammenschluss*). In consequence, the continual underselling could not be suppressed and no correction of the wide price-spread was possible. Finally in the summer of 1933 the Reich Law was altered, providing for the inclusion of milk-dealers in the organization. At the same time a Reich Milk Commissioner was appointed and charged with the regulation of the whole milk marketing system. While hitherto the regulation of the milk markets was an affair of different states, it was now centralized in the hands of a single commissioner, this method of central regulation proving very successful.

The organization of the market. The Reich Milk Commissioner first regulated the chaotic milk market and then tried to correct the price for manufactured milk and milk products. In June 1933 he began building up an organization which was mainly accomplished by April 1934 and found its legal foundation in a legal decree of the Reich. This organization was built up on the base of economic units, such as liquid milk markets and districts of equal conditions of milk

production. Several of these units were joined together into a local milk supply association or *Milchversorgungsverband* and 3 to 8 local associations into a district association or *Milchwirtschaftsverband*. Germany was thus divided into 15 milk marketing districts, and 63 sub-districts, on purely economic grounds and regardless of political boundaries. The head of this milk marketing organization is the German General Milk Board (*Deutsche Milchwirtschaftliche Vereinigung*) in Berlin. The whole is based on the principle of leadership, the leader of each sub-section, local or district, having a board of directors and a price committee to advise him.

The milk producers and the creameries as well as the dealers are united in this organization.

Problems of the milk marketing organization. The producer- and consumer-prices for liquid milk were stabilized and fixed in correspondence with the local needs. According to the size of the German cities and towns the consumer-price ranges now from 18 to 26 Pf. per litre. The price is stable and can only be altered by the leader of the organization, in co-operation with the price-committee, according to the stipulations laid down in the scheme. The self-distributing farmers (the producer-retailers) were nearly everywhere forced to give up the distribution of their milk and to deliver it to creameries, or in the case of certified milk to leave the distribution to retailers. To save the costs of unnecessary transport, the bulk of the milk is treated in creameries and from there delivered to the retailers. Thus, in so far as their work was economically inefficient, the wholesale traders have been practically eliminated from the market. The organization further is out to introduce shops specializing in milk, butter, cheese, eggs, &c. Another object of the market regulation is a quality improvement of milk and dairy products, as for instance by a general application of payment on quality and by examination and standardization of butter and cheese. The butter market is systematically regulated in such a way that the whole surplus is bought up and stored. The market organization has no right to transact any business itself, so that a special organization under the direct supervision of the Reich has been formed to adapt the butter supply to the demand. Butter production has not been restricted, as Germany is still in need of butter imports. The cheese market, on the other hand, is regulated by adapting production to the existing demand.

Creameries. An important task of the marketing organization is to give help and advice to the creameries, of which there are about 10,000 in Germany. Active advice on quality improvement and book-keeping is given, regardless of the character (private or

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co-operative) of the enterprise. All creameries have to submit to the orders of the organization and are supervised as to rebuilding, re-equipment, and in other business matters. A uniform book-keeping has been introduced in all the creameries.

Financial and administrative control of the organization. The organization is financed with the help of contributions from the producers, creameries, and retailers. The administrative fee is $\frac{1}{25} - \frac{1}{50}$ Pf. per litre of milk sold or manufactured. In addition an equalization fee of 1 Pf. on every litre of the traded liquid milk is raised, in order to benefit the producers of manufactured milk. A half Pfennig hereof goes to the district association, the other half to the head institution in Berlin. The latter uses the money for general market regulation, as for instance the assignment of milk to the different branches of dairy production.

Results of the market regulation. As a result of the new market regulation, the price-spread for fluid milk on the market has been reduced by 20-40 per cent. since June 1933. This was achieved partly by eliminating the economically superfluous wholesale traders and partly through the lowered cost of distribution. The diminished price-spread on the other hand made it possible to give the producer a better price for his milk, without the need of raising the consumer-price at the same time. The following comparison may exemplify this:

Milk Prices in Hamburg

	<i>Before market regulation April 1932</i>	<i>After market regulation April 1934</i>
	Pf.	Pf.
Consumer-price	23	23
Producer-price	12½	15
Equalization fee (to the costs of the liquid milk producer)	..	1
Price-spread	11½	8
Reduction of the price-spread	30%

An ordered milk market is not the only achievement of the market regulation. The prices for manufactured milk have been improved to the amount of 1-2 Pf. per litre and now average in Germany 10-12 Pf.; formerly the farmers living in remote parts of the country did not get more than 7-8 Pf. per litre. By keeping the German butter market secure from the influence of price fluctuations on the world market, the German dairymen saved 250 million marks; for without the monopolized regulation of the butter market the German butter price would have followed the price movements

of the world market and would have reached the low level of RM. 80.0 per hundredweight in the spring of 1934. The market regulation, however, made it possible to maintain a uniform butter-price of RM. 130.0 per hundredweight during the past winter and of RM. 125.0 per hundredweight during this summer. The difference between the German and the world market price is balanced by means of import levies raised by the Reich, so that the German price is now independent of the world market quotations.

The butter market undergoes, as already mentioned, no restrictions as to the production. The cheese market on the other hand is regulated solely by production control; the surplus of soft cheese is for instance restricted by forcing the farmers to use more skim milk for feeding purposes, as otherwise this milk would have to be utilized in the production of soft cheese (Limburger).

Manifold must needs be the ways and measures of price regulation, but the main object, to give the farmer a better price for his milk and at the same time to guarantee the consumer a fair and steady price for milk and dairy products, seems already to have been reached.

A. W. ASHBY.

The regulations in Great Britain.

