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THE COAT OF ARMS OF THE REPUBLIC OF POLAND.

POLISH HANDBOOK 1925

A GUIDE TO THE COUNTRY AND RESOURCES OF THE REPUBLIC OF POLAND

100757

Edited by
FRANCIS BAUER CZARNOMSKI



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PREFACE.

IN offering the present volume to the English-speaking public, the Editor feels he has no need to submit a detailed

justification of his venture.

Indeed, the pressing need for a reliable source of information on the new Republic of Poland has been so universally and acutely realised that the consequent haste with which this year's issue of the Polish Handbook—the first compendium of its kind to appear not only in English but in any language—had to be produced, may well be proffered in advance as an excuse for the many omissions, of which no one is better aware than the Editor himself.

Particularly as regards statistics and certain aspects of Polish cultural, political and social life, as well as regards general practical information there are obvious gaps, which only a future edition—the issue of which is confidently

anticipated-will be able to fill.

It is hoped that at least one conclusion will emerge in prominent relief from the mass of material here presented and that is the immense progress which Poland has made in every sphere of her national life during the short span of six years which have elapsed since the renewed independent existence

of the Polish State.

This progress is as evident in the constitutional development of the State as in the organisation of a modern system of national education, of all branches of production, such as agriculture, mining and industry, of national defence, of labour protection and social welfare, and above all in the organisation of sound and solid public finance, which was the crowning achievement of the efforts after reconstruction in Poland.

All possible care has been taken to ensure the accuracy of the information conveyed and many reliable authorities have been consulted. None the less in a compilation of this nature, where so much of the material may become stale between the dates of going to press and of publication, and where so many of the statistics are of necessity incomplete or provisional, it would be too much to hope that every statement which is made should be found to be beyond challenge.

Corrections of errors, whether of omission or commission, will be gratefully received by the Editor at the address appended below. The chances of error have been greatly minimised by the large amount of assistance which he has received, and he hereby tenders his most sincere thanks for the ungrudging assistance rendered by his numerous and eminent contributors.

Acknowledgment is due in the first place to H.E. Monsieur Konstanty Skirmunt, Polish Minister in London, to whose encouragement the book largely owes its inception and

realisation.

Acknowledgments are due in particular to the many eminent specialists who have contributed to this volume:

M. Stefan Bartoszewicz, of the Ministry of Trade and

Industry, Warsaw ("Petroleum Industry").

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Captain Wasilewski, of Warsaw ("National Defence"). Dr. W. Zawistowski, Editor, Warsaw ("Theatre in Poland"). Dr. R. Kurytowski, of Warsaw ("Law of Trade and Commerce ").

In conclusion, may I venture to express the hope that intending travellers to Poland may find this Polish Handbook a useful companion and that students of Polish affairs and all other persons particularly interested in Poland will not hesitate to communicate with the Editor whenever they require additional information on any special subjects. In such cases he will consider it a pleasant duty to supply all the needed information to the utmost of his ability.

47a, Portland Place, London, W. 1. October, 1925.

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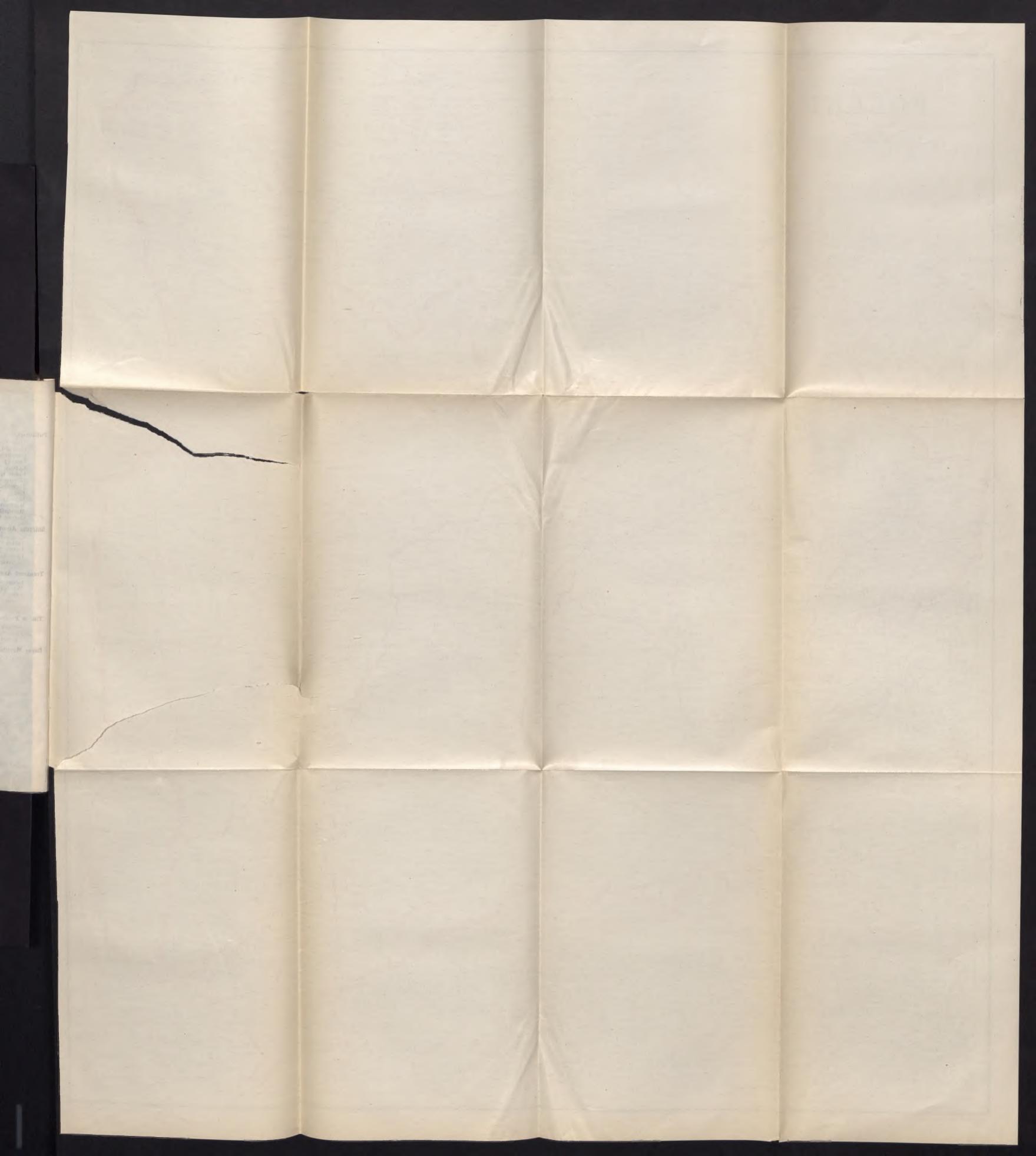
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I

THE CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF POLAND

I

THE CONSTITUTION
AND
GEVERNMENT-OF POLAND

I. CONSTITUTIONAL ORGANISATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF POLAND.

The political organisation of the re-established Republic of Poland could not be based on independent constitutional principles, since it was impossible to continue, after over a century's slavery, the political traditions of the country. It would have been impracticable to adopt the Constitution of 1791 which could hardly satisfy the modern conception of the constitutional organisation of the State. In consequence, foreign precedents had to be adapted to Polish conditions.

The republican and parliamentary institutions of France were set as models before the Constituent Diet of January, 1919. Their wholesale reception in Poland was impossible not only because of their character, which is peculiar to French political conditions, but also because of the tendencies of modern democracy since 1875 and especially since the Great War, which had to be considered by the Polish Legislature.

The Polish Constitution voted on March 17, 1921, and published in the Journal of Laws on June 1st of that year, deals in accordance with modern practice with two principal groups of problems, i.e.: (1) the organisation of the State, its authorities, and administrative and judicial institutions, and (2) the rights and obligations of citizens towards the State, and vice versa.

(1) Rights and Obligations of Citizens.

The rights and duties of citizens and their character have altered considerably since they were formulated in the legislation of the independent States of America and in the French Declaration of the late 18th century. Many principles and definitions of that period are, however, still used in constitutional legislation of the present day.

As regards the legal relations between the State and its citizens, the Polish Constitution has proclaimed principles and introduced positive guarantees to safeguard the freedom and equality of all citizens, and to protect their safety, property and labour, All these guarantees apply equally to

foreigners domiciled in Polish territory, though they have, naturally, no political privileges, such as parliamentary franchise or participation in the Military or Civil Services.

Thus, "the Republic of Poland guarantees to every one within its territory absolute protection of life, liberty and property whatever their origin, nationality, language, race or religion." This, of course, includes her own citizens as well as foreigners (Art. 95). The principle of the equality of all citizens is embodied in Art. 96, which enacts that all citizens shall be equal before the law, and that all public appointments shall be open to every citizen.

It had been the practice of both the Russian and the German administration in Polish provinces to apply national and religious restrictions, and in consequence the Constitution of the Republic had to go beyond the statement of general, though undoubtedly explicit, principles. It had to provide specifically that any and every restriction violating the principle

of equality was irrevocably repealed.

Thus, Art. 109 of the Constitution provides that "every citizen shall have the right to retain his nationality and to cultivate his language and his national customs. Special legislation shall safeguard for the minorities in the Republic of Poland the full and unrestricted development of their national life through autonomous, legally recognised public institutions within the general unions of Local Government." Similar rights are guaranteed to religious communities; these are safeguarded by Articles III and following.

These Articles have, in their negative meaning, abolished all restrictions introduced by the former Russian and German Governments which were contrary to the enactments of the Constitution. This has been finally established by a decision of the Supreme Court of Judicature which held, inter alia, that Art. III had the effect of a positive legal enactment,

and not only of a statement of principle.

As regards the positive provisions of the Constitution which announce the establishment of new legal institutions, new supplementary statutes dealing with these institutions are required. Some of these have already been voted and include the Statute regulating the use of languages of National Minorities in Courts and Public Offices, others are being dealt with by Parliament, such as the Religious Autonomy Bill, &c.

The principle of equality, as interpreted by the Polish

Constitution, is free from levelling tendencies, free from systematic extermination of individual and national differences.

On the contrary, it is based on an interpretation of the principle of equality admitting of individual characteristics of citizens, whilst safeguarding equal participation in obligations and benefits to every one of the State's citizens.

The enactments embodying constitutional guarantees must be regarded from the same point of view. Personal freedom (Art. 97), guarantee of judicial inquiry (Art. 96), inviolability of domicile (Art. 100), freedom of speech (Art. 101) and of the Press (Art. 105), freedom of petitions and organisations (Arts. 107 and 108), and many others—all these provisions express the modern conception of constitutional freedom

within the limits of State organisation.

The protection of property is dealt with by Article 99. The final wording of this Article was cautiously considered and fully discussed by the Constituent Diet in view of the problem of Agrarian Reform brought forward by the representatives of the peasant population. At no stage of the discussion did the dispute enter into the question of nationalisation, whether it be only nationalisation of means of production or of land in general. The difference lay between a liberal conception of the exclusive right to dispose of one's property, and the contention that the holding of private property should not be opposed to public interests, but should, on the contrary, be co-ordinated with them. This second view prevailed and the Constitution confirmed the view that the right of property was not a man's primitive right, but the right of a citizen derived from social organisation and "forming the basis of social and legal order." Such an attitude allowed for the possibility of disappropriation of land on the grounds of higher utility, but always after suitable compensation had been made, and also for the introduction of restrictions as regards free trade in land.

Although the conception of protection of property appears here in a modernised form, adapted to the necessities of modern democracy, it is, in fact, only a repetition of principles adopted by the first Constitutions and Declarations of Constitutional Rights of the 18th century. Entirely modern ideas are, however, found in the provisions dealing with the protection and regulation of labour. The importance of labour emphasised by modern industrial conditions demanded a suitable recognition in the constitutional legislation of the country.

The Polish Constitution introduced full State protection for labour, and State aid in cases of unemployment or disablement. (Art. 102.)

We will not discuss here the various provisions of the Constitution; nor can we deal here with the mass of legislative enactments which developed its general principles. In view of the fundamental changes which were wrought by the Polish Constitution in the legislations by which the three parts of Poland were respectively governed during the past century, Statutes had to be enacted in swift succession, so as to realise the principles of the Constitution and to remove the difficulties and restrictions of the former systems. Thus, during the last few years the legislative structure has grown considerably, though still insufficiently, to meet all urgent demands of the country. It is worth mentioning that in pursuance of Art. 102 regarding the protection of labour Poland has already introduced many important enactments.

The statutory introduction of an 8-hours working day preceded even the international conventions in this respect; the establishment of Factory Inspectors, Free Medical Aid and Social Insurance tends to execute the provisions of the Constitution.

Similarly, the Agrarian Reform has been regulated by statutory enactments, but technical difficulties stand in the way of its speedy execution, and, in consequence, amendments in the Statutes dealing with the Reform are still being introduced.

As regards civil legislation, the whole complex of the Civil Law has to be codified. The position in this respect is most difficult, since there are four different systems of law operating respectively in four provinces of Poland. Thus, Austrian Law is enforced in Galicia, German in the Poznan provinces, Russian in the Eastern counties, and the Code Napoleon together with various Polish laws passed between 1815 and 1830 in the former Congress Kingdom. The necessity for removing this anomaly and the resultant conflicts of laws has led to the establishment of a Codification Commission which is to codify both Civil and Criminal Law as well as Procedure. The work of the Commission is progressing, and whilst a total uniformity is being attained, codified branches of the Law have been introduced already. Thus, the law relating to Bills of Exchange and other Negotiable Instruments is now uniform throughout

the Republic, and it is hoped that the entire branch of Family Law will be similarly reformed in the nearest future.

(2) Constitutional Organisation of the State.

(a) Legislature.

A conception of civic rights based on democratic principles pervades the provisions of the Constitution dealing with State administration. Article 2 already embodies the tendencies predominating in European Jurisprudence and especially amongst the classic French School of Constitutional Lawyers, by declaring that the Supreme Power in the Republic of Poland is vested in the Nation, and by establishing three separate organs of the Nation's authority, viz.: The

Legislature, the Executive, and the Judicature.

The dual-chamber system of Legislature was adopted in Poland. Both Chambers are elected by a general ballot of all Polish citizens of both sexes who have attained the age of 21 (for Lower Chamber elections) and 30 for the election of Senators. Any Polish citizen can be elected to the Seym, provided he (or she) has attained the age of 25, and to the Senate if he (or she) is at least 40 years of age. Apart from this, the elections to either Chamber are conducted in an identical manner. The ballot is direct, secret and based on the principles of Proportional Representation. The constituencies for the Senate are considerably larger than those for the Seym, since there are 444 Deputies to be elected for the Seym and only 111 Senators for the Senate. The importance and influence of the Senate are considerably restricted.

The Senate considers Statutes passed by the Seym; in case of differences between the two chambers, the projects are sent back to the Seym which has a deciding vote, and can, by a majority of only 11/20ths, override the suggested amend-

ments of the Senate.

(b) Executive.

The Head of the Executive in the State is the President of the Republic elected for the term of seven years by the National Assembly, which is composed of all members of the Seym and Senate sitting as one body. The authority of the President is limited. He cannot veto the decisions of Parliament; nor can he declare a dissolution of either of the representative chambers, unless with their own consent. Restrictions of

such nature being placed on the powers of the President, the predominance of Parliament, i.e., the Legislature over the Executive is so great as to amount to supremacy. This affects to a great extent the efficiency and freedom of the Executive. In consequence, the question of a possible amendment of the Constitution which would give the President an independent right to dissolve the representative chambers is being raised in Parliamentary circles and in the Press. Such an amendment could be passed only by a majority of two-thirds of all Deputies and Senators, or by a simple majority in the next (i.e., the second since the enactment of the Constitution) Seym, in accordance with Article 125.

In addition to representing the State in its international relations the President nominates the Government, i.e., the Prime Minister and the several Ministers. The Constitution does not prescribe any particular method in this respect and leaves the matters seemingly to the discretion of the President. On the other hand, however, it is expressly provided that the Government is responsible to the Seym and relinquishes its duties, should the Seym so desire. Thus, the principle of Parliamentary government is plainly established. A Government nominated by the President must come before the Chamber and submit its proposed policy to the Chamber's approval. It would, therefore, be not only useless, but even harmful to appoint a Government which could not expect to be supported by a Parliamentary majority. It is obvious therefore, that the President's right to nominate a Government is subject to the usual parliamentary restrictions adopted in most countries with Parliamentary Governments.

The co-operation between the Legislature and the Executive is also based on the recognised principles of parliamentary control. The yearly Budget, yearly statement of accounts, together with parliamentary control over the assets and liabilities of the State, over State loans and over taxation—all these are the recognised measures of parliamentary control which have also been adopted by the Polish Constitution.

The Government is formed by a Council of Ministers presided over by the President of the Council. The Prime Minister and his Ministers, each within their own Department, countersign the Orders of the President of the Republic and are responsible for them to the Seym. The number of Cabinet Ministers is not fixed by the Constitution, and can, therefore, be varied according to needs. At present, after the Ministries

of Health and of Posts have been, for reasons of economy, included in other Departments, there are, in addition to the Premier, the following Ministries: Foreign Affairs, Interior, Justice, Religion and Education, War, Finance, Commerce and Industry, Railways, Agriculture and State Domains, Public Works, Labour, and the Ministry of Agrarian Reforms. The Ministry of Agrarian Reforms is of a transient character and was established for the purpose of dealing with the numerous and difficult problems referred to above. Otherwise, the distribution of administrative duties amongst the various Ministries corresponds with the generally adopted practice.

As regards territorial administration, the Republic is divided into 16 counties (województwa); these are subdivided into smaller administrative units, i.e., districts (starostwa). Local administration is, as far as possible, concentrated in the counties independently of the competence of the respective Ministries. This centralisation does not embrace military matters, the administration of justice, and other branches of administration which must, of necessity, be dealt with

separately.

Parallelly with State Administration there works the Local Government, whose activities are co-ordinate with the former.

The smallest unit of Local Government administration is a

rural commune, usually composed of a few villages.

Higher in the scale of Local Administration are District Councils. Representative bodies in the larger administrative units have not yet been established, and it is a matter of opinion whether the establishment of Local Government bodies in the counties throughout Poland is necessary. However, steps are already being taken in those counties where the mixed character of the population necessitates the institution of special autonomous bodies to deal with problems affecting the co-operation of the various national groups inhabiting the territory in question. Thus, the County of Silesia has already a representative Council to deal with its affairs, and a similar organisation adapted to local conditions is being proposed for the Eastern counties.

The Polish administrative organisation and routine is passing through a period of intense activities, in its endeavour to achieve a uniformity of the various forms of administrative procedure inherited from the former Russian, Austrian and German Governments. These three systems, with all their

peculiar characteristics, could not be remoulded and made uniform during a period of a few years; nor could there be a unified Polish system introduced in their place. This process is progressing slowly by statutory enactments tending to equalise the conflicting rules of administration, by codifying them and also by educating a new generation of administrative officials.

The control over the whole administration is vested in Administrative Courts headed by the Supreme Administrative Tribunal. The decisions of the latter have done much towards removing many legal difficulties in the sphere of State administration.

(c) Judicature.

In accordance with the principle adopted in the Constitution, judicial organs occupy in the organisation of the State an autonomous and independent position. The difficulties of those European States who do not guarantee to judicial organs the same independence as they have in America were realised in Poland. Hence the principle of absolute independence of the Judicature of any other branches of State organisation. This independence is safeguarded by various provisions prohibiting the dismissal or transfer of judges, and making them responsible to Statutory enactments alone. On the other hand, the Courts have no authority to challenge the validity of Statutes passed in accordance with the Constitution (Art. 81)—a principle also adopted in the French organisation of Justice. It is, of course, a controversial point whether or not this doctrine can prevent the Courts from applying Statutes which do not conform to the letter of the Constitution. The tendencies of modern Jurisprudence are in the direction of wide powers of interpretation being given to the Courts. The Constitution imposes restrictions of a purely formal nature, i.e., as to the validity of the law in question, but leaves it to the discretion of the Courts to interpret Statutes conflicting with the Constitution. Thus, the relations between the Legislature and the Judicature are still under the shadow of doubts which are also experienced in other European countries, and especially in France.

The administration of Justice is, like other branches of State administration, still based on former Russian, German and Austrian systems and also on temporary Polish statutes. Since, however, the former German and Austrian, both based on the French model, were very similar, and since the temporary Polish Regulations introduced in 1917 were also based on the French system, it was not very difficult to achieve a uniformity of administration and of legal terminology. Such compromise is, however, unsatisfactory, and it was the main task of the Codification Commission to draft uniform Rules as regards the organisation of the Judicature. This project, based on the same principles as those referred to above, achieved not only the desired uniformity, but secures an efficient and simple system adapted to the conditions of the country. The project is at present being discussed by a Committee of the Seym and, it is to be hoped, will receive Parliamentary sanction in the nearest future.

Generally speaking, both the new project and the statutes enforced at present are based on the following main principles: viz., every lawsuit may be heard by two tribunals; lesser cases are heard by the County Courts, in the first instance, and by District (High) Courts in the second. District Courts can try, in the first instance, cases of greater importance for which the Courts of Appeal form tribunals of the second instance. Finally, there is a Supreme Court with jurisdiction over the whole country. This Tribunal can either repeal, or revise, the decisions of the lower courts, according to the Rules of Judicial Procedure enforceable in particular provinces of the country.

Courts of all instances administer both Criminal and Civil Law. The registration of property together with Commercial and Company Registers is, with a few exceptions, conducted

by the Districts Courts.

The Constitution provides for trials by jury throughout the country; so far, however, juries are summoned only in the former Austrian parts of the country; the introduction of juries into Courts of other territories will follow in the nearest future in accordance with the new project of Judicial organisation which is being considered by the Seym.

The initiative and support of the prosecution is entrusted to the Director of Public Prosecution, whose representatives are established at each Court, beginning with the District

tribunals.

The administration of **Criminal Justice** is based on three different Codes in three different parts of the country. These Codes were passed at various periods (Austrian in 1852, German in 1871, and Russian in 1903) and differ considerably

both as regards the general Rules and the particular dispositions and sanctions. In consequence, Criminal Law had to be codified and the Codification Commission was able as early as 1922 to produce the first part of the Polish Criminal Code which is now being discussed in Polish and foreign legal publications. It is expected that this Code will be elaborated during the present year. The project is based on the latest ideas in criminology, without, however, adopting such radical changes as were advocated in the Italian Project of 1921, and tends to achieve a compromise between the principle of responsibility, and that of the interests of the community, similarly to the Swiss project, but with full recognition of

local peculiarities.

The constitutional organisation of the Republic of Poland. briefly explained in the above article, has still to remove numerous legal remains of the period prior to Polish independence. The legislation of the former Empires could not be suddenly abolished, for this would have resulted in disorder and legal chaos. In spite, however, of these difficulties, the Independent Polish jurisprudence was able to produce in a very short time a Constitution of a thoroughly democratic character which gives a firm basis for the further development of legal and judicial organisation. Furthermore, the Constitution has already been developed by a series of Statutes and projects. The work of organisation is not yet concluded, but it is essential in every State that its organisation should be constantly developed and supplemented. In Poland these activities are, at present, carried on with the greatest intensity, so as to make up for the inactivity of over a hundred years. In any case, the juristic organisation which is still being improved upon is, even to-day, equal to that of any other European State. There is no doubt that the present system forms a vast improvement on the legal organisation binding in Poland under the former Central and the Russian Empires.

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE POLISH REPUBLIC.

3. Constitutional Charter of March 17, 1921.

In the name of God Almighty,

WE, THE POLISH NATION.

grateful to Providence for having delivered us from slavery lasting a century and a half;

remembering with gratitude the heroism and prowess shown by successive generations in their struggles, their sacrifices, their unsparing devotion and efforts in the Cause of Independence;

mindful of the great traditions of the glorious Constitution of

May the Third;

aiming at the welfare of our Motherland, united and independent, desirous of affirming its existence, its security and its power, of establishing a social order based on the eternal principles of Right and Freedom:

desiring to assure the development of all its forces, moral and material, for the supreme benefit of reviving Humanity and of securing for all citizens of the Republic equality, respect for labour, recognition of all their rights, as well as individual protection by the State.

ENACT AND CONFIRM THIS CONSTITUTION IN THE CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY OF THE POLISH REPUBLIC.

Chapter One.

The Republic.

Art. 1. The Polish State is a Republic.

Art. 2. The Sovereign Power in the Polish Republic shall be vested in the Nation. The organs of the Nation shall be:—in matters legislative—the Diet and the Senate; in the exercise of Executive Power—the President of the Republic acting conjointly with responsible Ministers; and in matters judicial-the independent Tribunals of Justice.

Chapter Two.

Legislative Power.

Art. 3. The State shall exercise the Legislative Power and shall for this purpose establish all Private and Public Law and regulate the administration thereof.



No Law shall be passed without the authorisation of the Diet expressed in the manner prescribed by Statute.

Statutes passed by the Diet shall enter into force on the date

fixed by the Diet.

The Polish Republic having its foundation based on the principle of wide Local Autonomy shall transfer to the organs of the said Autonomy the power of legislation, particularly in administrative, social and economic matters; the details shall be defined by Statute.

Decrees of authorities creating rights and obligations of citizens shall not have the force of Law unless based on Statute and

referring thereto.

Art. 4. Each year the Budget of the State for the year following shall be fixed by Statute.

Art. 5. The contingent of the Army shall be fixed only by Statute; the annual recruiting shall be effected only in the manner prescribed by Statute.

Art. 6. No State Loan shall be floated, or State property alienated, exchanged or pledged, nor public contributions or taxes imposed, except by Statute; and the same provision shall apply to Custom Duties, Monopolies, the Monetary System and financial guarantees undertaken by the State.

Art. 7. The Government shall submit annually the Balance Sheets of State Finance for Parliamentary approval.

Art. 8. The mode of exercising Parliamentary control over State Debts shall be fixed by Statute.

Art. 9. The Supreme Court of Control formed on the principles of collective judgment and independence of judges, and whose members shall not be dismissed except by a decision of the Diet passed by a majority of three-fifths of votes shall be called upon to control all financial activities of the State, to examine its accounts and to submit annually a motion requesting the Diet to grant or else to refuse the vote of approval to the Government. The details of the organisation of the Supreme Court of Control and the sphere of its jurisdiction shall be fixed by Statute.

The President of the Supreme Court of Control shall have the rank of Minister without, however, forming part of the Cabinet. He shall be responsible to the Diet for his own actions as well as

for those of his subordinates.

Art. 10. The right to initiate legislation shall appertuin to the Government and to the Diet. Motions and projects of Statutes involving the expenditure of public funds shall contain indications as to the employment of such funds and the means whereby they shall be found.

Art. 11. The Diet shall consist of Deputies elected for the period of 5 years commencing on the day of the Opening of the Diet, by

universal, secret, direct and equal ballot in conformity with the principle of Proportional Representation.

Art. 12. The right to vote shall appertain to every Polish citizen of either sex, provided he or she is at least 21 years of age on the day of the Proclamation of an Election, he or she enjoys full civil rights and is domiciled in his or her constituency at least since the eve of the proclamation of the Election in the Journal of Statutes. The right of vote shall be exercised personally. Military persons on active service shall not have the right to vote.

Art. 13. The right of eligibility shall appertain to every citizen having the right of vote, including the military on active service and independently of the place of his domicile, provided he has attained the age of 25.

Art. 14. Citizens convicted for offences provided for by the Electoral Law and involving the temporary or permanent loss of the right of vote or that of eligibility as well as the forfeiture of a parliamentary mandate shall not have the right to vote.

Art. 15. State Officials of the Administration, the Exchequer, or Justice shall not be elected in constituencies in which they perform their duties. This provision shall not apply to officials of the Central Authorities.

Art. 16. Officials of the State and those of Local Autonomy shall be given notice to leave on their being elected to the Diet.

This provision shall not apply to Ministers, Under-Secretaries of State or University Professors.

Years spent in the exercise of parliamentary duties shall count as years of service.