In Great Britain we have practically a complete monopoly of the liquid milk market. At the worst of times, when we have had periods of short supply, the highest amount of liquid milk imported has been only 1 per cent. of the annual supply. We have, however, a very large quantity of imports of dairy produce and it is estimated that the milk equivalent of imported dairy produce amounts to something like double the amount of the liquid milk production inside the country. When counting both liquid milk and milk equivalent we are producing roughly about one-third of our total requirements. For ten years or more, from 1921, the milk sold from farms in England and Wales was sold under a collective agreement, made between the Farmers' Union and certain associations representative of manufacturers and distributors of milk. From about 1921 to 1929, though collective agreements worked very well, the agreed contracts were not signed by 100 per cent. of the farmers or of the dealers. But in some of the years I think it would be true to say that the terms of as many as 90 per cent. of the contracts for the sale of milk were made fairly close to the terms of the collective agreements. About 1930 there came the slump in prices of butter and cheese and other milk products, and that slump became very heavy in 1931. The

prices of cheese and butter were heavily depressed. Under the collective agreements the value of manufacturing milk had been determined by the price of imported New Zealand and Canadian cheese. Under most of the collective agreements the price of manufactured milk was determined by the price of imported cheese less 2d. per gallon, so that the price of the milk products imported began to make a great difference in the returns between those farmers whose milk was produced for sale to large manufacturers and those whose milk was mainly for the liquid milk market. Here I should explain clearly that we have never had any considerable class of whom it could be said that they were producing only for the liquid or only for the manufacturing milk market. Together with this slump in the prices of dairy produce there was a considerable development in milk transport. The use of the porcelain-lined trucks and tanks for milk transport by railway and also for road transport was rapidly developing. From 1931 onwards the milk dealers were tending to go out where milk was produced at a low cost, and where the farmers did not hold them to the collective agreements, and so broke the partial monopolies of the inside markets. In 1931 the Agricultural Marketing Act was passed. This Act gives the power to any group of producers to determine the conditions of marketing all their product. It provides that the producers may themselves present a scheme to the Minister of Agriculture and Parliament, which scheme eventually accepted becomes law. It also provides that in consultation with the producers the Minister of Agriculture can appoint a Reorganization Commission to draw up a scheme. In the case of milk this latter procedure was followed and a scheme was presented to representatives of producers. In the main they accepted this but made some modifications. That scheme was presented to the producers and about 95 per cent. voted in favour of it. It came into force last September. The first contracts under the scheme were made as from October 1 last year for the winter six months.

Under the collective agreement system the producers of milk had always refused to carry any responsibility for retail prices. They tried, but without success, to avoid the discussion of retail prices in the negotiations of the wholesale prices. On one or two occasions they were more or less parties to a statement of retail prices but in seven or eight of the cases they had no responsibility for them. The general condition as regards retail prices, wholesale prices, and producers' prices was that the retail price was divided 50-50: half to the producers and half to the transporters and distributors. The greatest variation was to about 51-49.

There is power under the Agricultural Marketing Act and the general statute law for the Milk Marketing Board to determine the resale prices of milk. No such prices were determined for the first contract. The wholesale prices were fixed for milk for the liquid market and a scale of values for milk for manufacturing purposes. Milk for butter or cheese or condensed milk for export was to be paid for on its parity with New Zealand and Canadian cheese prices; 9d. per gallon for milk for the manufacture of fresh cream, 8d. for milk for the manufacture of chocolate, 6d. for milk for the manufacture of tinned cream, condensed milk and milk powder, and 9d. for milk for the manufacture of any other milk products. Thus there was introduced a 'class' system of valuing milk for manufacturing, and the Milk Marketing Board now has the power to compel the disclosure of the actual quantities of milk used in each class. The real power of the Board here lies in the power to refuse supplies to any dealer of whose returns they have suspicion. Naturally the Board is having a little trouble on this score, but if buyers are threatened with withdrawal of supplies, and some are actually withdrawn, fair and honest returns will be obtained.

As regards retail prices, by the first contract these were left to be determined by the different Dairy-men's Associations in their respective areas. A good deal of trouble arose because roughly 30 per cent. of the milk producers in England and Wales are also retailers of milk, and these retailers of milk are registered producers under the scheme. They have to obtain licences to retail and they have to pay a levy, sometimes two levies, to the pool which is finally distributed in prices to producers selling in wholesale quantities. Consequently they are very deeply interested in the retail prices fixed. I think the proportion of milk produced which is sold by these producer-retailers is about half that of the number of such producers, say 15 per cent. On the whole they are relatively small and some are very small producers. The position was that the wholesale prices were fixed for liquid milk and/or manufacturing milk, and it was left to the Distributors' Associations to fix the retail prices for different areas. Consequently, there was some uncertainty about retail prices, and much dissatisfaction. The Board tried to enforce the retail prices which were fixed, but could not effectively do so.

In the second contract period from March to September of this year, minimum retail prices for districts of three types were laid down in the contracts and also laid down in the producer-retailers' licences. The minimum prices are now fixed for areas with populations of less than 10,000, between 10,000 and 25,000, and over 25,000,

plus a special price for the south-eastern district which includes London. The scheme of organization which was presented to the Minister of Agriculture included a recommendation for a Joint Milk Council, consisting on the one side of the producers' Board and on the other side of representatives of organizations of manufacturers and distributors, with representatives of the public interests nominated by the Minister of Agriculture and the President of the Board of Trade. There was no statutory provision for any organization of that kind when the scheme was adopted, and a special statute would have been required to set it up. In order that there should not be any break-down in the negotiations between producers and traders the scheme had in it an arbitration clause. For the period of one year's duration the producers' Board has to submit their proposals to certain persons appointed by the Minister of Agriculture. The case was presented last September, and again in March this year, and the arbitrators made their awards; but quite recently the producers' Board have fixed up the agreement for the coming year (to come in force October 1) with the buyers without any reference to the arbitrators.

Figures for the New Year.

Liquid milk. (a) *Wholesale price:* The crude average price for the year per gallon of liquid milk payable by buyers will be about 15d., but the producers have to pay transport charges.

(b) *Retail prices:* These will be on the crude average for the year:

Small towns and villages of less than 10,000 inhabitants	23½d. per gal.
Districts 10,000 to 25,000 inhabitants	25 " " "
Districts outside the south-eastern region over 25,000 inhabitants	26 " " "
London area and districts in the south-eastern region over 25,000 inhabitants	26½ " " "

Manufacturing milk. This is valued in the same way as in previous agreements but there are changes in price in some cases.

As regards milk for liquid sale I estimate that during this year the position will be that the total amount of the retail price will be split between the producers and transporters and distributors at about 49 to the producer and 51 to the distributors, &c. It is difficult, if not impossible, to estimate the average pool prices—the final prices which producers will receive—for this depends on proportions of manufacturing to liquid milk, and on the proportion of manufacturing milk in various classes, and also on the levies made.

Scottish system. While England and Wales was operating a collec-

tive agreement system the south-west of Scotland had what was known as the Scottish Milk Agency on a voluntary co-operative basis. It worked for two years quite successfully until they began to ask for a price which the market could not sustain, then the pool more or less broke down, although the association still exists. Last summer a scheme was presented to the Minister of Agriculture and then to Parliament and started last December.

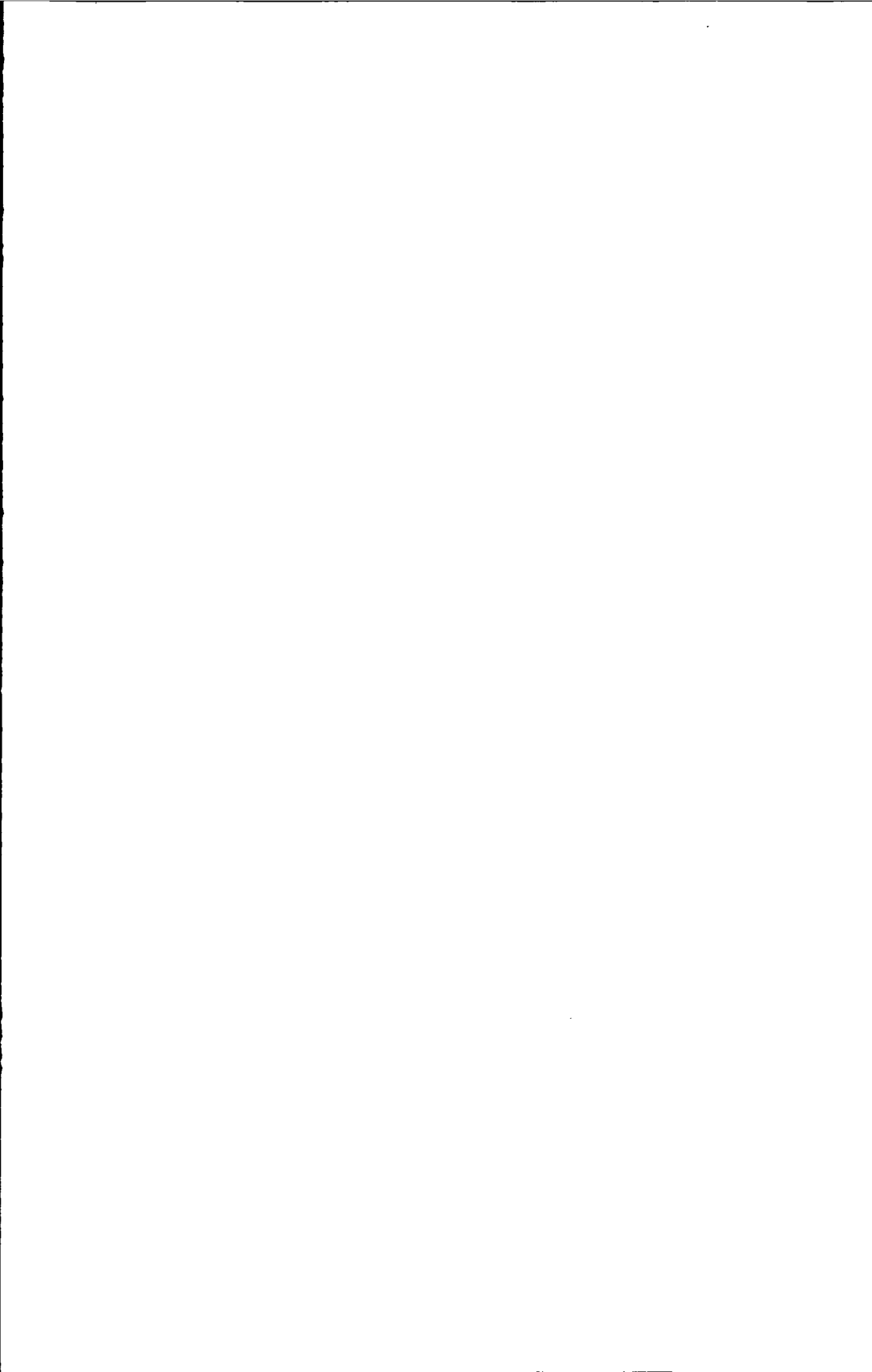
There was also another voluntary pool in the Aberdeen district of Scotland which is now being formed into a scheme under the Agricultural Marketing Acts. Other schemes are proposed and it appears that Scotland may soon be covered by local schemes. There is a reason for this. Because of the low price of cheese expected this summer and in fact realized, it became necessary to make some provision for the cheese-makers to get a part of the benefits accruing to producers of milk from the schemes which are being worked. Early in this year, therefore, arrangements were made for the Treasury to subsidize cheese-manufacture either on farms or in factories to the extent of about 2d. per pound, and that arrangement will last for two years. A special arrangement was made whereby the Treasury, through the Milk Marketing Boards, is in fact subsidizing the manufacture of farm cheese. If no such policy had been adopted the cheese-makers would have wished to make contracts for the sale of milk, and would have increased the amount of milk on the market. All England and Wales is covered as regards subsidy proposals. In some parts of Scotland they have to organize other schemes to get the benefits.