Art. 17. Any Deputy called upon to fill a post remunerated by the State shall forfeit his mandate; this provision shall not apply to the appointment of Ministers, Under-Secretaries of State and University Professors.

Art. 18. Regulations concerning the mode of holding Parliamentary Elections shall be determined by the Electoral Law.

Art. 19. The Diet shall confirm the elections in cases where their validity has not been challenged. The Supreme Court of Justice shall decide in cases where the validity has been challenged.

Art. 20. The Deputies shall represent the nation in its entirety and shall not be restricted by any instructions from their constituents.

All deputies shall make before the Marshal the following solemn declaration to the Diet:—

"I promise solemnly in my capacity of Deputy to the Diet of the Polish Republic to work honestly for the exclusive advantage of the Polish State in its entirety, to the best of my ability and in accordance with my conscience." Art. 21. No Deputy shall be rendered liable for his actions in or outside the Diet as soon as it resumes its functions, either during the continuation of the mandate or after its expiration. Deputies shall be responsible only to the Diet for speeches and opinions expressed as well as for their recommendations to the Diet. If a Deputy should infringe the rights of a third party he may be brought before the judicial authorities provided the latter obtain an authorisation of the Diet to this effect.

All penal, administrative, or disciplinary proceedings instituted against a Deputy before his election to the Diet shall be suspended until the expiration of his mandate, if the Diet so requires.

In case of a penal action being brought against a Deputy, the proceedings shall be suspended during the continuance of the mandate.

During the continuance of the mandate no Deputy shall be compelled to answer charges of a disciplinary or repressive character, or to undergo personal detention without a special authorisiation of the Diet. In the case of a flagrant violation of Common Law being committed by a Deputy, the judicial authorities shall be deemed to report it forthwith to the Marshal with a view to obtaining an authorisation for the detention or pursuit, if this be indispensable for the course of justice being pursued, or for the prevention of consequences of the offence. At the request of the Marshal the detained Deputy shall be released forthwith.

Art. 22. No Deputy shall purchase or lease property in land belonging to the Government, either in his own name or in that of someone else, nor shall he contract for supplies to, or accept work from the Government, or obtain State concessions or other personal advantages.

Neither shall a Deputy accept Government distinctions, save the

military ones.

Art. 23. A Deputy shall not hold the office of responsible Editor.

Art 24. All Deputies shall receive a salary fixed by Statute and shall have the right of free travel within the territories of the Republic by all means of communication owned by the State.

Art. 25. The President of the Republic shall convoke, open,

adjourn, and dissolve the Diet and the Senate.

The Diet shall be convened on the third Tuesday following Polling Day and each year following, not later than in October, for the purpose of voting the Budget, the Contingent and Recruiting of the Army as well as other current affairs.

The President of the Republic may, if he should think it necessary, convene the Diet at any time for an extraordinary session and he shall do so whenever one-third of the total number

of Deputies so require.

Other cases where the Diet may be convened for an extraordinary session are provided for in the Constitution.

The adjournment of the Diet shall not take place otherwise than with the previous consent of the Diet in case where it takes place for the second time during the course of an ordinary session, or if the interruption should exceed 30 days.

The ordinary session of the Diet convened in October shall not

be closed before the Budget had been voted.

Art. 26. The Diet may dissolve itself spontaneously by a decision taken with a two-thirds majority of votes. The President of the Republic may dissolve the Diet with the consent of three-fifths of the total number of Senators fixed by Statute in the presence of at least one-half of the total number of Deputies fixed by Statute.

In the cases aforesaid the Senate shall rightfully be dissolved at the same time. The Elections shall take place within 90 days from the date of Dissolution. Polling Day shall be fixed either by a decision of the Diet or by a Proclamation of the President.

Art. 27. The Deputies shall exercise personally their parliamentary rights and obligations.

Art. 28. The Diet shall appoint from its members the Marshal and his deputies, the secretaries and shall elect its Committees. The Marshal and his deputies shall hold office after the Dissolution and until the constitution of the new Diet.

Art. 29. The mode and order of proceedings, the activities and number of Committees, the number of Deputy-Marshals and Secretaries, as well as the privileges and duties of the Marshal shall be fixed by the Rules and Regulations of the Diet.

Art. 30. The proceedings of the Diet shall be public. On the proposition of the Marshal, or a representative of the Government, or that of 30 Deputies, the Diet may hold its session in camera.

Art. 31. No one shall be rendered responsible on the grounds of a true verbatim Report of the proceedings of a public session of the Diet or that of its Committees.

Art. 32. For the validity of the decisions of the Diet an ordinary majority of votes shall be necessary as well as the presence of at least one half of the total number of Deputies fixed by Statute, except in cases otherwise provided for in this Constitution.

Art. 33. All Deputies shall have the right to address interpellations to the Government or to individual Ministers in accordance with the manner prescribed by the Regulations. The Minister shall be deemed to give explanations in writing or orally within a period not exceeding 6 weeks, or else to justify the failure to give a definite reply in a declaration stating the reasons thereof. On the request of the interpellants the reply may be communicated to the Diet; the latter may make it the subject of discussion and vote.

Art. 34. The Diet may form amongst its members or those outside it Temporary Committees for the examination of special questions, and having the right to examine the interested parties and to call witnesses and experts. The sphere of activities of such Committees shall in each case be fixed by the Diet.

Art. 35. Each Project of Law passed by the Diet shall be submitted to the Senate. If the Senate should raise no objections within 30 days from the date on which the project was submitted, the President of the Republic shall decree the promulgation thereof. On the request of the Senate the President of the Republic may decree the promulgation before the expiration of the 30 days.

If the Senate should decide to modify or to reject the project passed by the Diet, the Senate shall be deemed to announce its decision within the aforesaid 30 days and it shall return to the Diet the project with the proposed amendments not later than within the 30 days following.

If the Diet should accept the amendments proposed by the Senate by an ordinary majority or reject them by a majority of eleven-twentieths, the President of the Republic shall promulgate the Statute in the wording adopted by the second decision of

the Diet.

Art. 36. The Senate shall consist of members elected by the particular districts by secret, universal, direct, equal and proportional ballot. Each district shall form a parliamentary constituency; the proportion of inhabitants to the number of Senators shall be larger by one-fourth than that of the Deputies. Every elector to the Diet, having attained the age of 30 on or before the date of the proclamation of the Election and having been domiciled in a constituency for at least one year, shall have the right to take part in Senatorial Elections; colonists recently settled shall not forfeit their right of vote if they have abandoned their previous domicile for the purpose of benefiting under the Agrarian Reform, and the same shall apply to workmen who have changed their domicile in consequence of a change in their place of work, and to State officials transferred from office.

The right of eligibility shall appertain to every citizen entitled to vote in Senatorial Elections, including the military on active service, provided he has attained the age of 40 on or before the

proclamation of the Election.

The Sessions of the Senate shall be held simultaneously with

those of the Diet.

No one shall at the same time be member of both the Diet and the Senate.

Art. 37. The provisions of Articles 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32 and 33 shall apply equally to the Senate or to its members respectively.

Art. 38. No Statute shall be in disagreement with the present Constitution or contradict its provisions. Chapter Three.

Executive Power.

Art. 39. The President of the Republic shall be elected by the Diet and the Senate united in a National Assembly by an absolute majority of votes. The President of the Republic shall convoke the National Assembly within the last three months preceding the expiration of his Office.

If the convocation should not take place within 30 days before the expiration of the term of Presidency, the Diet and the Senate shall be rightfully entitled to unite in a National Assembly on the initiative and under the presidency of the Marshal of the Diet.

Art. 40. Should the President of the Republic be unable to perform his duties or should a vacancy occur by death, renunciation or from any other cause, the Marshal of the Diet shall deputise for him.

Art. 41. If the Presidency of the Republic should become vacant, the Diet and the Senate shall forthwith constitute themselves into a National Assembly on the initiative and under the presidency of the Marshal of the Diet for the purpose of electing a new President.

If the Diet should be dissolved at the time of the Presidency becoming vacant, the Marshal of the Diet shall forthwith decree new Elections to the Diet and to the Senate.

Art. 42. If the President of the Republic should fail to exercise his functions during a period of 3 months the Marshal shall convene the Diet without delay. The latter shall decide whether or no the Presidency should be regarded as vacant.

The decision declaring the Presidency to be vacant must be taken by a majority of three-fifths of votes in the presence of at least one half of the total number of Deputies fixed by Statute.

Art. 43. The President of the Republic shall exercise his Executive Power through Ministers responsible to the Diet and their subordinates.

All officials of the Republic shall be dependent on their respective Ministers, who shall be responsible to the Diet for their acts.

The appointment of officials of the Civil Chancery of the President of the Republic shall be countersigned by the President of the Council of Ministers, who shall be responsible to the Diet for their acts.

Art. 44. All Statutes shall be signed by the President of the Republic and the respective Ministers; the President of the

Republic shall decree their publication in the Journal of Statutes

of the Republic.

The President of the Republic shall have the right to sign Government Decrees, Writs, Orders and Interdictions and to ensure the execution thereof by means of compulsion, for the purpose of enforcing the execution of Law and on the authority thereof.

The same right shall appertain to Ministers within the limits of

their competence and to their subordinate authorities.

Decrees of the President of the Republic shall be valid if signed by the President of the Council of Ministers and the competent Minister, who shall both be responsible for the Decree.

Art. 45. The President of the Republic shall appoint, cancel or revoke the appointment of the President of the Council of Ministers; he shall also appoint, on the suggestion of the President of the Council, the other responsible Ministers, as well as officials of Civil and Military authorities established by Law—on the suggestion of the Council of Ministers.

Art. 46. The President of the Republic shall also hold the Office of Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces of the State, but he

shall not exercise the Supreme Command in time of War.

The President of the Republic shall, in case of War, appoint the Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces on the suggestion of the Council of Ministers put forward by the Minister of War, who shall be responsible to the Diet for all actions relative to the Command in time of War as well as for all questions of military management.

Art. 47. The prerogative of Pardon and Respite as well as the right to remit the effects of a penal conviction shall appertain to the President of the Republic.

The President shall not exercise this prerogative in regard to Ministers tried in consequence of an Impeachment by the Diet.

Amnesty shall only be applied through judicial channels.

Art. 48. The President of the Republic shall represent the State externally; he shall receive diplomatic representatives of Foreign States and appoint diplomatic representatives of the Polish State to Foreign States.

Art. 49. The President of the Republic shall conclude and ratify Agreements with Foreign States and shall bring these to the

notice of the Diet.

Commercial and Custom Treaties as well as agreements pledging the Polish State financially or those containing legal provisions involving obligations for citizens, or introducing changes in the frontiers of the State, as well as Treaties of Alliance, shall not be concluded otherwise than with the consent of the Diet.

Art. 50. The President of the Republic shall not declare War or conclude Peace without the previous consent of the Diet.

Art. 51. The President of the Republic shall not incur any parliamentary or civil responsibility for his acts performed in the

exercise of his duties.

The President of the Republic may only be rendered responsible to the Diet by an Impeachment passed by a majority of three-fifths in the presence of at least one-half of the total number of Deputies fixed by Statute, if he be guilty of High Treason, violation of the Constitution or of penal offences. Investigation shall be conducted and detention ordered by the Tribunal of State in accordance with the provisions of a special Statute. The President of the Republic shall be suspended in his functions on being indicted before the Tribunal of State.

Art. 52. The President of the Republic shall receive a salary fixed by a special Statute.

Art. 53. The President of the Republic shall not hold any other office, nor may he be member of the Diet or Senate.

Art 54. Prior to entering Office the President of the Republic shall take the following oath before the National Assembly:—

"I swear before. God Almighty, before the Holy Trinity, and I promise the Polish people, as President of the Republic, to observe and defend the Laws of the Republic, and above

all the Constitution

"To serve the Nation faithfully and with all my power, to guard carefully the State from all evil and danger, to maintain unflinchingly the honour of Poland, to regard as my foremost duty the securing of justice to all citizens without distinction, and to devote myself exclusively to the duties of my office.

"So help me, God, through the Sacred Passion of our Lord."

Art. 55. The Ministers shall form the Cabinet under the presidency of the Prime Minister.

Art. 56. The Council of Minister shall collectively be responsible, both politically and constitutionally, for the general policy of

the Government.

The Ministers shall also be responsible, individually, each within the limits of his competence, for acts performed in the exercise of their functions, as well as for the conformity of such acts with the present Constitution as well as with other laws of the State, and also for acts accomplished by subordinate authorities administrative, and for the general direction of their policy.

Art. 57. Within the same limits Ministers shall be collectively and individually responsible for the Orders of the President of the

Republic.

Art. 58. The Diet shall call upon Ministers to justify their acts on parliamentary grounds by an ordinary majority of votes. The Council of Ministers and each of the Ministers shall resign if the Diet so desires.

Art. 59. The constitutional responsibility of Ministers and the mode of application thereof shall be regulated by a special Statute.

The indictment of a Minister must be passed by a majority of three-fifths of votes in the presence of at least one-half of the total

number of Deputies fixed by Statute.

The Tribunal of State shall institute proceedings and deliver judgment. A Minister shall not be able to avoid constitutional responsibility by resigning office. He shall be suspended in his functions on being indicted.

Art. 60. The Ministers and officials delegated by them shall have the right to take part in the proceedings of the Diet and to take the floor after the list of speakers has been exhausted. They shall not have the right to vote unless they be Deputies.

Art. 61. The Ministerial duties shall be incompatible with any other functions; the Ministers shall not be members of Boards of Directors or of Supervising Councils of any institution for the purpose of profit.

Art. 62. If Ministerial duties should temporarily be performed by a Director of the Ministry the provisions regarding Ministers shall apply to him. In case of necessity the President of the Council may be deputised for by one of the Ministers.

Art. 63. The number of Ministers, the sphere of their activities, their mutual relations as well as the competence of the Council of Ministers shall be regulated by a special Statute.

Art. 64. The Tribunal of State shall consist of the First President of the Supreme Court as President and of 12 judges, eight of whom to be elected by the Diet and four by the Senate outside their membership.

Only persons not holding any public office and enjoying full

civil rights may be members of the Tribunal of State.

Members of the Tribunal of State shall be elected by the Diet and Senate immediately after the opening of the Session and for the whole period of its duration.

Art. 65. The Polish State shall for the purpose of administration be divided by legislation into counties, districts, and rural or urban communities, which shall at the same time form units of local Autonomy.

The units of local autonomy may unite into federations for the purpose of accomplishing tasks in connection with the autonomy. Such associations shall be recognised by Public Law only if created by special Statute.

Art. 66. The administrative organisation of the State shall be based upon the principle of decentralisation, with, where possible, federation of bodies of public administration of the various territorial units into one office under one Chief, as well as on the principle of participation of citizens elected by ballot in the execution of the duties incumbent upon such offices—within the limits fixed by law.

Art. 67. The right to decide upon questions connected with

Local Government shall appertain to elected Councils.

The executive activities in counties and districts shall be performed by organs formed in accordance with the principle of the meetings of electoral assemblies, elected by the legislative bodies, and acting conjointly with representatives of administrative authorities of the State and under their presidence.

Art. 68. Apart from territorial autonomy a special Statute shall establish an economic autonomy for the various branches of economic life, especially Chambers of Agriculture, of Commerce, Industry, Craftsmanship, Salaried Labour and others, forming jointly the Supreme Economic Chamber of the Republic. Its co-operation with the State authorities in the joint administration of economic life and in the domain of legislation shall be regulated by Statute.

Art. 69. The sources of revenue of the State and those of autonomous federations shall be precisely defined by Statute.

Art. 70. The State shall exercise its control over the activities of autonomous organs through Departments of Local Government; nevertheless, the law may entrust it to administrative jurisdiction.

Exceptional cases in which decisions of administrative organs shall require the sanction of a higher autonomous authority or that

of the Ministry shall be specified by Statute.

Art. 71. There shall be but one appeal from the decisions delivered by organs of the Government or those of Local Autonomy, except in decisions contrary to law.

Art. 72. The Law shall adopt the principle of the parties having the right to lodge an appeal with a Tribunal fixed by law in cases of penal sentences being delivered by administrative authorities, in the first instance.

Art. 73. The administrative jurisdiction of the Government and that of Local Autonomy shall be regulated by Statute; the organisation thereof shall be based upon the co-operation of citizens with the judicial authorities headed by the Administrative Tribunal.

Chapter Four.

Judicial Power.

Art 74. Justice shall be administered by the Courts on behalf of the Polish Republic.

Art. 75. The organisation, the material and territorial competence of the Courts as well as the procedure to be adopted therein shall be fixed by Statute.

Art. 76. The President of the Republic shall appoint the Judges, except where the law should otherwise provide; Justices of Peace shall, as a rule, be elected by the population.

The functions of a Judge shall only be performed by persons

satisfying the conditions imposed by Statute.

Art. 77. The judges shall be independent in the exercise of their judicial duties and shall be amenable to nothing except the Law.

Judicial decisions may not be modified either by the Legislative

or Executive Powers.

Art. 78. A Judge shall not be dismissed, forced to resign, suspended in his duties, transferred to another position or placed in retirement against his wish, unless it be by judicial decision, or in special cases provided by Law.

This provision shall not apply to cases of transfer or dismissal of Judges following, and in consequence of, a re-organisation

of judicial administration instituted by Law.

Art. 79. Judges shall not be rendered penally responsible or deprived of their liberty without a preceding authorisation of a Tribunal designated by Statute, provided they have not been apprehended in the perpetration of an offence; yet, even in this case, the Tribunal may demand the immediate release of the detained.

Art. 80. The special position of Judges, their rights and duties as well as their salaries, shall be determined by Statute.

Art. 81. The Courts of Justice shall not have the right to challenge the validity of Statutes legally promulgated.

Art. 82. The procedings in Civil and Criminal Courts shall be public except where the Law should provide otherwise.

Art. 83. Juries shall be called upon to decide in offences

involving severe penalties and upon political offences.

Offences involving trial by Judges and Jury, the organisation and procedure of such Courts shall be determined by a special Statute.

Art. 84. A Supreme Tribunal for Civil and Criminal cases shall be established.

Art. 85. The organisation of Military Courts, their character and procedure as well as the rights and duties of their members shall be fixed by Statute.

Art. 86. A special Tribunal shall be established for the purpose of deciding upon cases of conflicts of jurisdiction between the administrative authorities and that of the Courts; the details shall be regulated by Statute.

Chapter Five.

General Rights and Obligations of Citizens.

Art. 87. A Polish subject cannot at the same time be a subject of another State.

Art. 88. Polish nationality shall be acquired by:

(a) birth of Polish parents:

(b) naturalisation conferred by a competent authority of the State.

Other conditions regarding the acquisition and extinction of nationality shall be determined by Statute.

Art. 89. It shall be the primary duty of Polish subjects to remain faithful to the Polish Republic.

Other conditions regarding the acquisition and extinction of nationality shall be determined by Statute.

Art. 90. Every subject shall be deemed to respect and observe the Constitution as well as other valid Laws and Statutes emanating from competent authorities of the State or those of Local Autonomy.

Art. 91. Every subject shall be deemed to submit himself to military obligations. The kind and manner of service, its regulations and duration, the exemption therefrom, as well as any other obligations of military nature, shall be determined by Statute.

Art. 92. Every subject shall be deemed to support all public burdens and obligations established by Law.

Art. 93. Every citizen shall be deemed to respect all lawful authorities and to facilitate the task of execution of their duties, to fulfil conscientiously all public duties which he might be called upon to perform by the Nation or by a competent authority.

Art. 94. It shall be the duty of all citizens to provide education for their children, to bring them up as good citizens of the country, and to provide at least for their elementary education.

This obligation shall be elaborated by Statute.

Art. 95. The Polish Republic guarantees on its territory full protection of life, freedom and property to all its inhabitants without distinction of origin, nationality, language, race or religion.

Aliens shall, on condition of reciprocity, enjoy the same rights as Polish subjects and shall have the same obligations, except where the law expressly requires Polish nationality.

Art. 96. All citizens shall be equal before the Law. Public employment shall be accessible equally to all on conditions fixed by Statute.

The Polish Republic shall not recognise any privileges of birth, class, heraldry, aristocratic titles, with the exception of scientific

distinctions and official or professional titles. A Polish citizen shall not have the right to accept foreign titles or decorations without the authorisation of the President of the Republic.

Art. 97. Limitations of freedom, and especially personal search and detention, shall not be permissible except in cases provided by law and in the manner fixed thereby, and by order of a judicial authority.

Inasmuch as it may not be possible to secure the warrant immediately, it must, at any rate, be transmitted within 48 hours and should indicate the causes justifying the search or detention.

Persons detained, in respect of whom the cause of arrest has not been indicated within the 48 hours by a writ bearing signatures of judicial authorities, shall immediately recover their freedom.

The law shall regulate the compulsory measures granted to administrative authorities for the purpose of execution of their orders.

Art. 98. No one may be kept away from his lawful judge. Exceptional jurisdiction shall not be applied, except in cases prescribed by Statutes promulgated before the perpetration of the offence. The prosecution and punishment of a citizen shall not take place otherwise than under a Statute actually in force.

Penalties involving corporal punishment shall be prohibited, and no one may be sentenced to undergo them.

No Statute may deny the course of Justice to any citizen who is a victim of injustice or prejudice.

Art. 99. The Polish Republic shall regard all property, whether belonging individually to citizens or collectively to associations of citizens, autonomous bodies, institutions, or to the State itself, as one of the principal foundations of social organisation and legal order; the Republic shall grant to all inhabitants, institutions and communities the protection of their property and shall not admit any limitation or abolition of individual or collective property, except in cases provided for by Statute for reasons of common benefit and against compensation.

Law only may decide what property and within what limits may be subject to the exclusive ownership of the State for reasons of public utility, and also how far the rights of citizens and their legally recognised organisations to exploit land, water, minerals,

and other natural wealth, may be limited.

Land, being one of the principal factors in national life, and in the State itself, may not be the object of unrestricted transfer. The law shall fix the limits within which the State shall have the right to compulsory redemption of property in land as well as the regulations concerning the transfer of such property in accordance with the principle that the agrarian organisation of the State should be based upon agricultural cultivation fit for normal production and owned by individuals.

Art. 100. The home of the citizen shall be inviolable. No infraction of this rule by trespass, search and seizure of papers or valuables shall take place, unless it be by order of judicial authorities in a manner and in cases prescribed by law, with the exception of cases of necessity to enforce administrative measures expressly authorised by law.

Art. 101. Every citizen shall be free to choose his domicile or residence within the territories of the State, to change it or migrate, to choose his profession or livelihood as well as to transfer his property.

These rights may not be restricted, except by Statute.

Art. 102. Labour, being the principal source of wealth in the Republic, shall be afforded special protection by the State.

Every citizen shall have the right to protection accorded by the State to his work, and in case of unemployment, illness or acci-

dent-to national insurance regulated by Law.

It shall be the duty of the State to render moral protection and religious ministration and instruction in public establishments directly under its control, such as schools, barracks, hospitals, prisons, and asylums.

Art. 103. Children deprived of adequate parental care in their education shall be entitled to the aid and protection of the State within the limits fixed by Statute.

A judicial order shall be necessary for the deprivation of parents

of their paternal power over the children.

The protection of maternity shall be regulated by special Statute. Salaried labour of children under 15, night work of women and adolescent workmen in the various industries dangerous to their health shall be forbidden.

It shall be forbidden to employ children or youths before they

have attended school.

Art. 104. Every citizen shall have the right to express freely his thoughts and opinions, so long as he does not violate the provisions of law.

Art. 105. The freedom of the Press shall be guaranteed. The Press shall not be submitted to censorship or to a system of concessions. The postal licence shall not be refused to journals or printed matter published, in the country, or their circulation limited anywhere within the boundaries of the Polish Republic.

A special Statute shall fix the responsibility incurred by abuse of

this privilege.

Art, 108. The secrety of letters and other correspondence shall not be violated, except in cases provided by law.

Art, 107. The citizens shall have the right to address individual or collective petitions to all representative bodies and public authorities of the State and those of the Local Autonomy.

Art. 108. The citizens shall enjoy the right of assembly and association as well as that of forming societies and unions.

The application of these rules shall be regulated by Statute.

Art. 109. Every citizen shall have the right to preserve his nationality and to cultivate his language and his national customs. Special Statutes shall guarantee to Minorities within the Polish State the full and free development of their national usages with the assistance of autonomous federations of Minorities recognised by public law within the limits of the general autonomy.

The State shall have the right of control in regard to their activities, and, in case of necessity, the duty to increase their

financial resources.

Art. 110. Polish subjects belonging to national Minorities or to those of religion or language shall have, equally with other citizens, the right to form, control and administer, at their own expense, charitable institutions of a religious or social character as well as to use their language freely, and to observe the precepts of their religion.

Art. 111. The freedom of conscience and of religion shall be guaranteed to every subject. No one may be denied the rights granted to other citizens on account of his religion or his religious convictions.

All inhabitants of the Polish Republic shall have the right to profess freely their creed in public or in private and to follow the canons of their religion or ritual, so long as such practices are not contrary to public order or to morality.

Art. 112. It shall be forbidden to have freedom of creed which is not in agreement with the law. No one may keep away from the performance of his public duties on account of his religious convictions. No one may be compelled to take part in a religious act or ritual, unless he be subject to paternal or tutelary authority.

Art. 113. Every religious association recognised by the State shall have the right to organise its religious services in public or at private meetings; it may freely conduct its internal affairs, own and acquire, administer and dispose, of its movable or immovable property, have the possession and benefit of its funds and endowments, equally with institutions of a religious, charitable or scientific character. No religious association may be formed in disagreement with the laws of the State.

Art. 114. The Roman-Catholic Creed, being the creed of the majority of the people, shall have a preponderating authority in the State among other religions which shall enjoy equal treatment.

The Roman-Catholic Church is governed by its own laws. The relation between the Church and the State shall be determined on the basis of a Concordat with the Holy See, which shall be ratified by the Diet.

Art. 115. The Churches of religious minorities and of other religious associations recognised by Law shall be governed by their own legislation, which shall be recognised by the State, unless it should contain provisions contrary to law.

The relations between the State and these Churches shall be determined by Statute on the basis of an understanding with their

lawful representative bodies.

Art. 116. The recognition of a new denomination or of one hitherto not recognised legally shall not, by any means, be refused to religious associations whose organisation, teaching and practices are not opposed to public order or morality.

Art. 117. Scientific research and the publication of the results thereof shall be freely allowed. Every subject shall have the right to establish and administer schools and other educational institutions provided he has fulfilled the conditions required by law, in respect of his qualifications, the security of children entrusted to him, and provided he is loyal to the State.

All schools and educational establishments, whether public or private, shall be controlled by authorities of the State, within

the limits fixed by Statute.

Art. 118. Primary education shall be obligatory for all subjects of the State. The duration, curriculum, and mode of primary education shall be fixed by Statute.

Art. 119. Education in State or Local Government schools shall be free. The State shall provide bursaries for particularly gifted pupils frequenting secondary or University schools.

Art. 120. In all educational establishments supported or subsidised by the State whose curriculum embraces the education of youth under 18 years of age, the teaching of religion shall be compulsory for all pupils. The conduct and control of such teaching shall rest with the respective religious associations, with the reservation of a supreme right of control by the educational authorities of the State.

Art. 121. Every citizen shall have the right to indemnity for damage caused by civil or military authorities of the State in the performance of their official duties in a manner not in accordance with the law or with the requirements of service. The State, jointly with the offending authorities shall be responsible for damage thus caused. The payment of the claim against the State or against its functionaries shall not depend on the authorisation of public bodies. The communes and other bodies of local autonomy shall incur the same responsibility.

Special Statutes shall regulate the application of these rules.

Art. 122. The provisions dealing with individual rights shall be equally applied to persons belonging to the Armed Forces. Exceptions to this rule shall be provided for by Military Law.

Art. 123. The Armed Forces may be employed at the request of civil authorities, only on the condition of strict observance of the law, for the purpose of suppressing riots or for the enforcement of law by compulsory measures. No exceptions to this rule shall be permissible, unless it be in virtue of a Statute proclaiming a State of War or Siege.