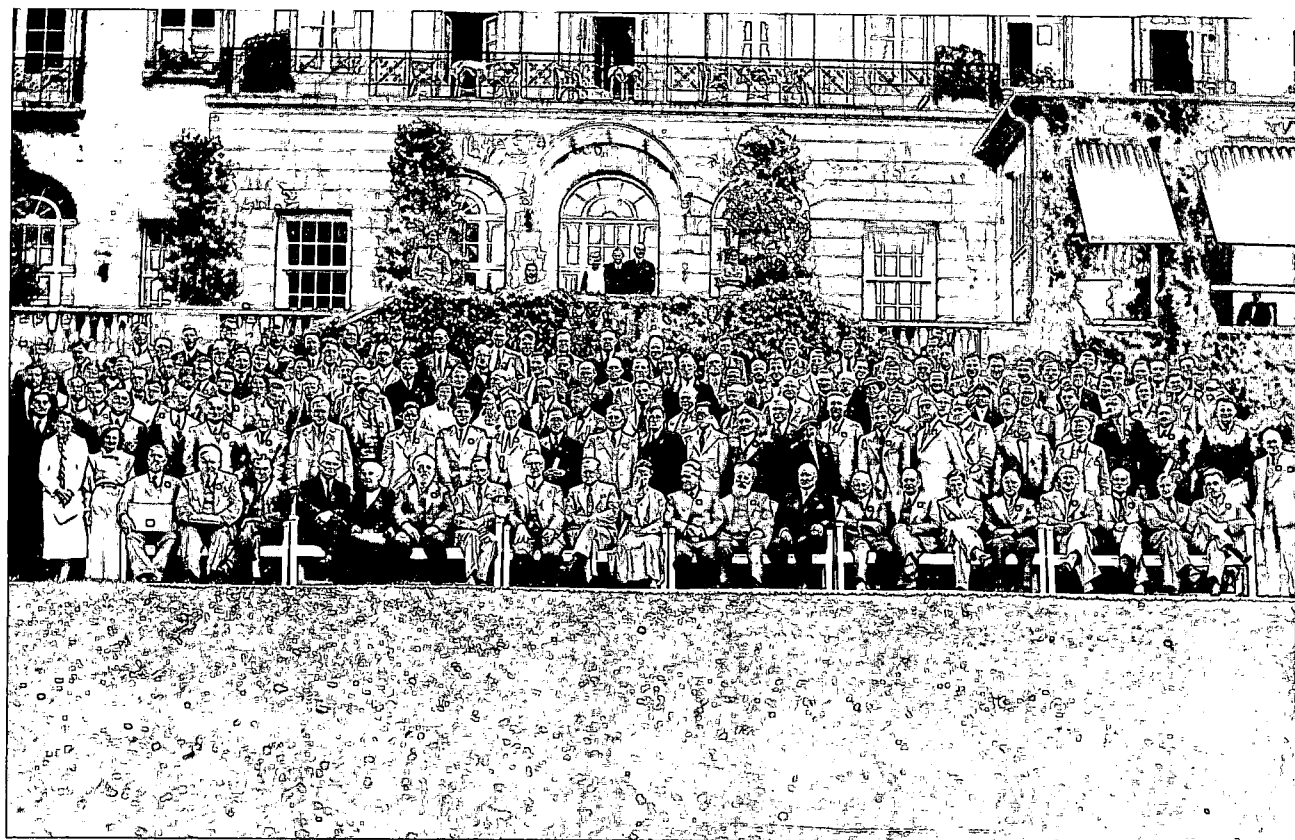
REPORTS ON THE ECONOMIC CONDITIONS AND POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES CIRCULATED IN ADVANCE OF THE THIRD INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE AT BAD EILSEN, GERMANY, 1934

1. *Australia* The Agricultural Crisis in Australia, by F. L. MCDUGALL, G.M.G.
2. *Austria* Agriculture in Austria, by MICHAEL HAINISCH.
3. *Bulgaria* The Agricultural Situation in Bulgaria, by N. V. DOLINSKY.
4. *Denmark* The Agricultural Crisis in Denmark and measures taken by the Government to alleviate the crisis (*with supplement*), by O. H. LARSEN.
5. *Esthonia* Agrarian Crisis and Farm Relief in Esthonia, by the Agricultural Chamber of the Republic of Esthonia.
6. *France* The Agricultural Situation in France, by MICHEL AUGÉLARIBÉ.
7. *Hungary* The Agricultural Situation in Hungary, prepared by the Hungarian Group of the I.C. of A.E.
8. *Italy* Italian Agriculture and the Crisis, by ARRIGO SERPIERI, Under-Secretary of State.
9. *Latvia* The Agricultural Crisis and Latvia and government measures adopted to promote recovery, by Dipl. agr. M. VON BLAESE.
10. *Lithuania* The Agricultural Crisis in Lithuania, by J. KRIKŠČIŪNAS.
11. *Netherlands* The Agricultural Relations in the Netherlands, by C. F. ROOSENSCHOON.
12. *New Zealand* Recent Economic Conditions in New Zealand, by Sir JAMES PARR, K.C.M.G., High Commissioner for New Zealand.
13. *Norway* Norway's Agricultural Position, 1933-4, by S. SKAPPEL.
14. *Rumania* Problems of the Agricultural Crisis in Rumania, by M. SERBAN.