Art. 124. The temporary suspension of individual rights, namely: of personal freedom (Art. 97), inviolability of domicile (Art. 100), freedom of the Press (Art. 105), secrecy of correspondence (Art. 106), as well as those of unions, assemblies, and associations, may take place either on all territories of the Republic or in certain localities, if this should prove necessary for reasons of public safety.

The Council of Ministers only may, with the authorisation of the President of the Republic, decree such suspension in case of war or danger of war, of internal disturbances or dangerous plots bearing the character of High Treason and threatening the

Constitution or the safety of citizens.

Such decree of the Cabinet, if promulgated during the session of the Diet, shall forthwith be submitted to its sanction. If the decree should be promulgated during the vacation of the Diet for a territory larger than a district, the latter shall rightfully assemble within eight days following the date of publication of the decree, for the purpose of taking a decision.

If the Diet should refuse its sanction the State of War shall immediately cease to be enforced. If the Cabinet should decree the State of War after the conclusion of the Session or after the Dissolution of the Diet, the decree of the Government shall immediately be submitted to the newly-elected Diet at its first session.

These rules shall be elaborated more fully in a Statute on the

State of War.

The rules of temporary suspension of the aforesaid individual rights in time of war in a territory within the sphere of military operations shall be fixed by the Statute on the State of War.

Chapter Six.

General Provisions.

Art 125. The revision of the present Constitution may only be voted on in the presence of at least one-half of the total number of Deputies and Senators respectively fixed by Statute, and carried by a majority of two-thirds of votes.

The motion demanding the revision of the Constitution shall be signed by one quarter of the total number of Deputies fixed by

Statute and the deposition of such motion announced at least 15 days in advance.

The Second Diet assembled in accordance with the provisions of this Constitution may submit the latter to a revision by a decision taken by a-majority of three-fifths of votes in the presence of at least one-half of the total number of Deputies fixed by Statute.

Every 25 years from the date of the enactment of the present Constitution a revision shall take place following a decision taken by an ordinary majority of votes of the Diet and Senate united into a National Assembly.

Art. 126. The present Constitution of the Polish Republic shall enter into force on the date of its publication, and, inasmuch as the execution of certain clauses depends on the publication of the respective supplementary Statutes—on the date of the pro-

mulgation of such Statutes.

All provisions and dispositions of Statutes in force at present which should be found to be in disagreement with the clauses of this Constitution shall be submitted to the Legislative Body, so as to be adjusted by legislation in accordance with the Constitution not later than within one year from the date of the present Statute.

4. THE SYSTEM OF PARLIAMENTARY ELECTIONS IN POLAND.

The electoral law of Poland voted by the Constituent Assembly on July 28, 1922, and published in the Journal of Laws of the Polish Republic, No. 66, on August 18, 1922, is adapted to the most progressive requirements of modern democracy. The main characteristic of the Polish franchise is its universality, i.e., the Polish franchise is equal, secret, direct, embracing both sexes, and based on the system of proportional representation. The electoral law to the Seym (Lower Chamber) and to the Senate are entirely uniform as regards the main principles, with only an insignificant variation as regards the age limit of the electors and of parliamentary candidates.

Every Polish citizen without distinction of sex has the right to vote to the Seym, if, on the day of the proclamation of the election, he or she is 21 years of age, and to the Senate if he or she is 30 years of age, and if he or she is not disqualified by a legal verdict of the court. Military persons on active service have no right to vote.

Every Polish citizen without distinction of sex may be elected member of the Seym if he or she is 25 years of age, and of the Senate if he or she is 40 years of age. Military persons on active service may be elected for the Seym or Senate. Every citizen may be elected member of the Seym in any electoral district, no matter whether he is domiciled in Poland or abroad. Every citizen gives his vote in the electoral district in which he is domiciled at least seven days prior to the proclamation of elections. Every elector has the right to vote only in one electoral district. elector who has the right to vote must be inscribed on the list of electors prepared by the proper election committee. He who is not inscribed on the list of electors cannot avail himself of the vote to which he is entitled. For the purpose of scrutiny lists of electors are publicly displayed during seven days and every citizen has the right either to demand to have his name inscribed on the list, if the authorities omitted to do so, or to protest against the inscription on the list of a person of whom he is informed that he or she does not have the right of voting at all or in a given electoral district. Persons inscribed on the list of electors, whose right has been thus questioned are being notified by the Election Committee within three days and are given seven days to prove their right to vote. If they do not furnish such proof their names are struck off the list of electors.

The Seym is composed of 444 deputies, elected for five years. The Senate is composed of 111 senators elected for the same period. Elections to the Senate take place seven days after the elections to the Seym have taken place.

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The country is divided into electoral districts (constituencies); each constituency elects a number of deputies in proportion to the number of inhabitants (on the average one deputy represents a population of 50,000) voting not for individual candidates but for lists of candidates prepared by the various political parties who notify them to the Elections Committee. The lists must be approved by the Committee at least five days before polling day. The Elections Committee publish the names of all persons inscribed on the lists of candidates. The lists receive numbers in order of their deposition with the Elections Committee. The voting takes place by means of voting cards on which are inscribed not the names of the candidates but only the number of the list for which an elector gives his vote. The whole of the constituencies elect directly 372 deputies and 93 senators, the remaining 72 deputies and 18 senators are being elected by means of the so-called National lists, which means that the Elections Committee allots to each party an additional number of deputies or senators in proportion to the number of successful candidates elected from individual lists in the constituencies. No party which had its candidates elected in less than five constituencies has the right to participate in the allotment of deputies or senators from the National lists.

Votes cast in the constituencies for individual lists are being counted for the whole district, whereupon the candidates are distributed amongst the various lists put up in a constituency proportionately to the number of votes cast for each list. The system of allotment adopted by Poland is known as the de Hondt system. The allotment of mandates from the National list is being

effected on the same principles of the de Hondt system.

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5. POLITICAL PARTIES IN POLAND.

There are many political parties in Poland. Their large number is due to the fact that before the war the territories which now constitute the Polish Republic formed part of three distinct States, Austria, Germany and Russia, each living a different political life. No doubt, on finding affinity, some of the parties that were formed before the unification of the country amalgamated, but this is far from being the case with all. However, mention will only be made here of the distinctive features of the more important Polish parties, such as are represented in legislative bodies; the small Polish groups and those which correspond to the national minorities being passed over.

The National Populist Union (Związek Ludowo-Narodowy) an issue of the former National Democratic Union which was active in the three distinct parts of Poland before the war, is the most numerous. It accounts for nearly 100 deputies out of the 444 members of the Diet.

It is of a pronounced nationalist character, but is not based on class distinction; its programme is a national programme and amongst its members are to be found large landed proprietors side by side with merchants, industrialists, representatives of the liberal professions and even peasants and labourers, though the latter are not very numerous in the party. In short, this party represents neither exclusively agrarian nor exclusively industrial interests, even if its general tendencies are on the whole conservative.

From the political point of view the National Populist Union desires to make Poland a national State and not a State of Nationalities. Consequently, although it is not opposed to certain concessions in principle, it combats the tendencies of other parties to grant regional self-government to certain parts of national territory. With regard to other concessions, the National Populist Union has no fixed programme.

As regards internal politics, this party wants a strong government based on a parliamentary majority exclusively Polish and composed of moderate parties. Such a bloc was effectively formed in 1923, but it only disposed of a weak

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majority of a small number of votes and succeeded in maintaining power but for a few months.

In social matters the National Populist Union admits the necessity of certain moderate reforms as also of the Agrarian reform, but it combats the radical forms and methods of their realization. It defends catholicism though without fanaticism.

In general, this party shows affinity with the group l'Action Française in France and the Italian fascism in its views on national, social and political matters, but its tendencies are not purely monarchical though it shows royalist sympathies. It demands an active campaign against communism and every kind of revolutionary agitation.

The National Populist Union exercises great influence on the youth of the Universities and Higher Schools. As regards the masses, it has many adherents among the peasants, but only in certain parts of the country and among the lower middle classes, where Christian democracy is its most powerful opponent.

Amongst the most notable leaders of the party we may mention Roman Dmowski, Professor Stanisław Głąbiński, Professor Stanisław Grabski, the present Minister of Religion and Public Instruction, Deputv Jerzy Zdziechowski, Chairman of the Budget Commission in the Diet, Deputy Stanisław Kozicki, Prince Seweryn Czetwertyński, Deputy Antoni Marylski. The principal newspaper of the party is the "Gazeta Warszawska" (Warsaw Gazette), but it also disposes of several provincial papers.

The National Christian Party (Stronnictwo Chrześcijańsko Narodowe) separated from the National Populist Union some years ago but its programme is so similar that even to-day it is difficult to find any essential difference between the two parties. All that can be said is that the National Christian Party is a party of large landed proprietors; in fact they are its principal support although it does not profess a class but a general national programme.

This party is much less powerful than the preceding one and only accounts for 24 deputies in the Diet. In the main its political views are the same as those of the National Populist Union. As regards the agrarian question, the National Christian Party is opposed to the reform schemes

that have been put forward up to the present time but acknowledges the necessity of a reform.

The organ of this party is at present the "Warszawianka." Its most noteworthy leaders are: Professor Stanisław Stroński, Professor Edward Dubanowicz and Jerzy Michalski, ex-Minister of Finance.

The Christian Democracy (Chrześcijańska Demokracja) is a party whose very name suffices to give an idea of its views. It is, indeed, a democratic party. In all question pertaining to protection of labour, social insurances, the advancement of education amongst the masses, the Christian Democracy defends the interests of the working classes, of which it takes a view different from that of other workmen's parties. At its last Congress, the Christian Democracy loudly proclaimed the necessity of maintaining all that the working classes had gained up till now. With regard to trade unionism, it follows the same policy as the French "Catholic Trades Unions" which were formed after the war.

The Christian Democracy group accounts for 42 deputies in the Diet. Its main supporters are drawn from the proletariat of the towns, the lower middle classes, artisans and labourers and from part of the representatives of the liberal professions. Its principal adherents are: Father Aleksander Wojcicki who has inspired its ideology, deputy Wojciech Korfanty, Father Adamski, deputy Chaciński, Father Zygmunt Kaczyński, Senator Stefan Smólski, ex-Under-Secretary of State in the Ministry of the Interior, deputy Father Gasiorowski, deputy Professor Mianowski, Senator Stanisław Nowodworski, ex-Minister of Justice.

This party has many press organs in the provinces, the most important being the "Glos Narodu" (Voice of the Nation) at Kraków. The "Rzeczpospolita," (Republic) an important Warsaw paper may also be said to be its organ as deputy Korfanty is its proprietor.

It is not very long since the Christian Democracy formed an alliance with the National Populist Union and the National Christian Party. Recently it has completely broken loose from that alliance and has attempted to bring about an "entente" of the parties of the Centre both in the Diet and the Senate. If such an alliance were brought to a happy termination, it would certainly assume a commanding

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importance for the development of Polish parliamentary tactics.

The Polish Peasant Party "Piast" (Stronnictwo Ludowe" Piast") was formed in former Austrian Poland. It became very strong and after the unification of Poland, drew many recruits from other parts of the country. It is a class party though it has many adherents amongst the liberal professions. This is due to the fact that more often than any other peasant party, it subordinates its own individual interests for which it is fighting, to the general interests of the nation.

This party represents the needs and interests of the middle rural classes, that is of the prosperous peasants. It strongly supports the agrarian reform but is opposed to the expropriation without indemnity of large and medium-sized estates. It is very sparing of its consent in fiscal matters and in the Diet often opposes the budgetary proposals, not only those of the extremist workmen's parties but also those of the more moderate parties. At present it constitutes a group of a little under 50 deputies in the Diet.

The party is headed by deputy Wincenty Witos, a peasant who has twice been Prime Minister. Its other leaders are deputy Rataj, who is now Marshal (Speaker) of the Diet and was formerly Minister of Religion and Public Instruction, and deputy Kiernik, ex-Minister of the Interior.

The "Piast" Party has an organ at Warsaw, the "Echo," which is officious rather than official. The most widely circulated Polish daily paper the "Illustrowany Kurjer Codzienny" (The Illustrated Daily Courier) which is published at Kraków belongs to the party, but only to a certain extent; it belongs to deputy Marjan Dąbrowski who is a member of the parliamentary group of the "Piast."

All the above-mentioned parties, the National Populist Union, the National Christian Party, the Christian Democracy and the "Piast" Peasant Party as well as several smaller groups, formed an "entente" two years ago, the Right Bloc, and gained power during the last six months of 1923, though only for a rather short time. At present this Bloc is splitting up; Christian Democracy and the "Piast" Peasant Party are endeavouring to form a Centre Alliance. No doubt from time to time the parties of the old Right Bloc vote together on general matters pertaining to foreign as well as domestic

policy. Nevertheless it is certain that the tendency of the Christian Democracy and the "Piast" is to break loose from the National Populist Union and the National Christian Party.

The National Workmen's Party (Narodowa Partja Robotnicza) as its name implies is a workmen's party which subordinates the interests of its class to those of the Nation. It acknowledges class distinction but does not look upon it as the principal factor of social and political life. In its programme, this party loudly proclaims that it puts the interest of the Nation and of the State before everything else. Obviously it carries on an active campaign in the workmen's cause. Its programme aims at the nationalisation of the means of production but, in contradistinction to the socialists, it demands that such nationalisation shall only be applied to those branches of production that have been monopolised de facto or which have a vital importance for the Nation. Moreover the National Workmen's Party considers that this scheme is only realizable in the far future, for, in its opinion, nationalisation is not desirable until the organism of the State is sufficiently prepared for it. In the main, the programme of the National Workmen's Party resembles that of the British Labour Party which does not look upon class warfare as the essential factor of social life and does not aim at a mass nationalisation of all the means of production. There is, however, one capital difference. The Labour Party, at any rate officially, is an internationalist party, being a member of the Second International whereas the Polish National Workmen's Party combats internationalism and has no relations with the Second International. This does not prevent the party from realizing the utility of international relations with the parties of other countries, but only relations concerning strictly defined matters. It only opposes such tendencies as subordinate the interests of the Nation and of the State to those of the International.

With regard to the question of national minorities, the National Workmen's Party demands that the cause of each one of them shall be dealt with separately as it is impossible to force each one into the same mould; then it proposes that the Polish State shall grant the minorities full liberty of national development on the basis of national extra-territorial autonomy and opposes the project of regional self-government.

The National Workmen's Party is represented in the Diet by 18 deputies.

Its leaders are: Deputies: Karol Popiel, who is the leader of the parliamentary group of the Party, Adam Chądzyński, Vice-President of the Budget Committee of the Diet, Jan Jankowski, Under-Secretary of State in the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, and Władysław Hertz. The National Workmen's Party has most supporters at Łódz and in the provinces that belonged to Prussia before the unification of Poland. Its official press organ is the weekly Journal "Sprawa Robotnicza" (Workmen's Cause).

Intimate bonds of ideas and programme unite the National Workmen's Party with the "Polish Trade Unions" which have numerous supporters in Silesia, Poznań and Pomerania and are organised on the model of the German trades unions:

The Polish Socialist Party (Polska Partja Socjalistyczna) along with the National Populist Party is the oldest party existing in Poland. Although socialist, it has a clearly defined character. Before the renascence of the Polish State, there was another socialist party, the Social Democracy of the Kingdom of Poland and Lithuania which on principle opposed every tendency on the part of Poland to regain her national independence, which it considered as a "reactionary Utopia," for it shared the opinion that "economic conditions" condemned Poland to a union with Russia. Since the liberation of Poland, the Social Democracy of the Kingdom of Poland and Lithuania and yet another group called the "Left of the Polish Socialist Party" have joined the Polish communists.

As regards programme and tactics, the Polish Socialist Party resembles the French socialists and also the moderate group of the German independent socialists which amalgamated with the main body of German socialists in 1922. The Socialist Party is a member of the Second International.

In so far as minorities are concerned, the Polish Socialist Party is not only supporting their claims to liberty of their national development but what is more, upholds the granting of regional self-government in favour of some of them.

For some years past the Polish Socialist Party has carried on an active campaign against the communists. It is a numerous party and has an influential representation in the Diet consisting of 40 deputies. The masses of the working classes which support the party are organised in the "Trades Unions." They have endeavoured to reunite the whole of the socialist workmen with the result that many communists have managed to penetrate into the party. Although the Polish Socialist Party has a large majority, the communist minority, by often disguising its true character, tries to push the trades unions much further than the programme and the political tactics of the Polish Socialist Party admit.

Amongst the leaders of this party we may mention: the deputies Norbert Barlicki, Mieczysław Niedziałkowski, Kazimierz Czapiński, Feliks Perl, Ignacy Daszyński, Jędrzej Moraczewski who was the first Prime Minister of Independent Poland, Adam Pragier, Zofja Prauss and Senator Stanisław Posner.

The principal paper of the party is the "Robotnik" (Workman) published in Warsaw. The Polish Socialist Party has numerous supporters in the Polish provinces though their support is not so strong in Poznań and Pomerania. It has organised and directs a large number of economic and educational institutions.

The Peasant Party "Wyzwolenie" (Stronnictwo Ludowe "Wyzwolenie") is a party with radical views on peasants' rights in which there are quite a number of socialists of an extremist character. The programme admits of political as well as democratic proposals. It demands expropriation without indemnity of large estates and some medium-sized ones and also pleads for regional autonomy for minorities. Recently groups of the party have detached themselves from its right as well as its left wing. It accounted for 60 deputies in the Diet but now there are only 50. This party represents the interests of peasants with small holdings and of a part of the rural proletariat.

As it is now composed, the "Wyzwolenie" Party is led by deputies Rudnicki, Waleron, Malinowski, Kosmowska and Dabski, ex-Under-Secretary of State to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

The party employs very radical means in its tactics and attacks other Government parties with great violence.

The Labour Group (Klub Pracy) is a new party which has detached itself from the "Wyzwolenie." It is a radical

group which, without taking its stand on class distinction, fights for the rights of the poorer peasants, demands the complete realization of the Agrarian reform and endeavours to attract the radical educated classes by putting the general needs of the State before everything else. It is opposed to the "Wyzwolenie," from which it has detached itself, in so far that it condemns the extremist catchwords it spreads amongst the peasants. It is also opposed to communism. It energetically pushes forward the resolutions on the minorities question and maintains that they should be granted complete national autonomy.

In foreign politics, this party represents the idea of the intimate association of Polish politics with the general international policy of pacification. Its leaders are: deputies Stanisław Thugutt, ex-Vice President of the Council, ex-Minister Professor Bartel, Advocate Smiarowski.

Thus there are many political parties in Poland which resemble corresponding parties in other countries. But there is the remarkable fact that Poland has no liberal party. It would certainly be very hazardous to suppose that there are no Polish liberals, but they are so small in number and are not organized and moreover find no support amongst the masses.

This phenomenon has deep historical causes, the principal one being that for a very long time there was not in Poland a large middle-class of national origin. But an analysis of this fact would require a special article.

To complete this short review of political parties in Poland we will add that the national minorities have altogether a little more than 80 representatives in the Diet. This is a considerable number which certainly tends to increase the existing difficulty to obtain a parliamentary majority. However, the constitution of a Centre Group may well have beneficial results for the development of Polish parliamentary tactics.

As yet no mention has been made of the communists, but they can hardly be reckoned as a Polish party. They are rather representatives of the communists of Soviet Russia whose orders they execute. Their influence is on the ebb and flow, according to the momentary state of the mind of the working people, a state of mind which is moulded on the modifications produced in the entire organism of the Nation.

B.

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In any case the boundary that separates Polish society from the communists is very clear.

General Elections 1922.

	e of votes actually		9,089,000 62 per cent.	
Percentage of votes actually				
Party.	Votes recorded in thousands.	Deputies elected.	Votes recorded in thousands.	Senators elected.
Bloc of the Right* Peasant Party "Piast" National Workmen's Party Peasant Party "Wyzwolenie" Polish Socialist Party Communists Jews National Minorities	2,811 1,212 474 1,679 906 121 1,792	169 72 18 53 41 2 35 54	2,211 728 292 529 468 - 1,099 {	49 17 3 8 7 7 12 15

^{8,395} * The Bloc of the Right includes The National Populist Union, The National Christian Party and The Christian Democracy.

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II. LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN POLAND.

The Constitution of the Republic adopts the principle of State administration based on a wide system of Local Autonomy. The corresponding Articles of the Constitution elaborate this principle of Local Government by dividing the State into counties (województwa) districts (powiaty) and rural and urban communes (gminy). These form units of State administration and are, at the same time, independent bodies of Local Government. The Constitution further provides that State administration in the counties and districts must be performed in co-operation with representative organs of the population. Such organs are represented in the counties and districts by elected Councils which, in turn, nominate their executives; the latter are presided over by representatives of the central government. In addition, special organs of Local Government are provided for in the Constitution, such as Chambers of Agriculture, of Commerce, Industry and Labour; their functions are parallel with the organs of Local Autonomy. Local Government bodies are controlled by superior organs of Local Autonomy, and in the last instance by the Ministries concerned: the legality of their acts may be challenged by Administrative Courts. Lastly, the Constitution adopts the principle of election of Justices of the Peace and Juries.

Unfortunately there is, as yet, no uniformity in the administration of Local Government, and the systems enforced at present in the different parts of the country

vary considerably.

1. Rural Self-government.

(a) In Former German provinces.

The rural commune in these provinces (Posnania, Pomerania, Silesia) is usually composed of one village only, with a population of about 350. The Prussian system of election based on a property census has been abolished by the Polish administration, and there has been substituted a direct, general and secret ballot. In the smallest communes local affairs are settled by a Communal Assembly, composed of all members of the commune; the larger ones are governed by an elected Communal Council as their legislative organ,

and by an elected Sheriff (soltys) as their executive. The Sheriff with two aldermen executes the decisions of the Council and those of the State authorities. Organised separately are the manorial districts—a remainder of the feudal system.

(b) In Former Austrian provinces.

Here the manorial districts have already been incorporated in the adjacent rural communes. These are considerably larger and have an average population of 1,000. Here also a three-class election system based on a property census was in force prior to the establishment of Polish administration. The system was not abolished here, but a fourth class was added composed of citizens hitherto deprived of the right to vote, so that the property census lost much of its importance as regards local government franchise. One Sheriff (here called "wojt"), elected by the Council, performs the executive duties of the Commune.

(c) In Former Russian provinces.

The organisation of rural authorities is more complicated here. The communes are very large, averaging 7,000 inhabit-Prior to the war the right to vote was conditioned upon property qualifications and the legislative activities were performed by the entire electoral body (direct government). The property census has been abolished by Polish legislation, but the system of direct government is still in force. It is, however, amended in so far that Communal Councils are elected by the electoral assembly and introduce legislation to the latter. An elected Sheriff, supported by a clerical staff, performs the executive duties. Particular villages forming part of the Commune are governed by assemblies of their own members and by an Under-Sheriff (softys), whose activities are controlled by the Sheriff (wojt). The authority of Communal organs in the former Russian provinces is very wide as compared with those in other parts of the country. The activities of village councils are confined almost exclusively to the assessment of rates amongst their members. In the Eastern provinces, i.e., in the counties of Wilno, Nowogródek, Polesie and Wolhynia, the communes are still larger than those in Congress Poland, but their organisation is similar. There are, however, no general assemblies and their place is taken by elected Communal Councils.

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A new Statute regulating the activities and organisations of rural communes is being discussed by the Seym. It is proposed to leave the size of the communes unaltered, so that they will remain different in the various provinces. The Communal authorities are to consist of a Council composed of about fifteen members elected by direct, secret and proportional ballot, and an Executive nominated by the Council composed of a Sheriff and Aldermen. The authority of Sheriff (wójt) is to be fairly wide, especially as regards the execution of administrative measures. More important decisions of the Council, such as their Budget and the election of the Sheriff, are to be subject to the approval of the District Department.

Even to-day a wide field of activities is covered by the authority of the Communes. About one half of their Budget is earmarked for purposes of elementary education. The erection of new school buildings is being proceeded with, especially in the former Russian provinces. The construction and maintenance of roads also falls within the sphere of Communal activities. Furthermore, fire brigades are maintained, medical and first-aid stations are organised, and the wealthier communes maintain their own farms, etc.

2. Urban Self-government.

The organisation of urban boroughs is more uniform. All boroughs are governed by Borough Councils elected nearly everywhere by direct, general and proportional ballot (with the exception of Galicia and Silesia, where curial elections are still in force). Executive duties are performed by Burgomasters, acting either alone or in conjunction with Aldermen; these are usually elected by the Councils, save in the border provinces, where they are still nominated. In the former Prussian territories, so-called "expert mayors" are elected for a double term of office. Towns with less than 20,000 inhabitants are subject to the authorities of the District Departments; larger boroughs are under the direct jurisdiction of the counties, with the exception of the Metropolis, which is subject to the jurisdiction of the Ministry of the Interior.

A new project of Borough Government will shortly come before the Seym.

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Town boroughs maintain their streets, markets, lighting and other establishments, including schools and ambulances. Larger towns have their own or concessioned tramways, power stations, gas works, hospitals and other institutions. Great progress has been made lately in the development of these public services in the former Russian provinces.

3. District Self-government.

(a) In Former German provinces.

Local Government in districts is far from being uniform. The counties of Posnania and Pomerania are divided into small districts with an average population of 40,000. The legislative activities are performed by District Councils ("sejmiki powiatowe") formerly elected on the basis of a property census, now by universal and proportional ballot. District Councils elect District Departments as their executive authority. Both the Council and the Department are presided over by a District Alderman (starosta) nominated by the Ministry of the Interior, and performing a series of purely administrative functions. His deputies are elected by the Councils from amongst the inhabitants of the District.

The District Self-Government is organised efficiently in these provinces. Many districts have electric installations throughout, and the roads are maintained in excellent condition. Rates are based on fixed supplements to State taxes, and also on certain independent district contributions.

(b) In Former Russian provinces.

A similar organisation has been introduced in this part of Poland, where, prior to the war, Borough or District Self-Government was unknown. The legislative powers are vested in District Councils, and the Executive in District Departments headed by a Starosta appointed by the Ministry. The difference between this and the organisation in the former German provinces is in the method of the election of the Council. Here, the Council is composed of two representatives of each rural commune and of from two to five representatives of Borough Councils. The deputies of the District Alderman are not elected by the Councils. An almost identical system of government is in force in the border provinces, where, however, the supervision of higher Local Government authorities is considerably closer.

(c) In Former Austrian provinces.

Here the old Austrian legislation is still in force. Elections are based on the property census; no new elections have taken place here since 1918. A district has an average of

100,000 inhabitants.

With the exception of this part of the country, the activities of district authorities of local government have developed considerably since the establishment of Polish administration, especially as regards the maintenance of roads and sanitary arrangements, and also as regards education, social welfare and cultivation of the soil. A large number of District Councils maintain their own model farms, agricultural schools, village clubs, travelling libraries, etc. A new project of District government was proposed recently by the Government; this project advocates the introduction of local government institutions of the former Congress Kingdom into the other parts of the country.

4. Local Government in the Counties.

With the exception of Silesia, the local government of the highest administrative units, i.e., the counties, has not been organised so far. The county of Silesia enjoys almost complete autonomy by virtue of a special Statute, which also provides that the Statute cannot be altered except with the consent of the Silesian Seym. Thus the union of Upper Silesia with the Republic is conditional on the adoption of Polish Statutes by the Seym of Silesia. The latter is elected by a general and proportional ballot and is presided over by its own Marshal. The Silesian Seym elects its own executive. The Central Government is represented by a County Governor (wojewoda) appointed direct by the President of the Republic.

A Statute foresees the establishment of self-government in the counties of Lwów, Stanisławów and Tarnopol; each of these is to have a Seym composed of two chambers, elected by the Polish and Ruthenian population of the county respectively. Each of these chambers is to decide on matters of national culture, education, etc., whereas matters of general importance are to be dealt with by the two chambers acting conjointly. This Statute has so far not been executed. At present, each county is headed by an appointed County Governor (wojewoda), and matters affecting the local government of the counties are referred to, and those of Krakow concentrated

in the Temporary Local-Government Department with

Headquarters in Lwow.