15. *Spain* Social Problems of Spanish Agriculture, by PASCAL CARRIÓN.
16. *Spain* Agricultural Credit in Spain, by ANTONIO BALLESTER.
17. *Sweden* Measures taken against the Agricultural Crisis in Sweden, by RUDOLF FREUND in collaboration with L. NANNESON and T. BJÖRKMAN.
18. *Switzerland* The Agricultural Situation in Switzerland, by OSCAR HOWALD.
19. *Turkey* The Agrarian Crisis in Turkey, by SCHEWKET RASCHID.
20. *Yugoslavia* The Economic and Social Problems of the Agrarian Crisis in Yugoslavia, by OTTO VON FRANGEŠ.
21. *Czechoslovakia* The Crisis in Czechoslovakia, by Dr. BRDLIK.
22. The International Sugar Convention of 1931 (Chadbourne Plan) by FR. TENIUS-HALLE.

A number of copies both in English and German are still available. Application should be made to PROFESSOR M. SERING, BERLIN-DAHLEM, LUCIUSSTRASSE 9.

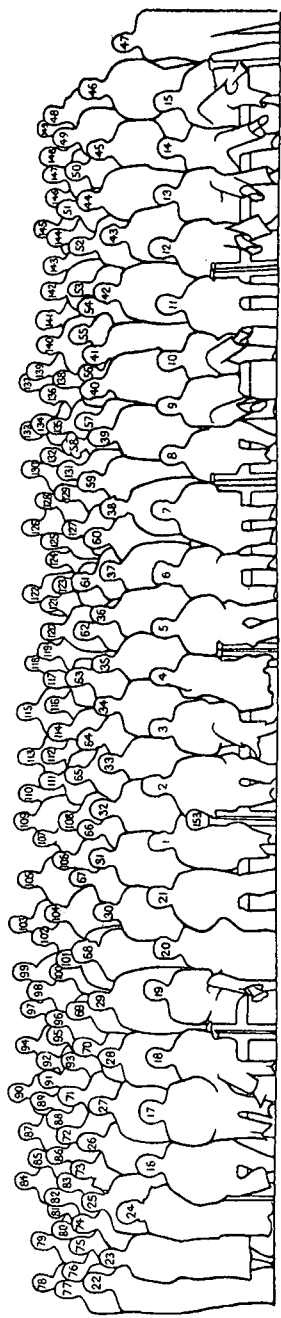




Members and Visitors attending Third International Conference of Agricultural Economists, Bad Eilsen, Germany, 1934