In the provinces of Posnania and Pomerania special Councils acting in co-operation with the County Governor supervise the administration of Local Government activities. These Councils are composed of representatives of each of the District Councils, which cover their expenditure. The County Councils maintain institutions of public utility the maintenance of which is too expensive for a separate District, such as lunatic asylums and other costly establishments.

The remaining counties have, as yet, no autonomous organisation. A declaration of the Polish Parliament provides its establishment in the county of Wilno. On the other hand, the administrative organisation of the counties is complete. Each administrative office has its Local Government Department, which will supervise the activities of local government bodies, sanction their Budgets and their more important

decisions.

A Local Government Department exists at the Ministry of Home Affairs. In addition, the local government authorities transact a vast amount of business with other Ministries, such as the Ministry of Finance, of Public Works, Education, Agriculture and also with the Central Bureau of Statistics and the Office of Public Health. Semi-official organisations like the General Direction of Insurances co-operate with the local authorities. In addition many unofficial organisations have been established, such as the *Union of Polish Towns* and many others.

5. Other autonomous organisations.

The existing special autonomous bodies form only part of the programme set out in the Constitution. As regards Labour, sich wards have been established throughout the country for the purpose of giving medical and financial aid to contributing workmen. The Wards form self-governing bodies, administered by representatives of the insured contributors and of their employees. The organisation of other self-governing bodies of workmen is also proposed.

Agricultural self-government is represented by Chambers of Agriculture, set up in connection with the counties. Their activities in the counties of Posnania and Pomerania are based on the old German legislation in this respect. In other provinces Chambers of Commerce and of Industry are being

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organised; these exist already in Kraków and Lwow. The old Artisans' Guilds maintain their autonomous existence throughout the country. A Supreme Economic Council of

the Republic is now being organised.

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Educational matters are administered by an autonomous organisation, which has already done much towards the development of educational activities, especially in the former Russian provinces, where these were always neglected. All schools, commune and district, have their own autonomous Educational Councils, composed of representatives of the teaching staff and of the communal or district authorities. These Councils do not possess any independent sources of income, but they administer the Educational Budgets of the Communes and also the subsidies granted by District Councils for the purpose of education. It is proposed to form a Supreme Board of Education for the entre Republic; the Board would function as an advisory body to the Ministry of Education. (The proposed "Board of Education" has its historical traditions: a similar body was first established at the end of the 18th century, during the reign of King Stanislas August; it became the first Ministry of Education in Europe.)

6. MUNICIPAL ORGANISATION OF POLISH CITIES.

Prior to the war, municipal autonomy was enjoyed by the Poles only in the former Austrian provinces, *i.e.*, in Galicia. It is true that a form of local government existed also in Posnania, Pomerania and Silesia, but the system of elections to municipal councils was such that the German minority of tradesmen and industrialists was able to secure a predominant influence over the bulk of the population. Municipal elections in the former German provinces were based on a property census, and the Polish population—mostly workmen—were often without representatives in local government organisations.

The largest province of Poland, i.e., the former Congress Kingdom, including the capital, Warsaw, was, until 1916, the only part of Europe where local government was unknown. The administration of cities formed part of the general State administration. The inhabitants had no influence whatever

in the conduct of municipal affairs.

The principal positions in the administration of citics were occupied by Russians, who only exceptionally fulfilled their duties in accordance with the interests of the inhabitants. This state of affairs fully explains the unsatisfactory conditions prevailing in towns of the former Congress Kingdom. Pavements and lighting were neglected; hospitals, asylums and schools were inadequate to meet the requirements of the population.

Small towns were particularly affected. One half of the number of towns with a population of less than 50,000 inhabitants had no lighting, and only four of them could boast of school buildings. Out of 105 towns in the former Congress Kingdom only four declared their pavements to be in good conditions whereas 67 described the state of their streets as disastrous. In addition, the majority of towns were not

canalised and water had to be drawn from wells.

Warsaw alone in the former Congress Kingdom possessed a system of drains and sewers. Generally speaking, Warsaw enjoyed considerably better treatment than other towns in the Russian provinces. This was due to the efforts of Polish officials, who were able to retain their positions even during a period of intense Russification.

A tradition of municipal government existed in Warsaw since the times of the Polish administration in the Grand Duchy of Warsaw (1807–1831), and was maintained during the administration of Marquess Wielopolski, who succeeded in establishing an elected municipal council. This, however, ceased to exist after the national insurrection in 1863.

The tendencies towards municipal autonomy in the former Russian provinces were extremely strong and outspoken. The Russian Government was very liberal in promises of local government for Poland, but these were not fulfilled until 1915, when a very restricted municipal autonomy was granted to the Polish provinces of Russia—on the eve of the Russian retreat from the Congress Kingdom.

With the exit of the Russian armies, the inhabitants took the government of their cities into their own hands. Without waiting for the sanction of the German occupation authorities which succeeded the Russians, civic committees were formed which occupied the town halls and performed the duties of municipal bodies. In Warsaw, the civic committee not only occupied the municipal offices, but also created a civic guard which took the place of the evacuated Russian police, and established a provisional administration of justice. These organisations formed the nucleus of the future State police and courts of justice. All these reforms were often conducted in spite of the prohibitions of the German occupation authorities. Notwithstanding these difficulties, however, the population was determined to retain the municipal organisation in their own hands.

The civic committees were succeeded in 1916 by elected borough councils, which existed until 1919. In that year, i.e., already after the re-establishment of Polish Independence, a general reform of local government was introduced, and the present county and borough councils are elected on the basis of a general, secret and proportional ballot.

It is characteristic of the Polish municipal administration that, in spite of enormous difficulties, the improvement of the grave hygienic conditions prevalent in the cities of the former Congress Kingdom was immediately taken in hand. The town of Kalisz, which was barbarously destroyed on the first day of the war, was rebuilt with an astonishing rapidity. Special committees were constituted spontaneously to deal with the various aspects of municipal life.

The reformatory activities of the newly-established municipal authorities were often handicapped by lack of funds. The situation was relieved by an Act of the Constituent Diet allowing the imposition of such municipal rates and taxes as were sufficient for the execution of their development schemes.

To increase their revenue, municipal authorities began to develop their various profit-making establishments, such as gasworks, tramways, slaughter-houses, etc. It must be added that these establishments do not exhaust the list of municipal investments. There are in Poland under municipal administration such institutions as brickworks, engineering works producing material for pavements and pipes for sewers and drains, printing works and even soap factories.

Three cities in the former Austrian provinces (Lwów, Kraków and Tarnów) have, since the war, purchased a colliery in Jaworzno and a stone quarry in Miękinia, so as to ensure

the supply of material for their pavements.

The war necessity of securing supplies of food for the population caused the establishment of special food committees in connection with each municipal council. These organisations, set up during the war, have remained since and are at present purely commercial undertakings of the various towns where they exist. By competing successfully with private tradesmen they have become important sources of municipal revenue.

The tendency for profitable investments on the part of municipalities is shown by the attempts to bring within the sphere of municipal administration such undertakings which have hitherto been exploited by private concerns. Thus, in Warsaw tramways have been placed under the administration of the Warsaw County Council in 1919; since that date the average number of passengers carried has increased by 30 per cent. On the average 730,000 passengers, i.e., 75 per cent. of the population of the capital, are being carried daily on the municipal tramways.

The city of Poznań, unable to take over the entire administration of tramways, purchased 75 per cent. of shares in the company exploiting them. Łódź obtained 33 per cent. of shares in the Łódź Tramway Company. The gasworks of Warsaw, which were exploited by a German concern, liquidated by virtue of the Treaty of Versailles, were also taken over by

the municipality.

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Four Polish cities, viz., Częstochowa, Piotrkòw, Radom and Lublin, who have successfully negotiated municipal loans with the Ullen Company of New York, are proceeding with the construction of water and sewer systems. Similar loans are being negotiated by the City of Dąbrowa, in the coal basin, and by Tomaszów. Furthermore, public baths, hitherto very rare in Polish cities, have now been erected in almost every town. Extensive municipal activities are seen even in towns situated in the extreme eastern provinces of the Republic.

The town of Łuck in Volhynia erected in 1924 four covered market places for the sale of comestibles. A chemical and bacteriological laboratory has also been established there for the purpose of examining foodstuffs and water. The institution of a municipal savings bank is being proceeded with.

The field of activities of Polish municipalities, as defined by the corresponding Act of Parliament, is very vast and manifold. It includes the distribution of charities and the maintenance of the poor and homeless. Efforts are being made to develop hospitals, and especially maternity wards and children's institutes. The small township of Brześć on the Bug has an organisation which can serve as model to other cities.

The work of education required immense efforts on the part of municipalities. It is sufficient to mention that in the former Congress Kingdom there were no school buildings of any description. The industrial city of £\d\d\d\d\d\d\d\epsilon\$ was the first to introduce compulsory education of all children attaining school age. In 1923, 56,769 children were educated in municipal schools, and the total number of children of school age in that year was 71,944. Others were absorbed by private schools and colleges. At present, elementary schools equal to the needs of the population are established throughout the country. In larger cities, grammar schools and colleges are maintained by the municipalities.

Many municipal councils, realising the importance of a rational municipal land policy, introduced schemes for the systematic purchase of landed property. In this respect, municipal authorities are aided by State legislation which provides the cession of land subject to the Agrarian Reform to municipalities, provided such land is situated within the administrative area of the city in question. These concessions were obtained through the untiring efforts and representations

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of the Union of Polish Cities, which exists since 1917 and forms

part of the International Municipal Union.

The Statute of April 25, 1925, dealing with the housing problem, authorised the municipalities concerned to purchase building sites and plots of land for the purpose of constructing new houses which should partly relieve the grave housing situation. A special tax on land on which no buildings are being erected is to be imposed and forms a source of revenue for the execution of the scheme described.

It is to be hoped that this enactment will greatly relieve the shortage of dwellings by facilitating the construction of habitable houses. The possibility of exercising municipal control over the character of houses built is also very important, and will, no doubt result in the construction of buildings in garden city style, instead of their present barrack-like

appearance.

What has been done in this direction by a private concern in Katowice (Silesia) can easily be achieved by the municipalities throughout the country. By developing their own economic welfare the cities will be instrumental in promoting

economic prosperity for the entire country.

A great deal has already been done in this connection. Thus, the famous Eastern Fair is being organised annually in Lwow, and Poznań has its own annual fair since 1922. The last Poznań Fair was organised jointly with an exhibition of the work, activities and development of Polish cities. The exhibition forms a detailed review of the important work done to ameliorate the conditions of the inhabitants of Polish cities and towns.

II THE HISTORY OF POLAND

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CONCISE OUTLINE OF THE HISTORY OF POLAND.

On the plain between the Baltic and the Carpathian Mountains, betwen the Rivers Elbe, Bug and San, from the Slavonic race sprang the Polish people. Their original history is obscure; they were ruled by a patriarchal system, and their chief occupations were hunting and agriculture.

The first historical Polish ruler, Mieszko (960-992), married a Czech Princess Dubrawka, and accepted the Christian faith in 969, thereby bringing the country within the sphere of Western European civilisation. His cautious policy saved Poland from a Germanic conquest. His inheritance was divided between his sons. The eldest, Boleslas the Brave (992-1025), expelled his brothers and ruled over their lands. Ambitious of uniting all Slavs under his sceptre, Boleslas fought the Germans and annexed Milsko, Moravia, Łużyce and Silesia. An independent archbishopric was established in Gniezno, and Boleslas himself was able to influence the rulers of the Ruthenians. Having succeeded in attaining absolute independence from Germany, he ascended the Polish throne in 1024. His son, Mieszko II. (1025-1034), lost the greater part of his inheritance; internal struggles begaü after his death, paganism was re-introduced. The German Emperor placed on the Polish throne a son of Mieszko II. Casimir the Restorer (1040-1058), who succeeded in pacifying the country and in re-establishing Christianity. His son, Boleslas II. (1058-1080), recovered the province of Red Ruthenia, lost by Mieszko II. Suspecting the Bishop of Kraków, Stanislas Szczepanowski of treason, Boleslas slew him and fled from the country. After his death in exile, Ladislas Herman (1080-1102) entrusted the government to his adviser, Sieciech, who provoked a civil war in the country.

The heir of Ladislas, *Boleslas III.*, the Wry-Mouthed (1102-1138), annexed Pomerania and conquered the Germans; his inheritance was divided amongst his sons, and the heir, Ladislas, received Kraków, the capital of the country. *Ladislas II.* (1138-1146) endeavoured to unite the country thus divided; beaten by his brothers, he sought aid from the Germans, who compelled *Boleslas IV.* (1146-1173) to cede Silesia, which has since ceased to be a part of Poland. Polish

influence in Pomerania and Ruthenia waned and Mieszko III. (1173-1177) further weakened the country by his disputes

with the nobles of the land.

The youngest son of Boleslas the Wry-Mouthed, Casimir II. the Just (1177-1194), succeeded in uniting the greater part of the country; with the aid of the Bishops he restored peace throughout the country. His successors, however, plunged into a series of civil wars and struggles with the Tartars, Lithuanians and Prussians. The Prince of Mazowsze, Conrad, introduced into Poland the Prussian Order of Crusaders (1228), who treacherously occupied Pomerania and became the most

bitter enemies of Poland.

After a short rule of the Czech King Waclaw II. (1291-1305). the brave King Ladislas Lokietek (1306-1333) conquered the Crusaders in the battle of Plowce (1331) and united the greater part of the Polish provinces under his sceptre. During the peaceful rule of his son Casimir the Great (1333-1370) Poland regained her position as a European Power. Casimir published the first Code of Laws (1347), established the University of Kraków (1364), recovered Red Ruthenia (1341) and developed trade and education. He was followed by the Hungarian King Louis (1370-1384); and then by the Queen Hedwiga, who married the Lithuanian Prince Jagello and succeeded in establishing Christianity in Lithuania and bringing about a union between the two countries. Ladislas Jagello (1386-1434) defeated the Crusaders in the famous battle of Grunwald (1410). His son, Ladislas (1434-1444), who was also elected King of Hungary, was killed by the Turks in the battle of Warna. The second son of Jagello, Casimir (1447-1492), recovered Pomerania and Danzig (1466) after a prolonged struggle with the Crusaders. The country developed immensely during the reigns of his sons, and especially during that of Sigismund I. (1506-1546). The Crusaders were finally conquered and the Master of the Order was compelled to pay homage to Sigismund in 1525, whose son, Sigismund August (1548-1572), the last of the Jagello Dynasty, incorporated the Baltic provinces of Courland and Livonia with Poland, and established a closer union with Lithuania (1569— Union of Lublin). His reign was marked by a very liberal policy of tolerance.