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LIST OF PERSONS ATTENDING CONFERENCE AT BAD EILSEN, GERMANY

1. L. K. Elmhirst. *Great Britain.*
2. H. Schacht. *Germany.*
3. G. F. Warren. *U.S.A.*
4. Frau von Dietze. *Germany.*
5. O. Franges. *Yugoslavia.*
6. E. Laur. *Switzerland.*
7. H. Kissler. *Germany.*
8. G. Solmssen. *Germany.*
9. W. Bötzes. *Germany.*
10. D. A. E. Harkness. *Great Britain.*
11. E. M. H. Lloyd. *Great Britain.*
12. J. R. Currie. *Great Britain.*
13. K. Saenger. *Germany.*
14. L. Drescher. *Germany.*
15. H. Siefkes. *Germany.*
16. T. Andersson. *Sweden.*
17. O. Anderson. *Bulgaria.*
18. S. Schmidt. *Poland.*
19. H. C. Taylor. *U.S.A.*
20. Frau Sering. *Germany.*
21. M. Sering. *Germany.*
22. T. G. Rees. *Great Britain.*
23. Mrs. K. Starr. *Great Britain.*
24. Miss M. E. E. Waldron. *Great Britain.*
25. W. Asmis. *Germany.*
26. J. L. Tennant. *U.S.A.*
27. J. Knespl. *Czecho-Slovakia.*
28. A. G. Ruston. *Great Britain.*
29. A. W. Ashby. *Great Britain.*
30. J. P. Maxton. *Great Britain.*
31. H. Zörner. *Germany.*
32. P. Borgedal. *Norway.*
33. S. K. Wu. *China.*
34. W. Allen. *Canada.*
35. O. C. Stine. *U.S.A.*
36. P. Chang. *China.*
37. — Pauli. *Switzerland.*
38. Frau Solmssen. *Germany.*
39. B. von der Marwitz. *Germany.*
40. C. Krull. *Germany.*
41. C. Worliczek. *Czecho-Slovakia.*
42. R. Regul. *Germany.*
43. W. Klose. *Norway.*
44. H. Brenning. *Germany.*
45. — Scharfe. *Germany.*
46. A. von Machui. *Germany.*
47. — Potter.
48. A. Hanau. *Germany.*
49. D. F. Christy. *U.S.A.*
50. Mrs. Christy. *U.S.A.*
51. Mrs. Whelpton. *U.S.A.*
52. H. Commichau. *Germany.*
53. G. B. Bisset. *Great Britain.*
54. R. Bräuning. *Germany.*
55. S. C. Ray. *India.*
56. B. Brutzkus. *Germany.*
57. E. von der Decken. *Germany.*
58. Fräulein I. Kisker. *Germany.*
59. W. Seedorf. *Germany.*
60. J. E. Lattimer. *Canada.*
61. E. Woermann. *Germany.*
62. F. W. Fudickar. *Germany.*
63. H. Wilbrandt. *Germany.*
64. Freiherr von Schorlemer-Lieser. *Germany.*
65. W. Pfaff. *Germany.*
66. Fräulein L. Werner. *Germany.*
67. Fräulein J. Hanson. *Germany.*
68. C. von Dietze. *Germany.*
69. R. R. Enfield. *Great Britain.*
70. O. Schiller. *Germany.*
71. —
72. F. Sohn. *Germany.*
73. S. von Frauendorfer. *Germany.*
74. L. Herrmann. *Germany.*
75. O. Vopelius. *Germany.*
76. Mrs. Carslaw. *Great Britain.*
77. D. L. Wickens. *U.S.A.*
78. R. McG. Carslaw. *Great Britain.*
79. J. J. MacGregor. *Great Britain.*
80. Frau Drescher. *Germany.*
81. Mrs. Grosskopf. *South Africa.*
82. G. Pavlovskii. *Italy.*
83. O. E. Baker. *U.S.A.*
84. G. Albrecht. *Germany.*
85. A. G. Peterson. *U.S.A.*
86. S. W. Mendum. *U.S.A.*
87. H. J. Seraphim. *Germany.*
88. — Beer. *Germany.*
89. —
90. M. D. Dijt. *Netherlands.*
91. K. Freytag. *Germany.*
92. — Mansfeld. *Germany.*
93. Mrs. Cunningham. *U.S.A.*
94. O. Brock. *Germany.*
95. Fräulein U. Pritzel. *Germany.*
96. L. C. Cunningham. *U.S.A.*
97. B. Pfister. *Germany.*
98. O. Donner. *Germany.*
99. F. W. von Bülow. *Great Britain.*
100. T. Tröschner. *Germany.*
101. T. J. Tantzen. *Germany.*
102. S. Hesse. *Germany.*
103. A. W. Welch. *Australia.*
104. K. Meyer. *Germany.*
105. G. Stockmann. *Germany.*
106. — Schürmann. *Germany.*
107. F. Windirsch. *Czecho-Slovakia.*
108. A. Münzinger. *Germany.*
109. O. Hauck. *Denmark.*
110. —
111. O. Emminger. *Germany.*
112. A. P. van den Briel. *Netherlands.*
113. M. C. Bond. *U.S.A.*
114. H. N. Young. *U.S.A.*
115. O. Ulrey. *U.S.A.*
116. J. F. W. Grosskopf. *South Africa.*
117. H. M. Dixon. *U.S.A.*
118. S. R. Carver. *Australia.*
119. P. J. O'Hara. *Great Britain.*
120. H. A. Berg. *U.S.A.*
121. E. Ll. Harry. *Great Britain.*
122. M. Rolfes. *Germany.*
123. S. B. Barman. *India.*
124. W. M. Curtiss. *U.S.A.*
125. J. R. Santaella. *Spain.*
126. A. Schindler. *Germany.*
127. A. Skälweit. *Germany.*
128. G. W. Hedlund. *U.S.A.*
129. A. H. Brown. *Great Britain.*
130. K. Schneider. *Germany.*
131. E. Lang. *Germany.*
132. G. P. Boals. *U.S.A.*
133. C. V. Noble. *U.S.A.*
134. W. Seelmann-Eggebert. *Germany.*
135. H. von der Decken. *Germany.*
136. — Wettstein. *Germany.*
137. — Gehrman. *Germany.*
138. W. H. Long. *Great Britain.*
139. W. H. Senior. *Great Britain.*
140. F. Ahlgrimm. *Germany.*
141. T. W. Grindley. *Canada.*
142. W. Husmann. *Germany.*
143. B. Mehrens. *Germany.*
144. P. K. Whelpton. *U.S.A.*
145. O. Noltinius. *Germany.*
146. Fräulein Bier. *Germany.*
147. H. Niehaus. *Germany.*
148. F. Schlömer. *Germany.*
149. R. Freund. *Germany.*
150. Graf Bismarck. *Germany.*
151. Frau Medinger. *Czecho-Slovakia.*
152. W. Medinger. *Czecho-Slovakia.*
153. (The Cow Bell.)

OTHERS PRESENT AT CONFERENCE ABSENT FROM PHOTOGRAPH

- | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|---|--|--|-------------------------------------|
| H. D. Leppan. <i>South Africa.</i> | — Vogelsang. <i>Germany.</i> | Freiherr von Falkenhausen. <i>Germany.</i> | W. Lattemann. <i>Germany.</i> | G. Lorenzoni. <i>Italy.</i> |
| Mrs. Wu. <i>China.</i> | H. Weigmann. <i>Germany.</i> | | — Ludowici. <i>Germany.</i> | A. Pagani. <i>Italy.</i> |
| F. Buček. <i>Czecho-Slovakia.</i> | F. Baade. <i>Germany.</i> | H. L. Fensch. <i>Germany.</i> | F. Melzer. <i>Germany.</i> | G. Tassinari. <i>Italy.</i> |
| J. Jessen. <i>Germany.</i> | — von Bethmann-Hollweg. <i>Germany.</i> | — Fischer. <i>Germany.</i> | Freiherr von der Ropp. <i>Germany.</i> | G. Minderhoud. <i>Netherlands.</i> |
| F. Mendelssohn. <i>Germany.</i> | | J. Frost. <i>Germany.</i> | — Spiller. <i>Germany.</i> | Ll. V. Steere. <i>U.S.A.</i> |
| K. Ritter. <i>Germany.</i> | — Buchholz. <i>Germany.</i> | — Heyn. <i>Germany.</i> | E. Wagemann. <i>Germany.</i> | E. St. Kirby. <i>U.S.A.</i> |
| H. Schumacher. <i>Germany.</i> | — Büsselberg. <i>Germany.</i> | — Hilgenstock. <i>Germany.</i> | E. Winter. <i>Germany.</i> | C. Brinkmann. <i>Germany.</i> |
| H. Stremme. <i>Germany.</i> | W. Drechsler. <i>Germany.</i> | — Krömer. <i>Germany.</i> | W. M. Vane. <i>Great Britain.</i> | Mrs. Enfield. <i>Great Britain.</i> |

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMISTS

CONFERENCES

First, 1929: Dartington Hall, Totnes, Devon, England.

Second, 1930: Cornell University, Ithaca, New York State, U.S.A.

Third, 1934: Bad Eilsen, Schaumburg-Lippe, Germany.

OFFICERS

President

ELMHIRST, L. K., Dartington Hall, Totnes, Devon, England.

Vice-Presidents

WARREN, G. F., Department of Agricultural Economics and Farm Management, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York State, U.S.A.

SERING, M., Deutsches Forschungs-Institut für Agrar- und Siedlungswesen, Berlin-Dahlem, Luciusstrasse 9, Germany.

Hon. Secretary and Treasurer

CURRIE, J. R., Research Dept. (Economics), Dartington Hall, Totnes, Devon, England.

THE International Conference of Agricultural Economists was inaugurated during the summer of 1929, when fifty economists from eleven countries met for two weeks at Dartington Hall, Devon, England, on the invitation of Mr. L. K. Elmhirst. The Second Conference was held in 1930 at Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y., U.S.A., and was attended by over 300 members and visitors, twenty countries being represented. At this meeting the formal Constitution was drawn up and approved. The Third Conference was held at Bad Eilsen, Schaumburg-Lippe, Germany, from August 26th to September 2nd, 1934, when 170 members attended, of whom 76 were from 18 countries outside Germany.

The Conference has now a total membership of 393, with Groups or Correspondents in 30 countries. Its representative character has been steadily growing since the first informal gathering in 1929,

until it now embraces the majority of countries where the study of agricultural economics is pursued.

The object of the Conference is that of fostering development of the services of agricultural economics and of furthering the application of the results of economic investigation of agricultural processes and agricultural organization in the improvement of economic and social conditions relating to agricultural and rural life.

Membership is open to any person or institution connected with the study of agricultural economics. The subscription is £1, \$5, RM. 20, or the monetary equivalent of £1 at par, for the period from one conference to the end of the next. The majority of members are professional agricultural economists engaged in research, teaching, or public administration, but the membership is representative as well of a wide range of agricultural and economic interests. Applications may be made to the Secretary, who will put the applicant in touch with the appropriate national correspondent.

Meetings are held at intervals of two or three years at a time and place determined by the Council. No two successive meetings can be held in the same country. The meetings afford a unique opportunity of personal intercourse with fellow workers from all parts of the world.

Proceedings consisting of papers and discussions at each conference are published, and members are entitled to one copy. Extra copies may be purchased by members at reduced rates. Copies of the Proceedings of the First, Second, and Third Conferences are available on application to the Secretary, or to Dr. G. F. Warren, Department of Agricultural Economics, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y., U.S.A. A German edition of the Third Conference Proceedings is available on application to Prof. M. Sering, Berlin-Dahlem, Luciusstrasse 9, Germany.

CONSTITUTION

(ADOPTED AT THE SECOND CONFERENCE)

NAME AND OBJECT

The name of the organization shall be The International Conference of Agricultural Economists.

The object of the Conference is that of fostering development of the sciences of agricultural economics and of furthering the application of the results of economic investigations of agricultural processes and agricultural organization in the improvement of economic and social conditions relating to agriculture and rural life.

MEETINGS

Meetings shall be held at a time and place determined by the Council. No two successive meetings shall be held in any one country.

The Conferences of 1929 and 1930 shall be called, respectively, the First and Second International Conferences of Agricultural Economists.

MEMBERSHIP

Membership shall consist of individuals who pay 20 RM., \$5, or £1, or the monetary equivalent of £1, for the period from one Conference to the end of the next.

Libraries, corporations, and similar institutions may become Members if a duly accredited representative is appointed by each such institution.

Those who become Members within one year from the date of the adoption of this Constitution shall be considered Charter Members.

OFFICERS

The Officers shall be a President, two Vice-Presidents, and a Secretary-Treasurer. The Officers shall hold office for a period ending with the close of the next succeeding Conference.

ELECTION OF OFFICERS

The Council shall nominate Officers to be elected by the Conference.

COUNCIL

The Members of the Conference in each country or group of countries may provide for the election of Members of a Council as hereinafter provided:

(a) Each country or group of countries with five or more Members may elect one Member to Council. An additional Member of the Council may be elected by each country or group of countries for each additional ten Members, with a maximum of three Members of Council from any one country or group of countries.

(b) Members of the Council shall be elected prior to or during each Conference for the succeeding Conference. The Council elected in 1930-1 shall continue in office for the purposes of the next Conference until the end of that Conference, and the Council constituted in the early part of each subsequent Conference shall nominate Officers and Executive Committee for the ensuing Conference.

It shall be the duty of the Members of the Council to elect an Executive Committee of eight Members, to nominate Officers of the Conference, and to promote the interests of the Conference in the respective countries.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The Executive Committee shall consist of the four Officers and eight Members elected by the Council. The Executive Committee shall arrange programmes and otherwise conduct the business of the Conference. The Executive Committee shall fill any vacancies which may occur in any office.

AMENDMENT OF CONSTITUTION

The Constitution may be amended by a majority vote at any Conference provided the amendment has previously received the approval of a majority of the Council.

PROVISIONS FOR TEMPORARY ORGANIZATION

Since the Constitution does not make all necessary provisions for immediate organization, the Committee submits the following suggestions for the guidance of the Conference until the provisions of the Constitution can be made effective.

1. (a) The Officers for the period of the Third Conference shall be elected by this Conference.
(b) Persons who signify their intention of becoming Members of the Conference before the Conference proceeds to the election of Officers may vote in the election of Officers.
2. (a) The Members of the Council may be elected by Members of the Conference in any country or group of countries as provided for in the Constitution.
(b) The method of electing Members of Council shall be left to the discretion of each electing country or group of countries, but, until the original membership is secured, a Correspondent shall be appointed by the Executive Committee to canvass his country for Members and provide for the election of Members of the Council.
3. (a) The Members of the Council when selected shall become Members of the Executive Committee until a total of sixteen or more Members of the Council has been selected by Members.
(b) When 16 or more Members of the Council are selected, the Officers of the Conference shall arrange for the election of eight Members to the Executive Committee by the Members of the Council.

LIST OF OFFICERS AND MEMBERS

(For 1930-4)

OFFICERS

President

ELMHIRST, L. K., Dartington Hall, Totnes, Devon, England.

Vice-Presidents

WARREN, G. F., Department of Agricultural Economics and Farm Management,
Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y., U.S.A.

SERING, M., Deutsches Forschungs-Institut für Agrar-und Siedlungswesen, Berlin-
Dahlem, Luciusstrasse 9, Germany.

Hon. Secretary and Treasurer

CURRIE, J. R., Research Department (Economics), Dartington Hall, Totnes, Devon,
England.

MEMBERS

AFRICA

EGYPT

LA SOCIÉTÉ ROYALE D'AGRICULTURE, Cairo.

(*Representative*: M. Fouad Bey Abaza.)

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Joint Correspondents:

LEPPAN, H. D., Department of Agricultural Economics, University of Pretoria, Pretoria.

VAN DER POST, A. P., Acting-Chief, Division of Agricultural Economics and Marketing,
Union Department of Agriculture, Pretoria.

GELDENHUYS, F. E., Department of Forestry, Pretoria.

AMERICA

CANADA

Council:

ALLEN, W., University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan.

BOOTH, J. F., Agricultural Economics Branch, Department of Agriculture, Ottawa,
Ontario.

LATTIMER, J. E., Macdonald College, St. Anne de Bellevue, P.Q.

Correspondent:

BOOTH, J. F. (See above.)

AULD, F. H., Deputy Minister of Agriculture, Regina, Saskatchewan.

BOIS, H. C., Rural Economics Branch, Department of Agriculture, Quebec.

BROWN, W. J., Executive Secretary, University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario.

BURROWS, L. F., Secretary, Horticultural Council, Ottawa, Ontario.

CAIRNS, A., Wheat Advisory Committee, Bush House, London, W.C.2, England.

CHAGNON, S. J., Department of Agriculture, Parliament Buildings, Quebec.

CLEMENT, F. M., Dean of Agriculture, University of British Columbia, Vancouver,
British Columbia.

COKE, J., Agricultural Economics Branch, Department of Agriculture, Ottawa, Ontario.

COLLINS, C. M., Agricultural Representative, Lawrencetown, Annapolis County, Nova
Scotia.

- COLLINS, G. P., Department of Economics, Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph, Ontario.
- CO-OPERATIVE WHEAT PRODUCERS, LTD., Publicity Department, Wheat Pool Building, Regina, Saskatchewan.
- GAGNÉ, C., Professeur d'Economie Rurale, Sainte Anne-de-la-Pocatière, Quebec.
- GOSSELIN, A., Agricultural Economics Branch, Department of Agriculture, Ottawa, Ontario.
- GRINDLEY, T. W., Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Ottawa, Ontario.
- GRISDALE, J. H., Iroquois, Ontario.
- HART, F. C., Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph, Ontario.
- HOPE, E. C., Department of Farm Management, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan.
- HURD, W. B., Brandon College, Brandon, Manitoba.
- KINDT, L. E., Agricultural Economics Branch, Department of Agriculture, Ottawa, Ontario.
- LAROSE, F., Plantagenet, Ontario.
- LAUREYS, H., School of Higher Commercial Studies, University of Montreal, Montreal.
- LONGLEY, W. V., Director of Extension, Department of Agriculture, Truro, N.S.
- MACDONALD, A. B., Department of University Extension, Antigonish, Nova Scotia.
- MURCHIE, R. W., Department of Sociology, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minn., U.S.A.
- RICHARDS, A. E., Agricultural Economics Branch, Department of Agriculture, Ottawa, Ontario.
- RILEY, C. W., Economics Department, Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph, Ontario.
- STEELE, J. H., Canadian Department of Agriculture, Lawrencetown, Nova Scotia.
- STRANGE, H. G. L., Director, Agricultural Research, Searle Grain Company, Limited, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

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