After the extinction of the Jagello Dynasty, the Polish Kings were elected by the nobles, who had already taken part, since the beginning of the 16th century, in the govern-

ment. The King-Elect had to take an oath in which he promised to fulfil the conditions on which he was elected. These conditions were known as the "pacta conventa."

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The first King thus elected was the French Prince Henry Valois (1574), who left the country after a very short reign, and was followed by Stephen Batory (1576-1586). Prince of Transylvania. Batory waged a successful war with Moscow and annexed a part of White Russia; he was a capable ruler; he combatted anarchy, and wisely supported Catholicism, he was the founder of the University of Wilno (1578). The next Elect was a Royal Prince of Sweden, Sigismund III. Vasa (1587-1632), whose policy of absolute Catholic predominance resulted in the Swedish wars as well as in numerous civil disturbances. By the Union of Brzesc of 1596 he united the Western and Eastern Churches. He fought Moscow with great success, but prevented his son Ladislas from accepting the Russian throne which was offered to him. His successor, Ladislas IV., concluded the wars with Moscow. Social and religious movements in the Ukraine provoked Cossack rebellions, whose leader, Bohdan Chmielnicki, with the aid of the Tartars, succeeded in ousting the Poles from the Ukraine. During the reign of King John Casimir (1648–1668) Poland lost all her territories beyond the Dnieper, and was at the same time overrun by Swedes headed by King Charles Gustavus, also by Moscovites or the Princes of Moscow, Tartars, and Prussians. The united efforts of the whole nation saved the country, but not without the loss of a great part of Poland's territories. The wars brought with them a general decline (or deterioration) of morals and education. During the reign of Michael Wisniowiecki (1669-1673) the Cossacks surrendered to the Turks, and thus provoked a new war between Turkey and Poland which resulted in the cession of Podolia to Turkey. These disasters were revenged by the future King of Poland, John Sobieski, who gained a great victory over the Turks in the battle of Chocim (1673). During his reign (1674-1696) the wars with the Turks were continued and ended with Sobieski's glorious victory of Vienna (1683). A treaty with Moscow was concluded.

In the meantime, the internal situation was grave. A period of civil wars ensued, and the state of the country was little short of anarchy. Augustus II., of the Saxon dynasty, continued to fight the Swedes in alliance with Moscow: but Charles XII. expelled him from Poland and established

Stanislas Leszczynski on the Polish throne. The latter fled under the pressure of Moscow and the throne reverted to Augustus II. Russian influence increased in the country and then complete anarchy raged throughout Poland, particularly during the reign of Augustus III. (1754-1763).

Under Russian influence Stanislas August Poniatowski was elected King of Poland. He was a man of exceedingly high intellect, but weak-minded and easily influenced by the Russian Empress Catherine II. A confederation against the Russian predominance was formed at Bar (1768-1772). Owing to internal difference the confederation soon collapsed without achieving its aim. In 1773 the first Partition of Poland took place, and the country was divided between Russia. Prussia and Austria.

Threatened by a total ruin of their political existence, the people recovered their national consciousness. The work of education began again, a Commission of National Education was established and introduced important reforms in the system of education. Democratic principles were advocated everywhere. A classical expression of these tendencies was the Constitution passed by the Polish Seym on May 3rd, 1791. which introduced a democratic form of government. Russia was naturally dissatisfied with these reforms, and she therefore, in league with the opposing nobility grouped in the Confederation of Targowica, attacked the country and after a victory brought about the second Partition of Poland between herself and Prussia (1793). The nation endeavoured to defend its political existence. The first Polish Insurrection headed by that gallant leader Thaddeus Kosciuszko, failed after a bitter struggle (1794). The third and last Partition of Poland followed. The provinces between the Rivers Bug and Niemen were ceded to Russia, those between the Bug and Pilica, to Austria, and the remaining country, including Warsaw, was occupied by Prussia.

The final Partition Act provided that the three Dividing Powers should never allow the re-establishment of Polish independence. True to this principle, the Governments of these Powers applied to Poland a policy of most severe restrictions, which were intended to weaken the nation both morally and physically. In the meantime, considerable groups of Polish emigrants had settled in France and hoped to enlist the support of the French Revolution for their cause. Polish Legions were formed under the command of that gallant general, Henry Dabrowski (1797), who intended them to be the nucleus of a future Polish army. Meanwhile the Legions fought as part of the Napoleonic armies in the firm faith that "It is not yet all over with Poland," and the victory of the Emperor Napoleon over Prussia and Russia (1806-1807) was followed by the constitution of the so-called Duchy of Warsaw, which was composed of provinces ceded to Prussia under the Partition Treaties. The Duchy was governed by a liberal Constitution and had its own army under the command of the Prince Joseph Poniatowski. The King of Saxony, Frederick Augustus, became the first Duke of Warsaw. The Polish army subsequently took part in Napoleonic campaigns against Spain and Austria. By virtue of the Schönbrunn Treaty (1809) a part of the Austrian territory, with Kraków, was incorporated in the Duchy. The downfall of Napoleon of 1812-1815 sealed the fate of the Duchy of Warsaw. Under the Treaty of Vienna (1815) the western provinces of the Duchy were ceded to Prussia and became known hence as the Duchy of Posen. Kraków became a Free City under the protectorate of the three Empires. The remaining territories were formed into the so-called Kingdom of Poland (Congress Kingdom) which was to be united with Russia for ever. Constitutional liberties were guaranteed to the kingdom thus created. The first King of Poland and Emperor of Russia, Alexander I., pursued a liberal policy, which was, however, gradually modified, and the Russian government of Poland then became one of reaction and persecution. In consequence of this policy, secret organisations were formed, and after the accession of the Tsar Nicholas I. to the Russian throne, a Polish insurrection broke out (November 29th, 1830). A National Government was formed under the Presidency of Prince Adam Czartoryski. The army. commanded by Joseph Chłopicki, fought the Russians with unprecedented bravery and endurance. Chłopicki, wounded in the battle of Grochow, had to relinquish the command and was succeeded by John Skrzynecki; the campaign was feebly conducted, and the decisive battle of Ostroleka was won by the Russians. This disaster led to the siege of Warsaw by the Russian General Paskiewicz, and, in spite of a gallant defence, the capital surrendered on September 7th, 1831; the army crossed the Prussian frontier and was there disarmed. Many thousands of Polish patriots emigrated to France, where they endeavoured to enlist the support of France for a further campaign against

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Russia. Their hopes were shattered. The arrival in Poland of emissaries from France (Zaliwski, Konarski) caused further persecutions. As a revenge for the insurrection of 1830 the Russian Government repealed the Constitution of the kingdom, closed down schools and universities in Warsaw and Wilno, repealed (1839) the Church Union and subjected dissenters to most severe persecutions. Attempts of other insurrections in 1846 and 1848 were frustrated by Prussia and Austria. The Free City of Kraków was incorporated into Austria (1846). New hopes arose when Alexander II. ascended the Russian throne (1856); but, instead of the liberal policy expected, a series of violent reprisals took place, which provoked the long-suffering people to a desperate effort to regain their independence. The insurrection which broke out on January 22nd, 1863, was quelled cruelly by the Russian Governors Berg and Murawiew. Throughout the Russian provinces, and especially in Lithuania, a regime of utter violence was enforced. The Polish language was banned, Poles employed in Government offices were dismissed, the Catholic Church was persecuted, and schools were ruthlessly Russified. At the same time the Prussian Government commenced a policy of Germanisation in the Polish provinces under their rule. Polish schools were closed down, the Colonisation Commission expropriated all Polish landowners, and the then Chancellor, Bismarck, introduced special laws placing the most severe restrictions on the Polish population of Prussia. Only under the Austrian rule constitutional liberties were granted, and the intellectual development was made possible by the Austrian Government, especially during the period of Austrian reforms of 1867.

The outbreak of the World War in 1914 placed the Polish question in the forefront. The Commander-in-Chief of the Russian Army, the Grand Duke Nicholas, in his Proclamation of August 14, 1914, announced his desire to unite all Polish territories as an autonomous entity under the Russian Imperial sceptre. The atrocities committed by Russian troops during their occupation of Galicia evoked serious doubts as to the sincerity of the Grand Duke's promises. In Galicia, a "Supreme National Committee" was formed, which advocated a rapprochement with the Central Powers; but in the Kingdom of Poland an anti-German policy was advocated by the National Committee presided over by Roman Dmowski. An independent armed campaign was initiated by Joseph Pilsudski,

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who, with a few thousand of his men, succeeded in crossing the frontier and entering the Kingdom of Poland; but the Prussian and Austrian Governments refused their sanction for the creation of an independent Polish Army under his command, and the so-called Polish Legions were placed under the command of the Central Powers. After the occupation of Warsaw by the German armies (August 5, 1915), a policy of requisitions and sequestrations was enforced by the authorities, which greatly impoverished the country. Owing to the continuous German failures on the Western Front, the Central Powers spared no efforts to secure Poland as their ally. On November 5, 1916, Poland was proclaimed an "independent State, with a dynastic monarchy and constitutional Government." The territory of the new State was limited to the former Russian provinces occupied by the Central Armies. At the same time, the Emperor Francis Joseph drafted a project for a complete autonomy for Galicia. In spite of these concessions, the position in the occupied territories did not improve. The German-Austrian recruiting efforts ended in a complete failure; the country demanded a true realisation of the Act of November 5. A Provisional State Council was created in January, 1917, but the Council represented a small part of public opinion. In the meantime, dissatisfaction and disappointment was growing in the ranks of the Polish Legions. In July, 1917, the Legions refused to take an oath of fidelity to the Central Powers, which led to the arrest of Joseph Pilsudski. By Letters Patent of the German Emperor. a Regency Council was created on September 12, 1917. The Council was composed of the Archbishop Alexander Kakowski. the Prince Zdzislaw Lubomirski, and Joseph Ostrowski. The first Cabinet Council was formed under the Presidency of John Kucharzewski. After the first Russian Revolution, the Republican Government acknowledged the independence of Poland, which was also confirmed by the Entente. The new revolution in Russia led to the conclusion of peace in Brest Litowsk on February 9, 1918, between the Germans and the Bolshevists. By virtue of the Treaty, the Polish provinces of Chelm and Podlasie were ceded to the newly-established Republic of the Ukraine. The Government of Kucharzewski was compelled to resign under the pressure of public opinion. Part of the Polish Legions, headed by General Joseph Haller. succeeded in entering Russia, where they were joined by Polish troops formed in the Russian Army by General Joseph

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Dowbor-Musnicki. The Governments of the Entente had, in the meantime, declared that, in accordance with Point 13 of the famous Wilson Declaration, the restoration of Polish Independence, with a free outlet to the sea, was a vital condition of peace negotiations with the Central Powers. The collapse of the latter led to the immediate resignation of the Regency Council, which passed their authority to Joseph Pilsudski (November 14, 1918). At the same time, struggles began for the re-capture of Lwow, which was at that time overrun by Ruthenians. Germans were expelled from Posnania. On February 9, 1919, the first Constituent Diet met at Warsaw. The Presidency of the Council and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs were entrusted to Ignace Paderewski. The Treaty of Versailles of June 28, 1919, had finally settled the question of Polish Independence. On March 18, 1921, the Treaty with Soviet Russia was signed at Riga; on February 3, 1923, the frontiers of Poland were finally delineated. The elections to the first regular Seym took place on November 5, 1922; the first President of the Republic was elected on December 9 of that year, and assassinated on the 16th. The present President, Stanislas Wojciechowski, was elected on December 20, 1922.

1. CHRONOLOGICAL HISTORY OF POLAND.

960 Mieszko I. of the Piast dynasty. The first historical King of Poland.

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- 966 Poland accepts Christianity.
- 968 The first Bishopric established in Poznań.
- 981 Poland loses the territory of Red Ruthenia.
- 992 Death of Mieszko I. Accession of King Boleslas I. the Brave (992-1025).
- 995 Boleslas I. conquers Pomerania.
- 1000 The foundation of the first Archbishopric at Gniezno frees Poland from ecclesiastical dependence on Germany.
- 1002 Sixteen-years' war with the German Empire begins.
- 1018 Treaty of Peace with Germany concluded at Bautzen by which Poland regains Polish provinces previously conquered by Germany.

 Boleslas I. reconquers Red Ruthenia.
- 1025 Coronation of Boleslas I. as
 King of Poland. Death of
 Boleslas I. the Brave.
 Accession of King Mieszko II. (1025-1034).
- 1034 Death of Mieszko II. Interregnum till 1038.
- 1038 Casimir the Restorer ascends the throne of Poland (1038-1058).
- 1058 Death of Casimir. Accession of Boleslas II. the Bold (1058-1079).

- 1069 Boleslas II. conquers Kiev.
 1079 Boleslas II. slays Bishop
 Stanislas of Kraków.
 Boleslas banished.
 - Accession of Ladislas Herman (1079-1102).
 - 1102 Death of Ladislas. Accession of Boleslas III. the Wry-mouthed (1102-1138).
 - Seven-years' war with Germany over Pomerania begins.
- 1109 Reconquest of Pomerania. 1138 Death of Boleslas III.
- 1180 Congress of Lenczyca limits monarchical power for the benefit of the clergy and higher nobility.
- 1182 War against Ruthenia (1182-1205). Poland establishes her sovereignty over Wolhynia and Red Ruthenia.
- 1226 Conrad of Masovia invites the Teutonic knights of the Cross to settle in Kujavia.
- 1241 First Mongol invasion of Poland.
- 1246 Benedict, a Polish Monk, accompanies Plano di Carpino into Asia and describes the voyage.
- 1267 Prince Boleslas the Pious gives privileges to the Jews, establishing their autonomy.
- 1300 Waclaw I. of Bohemia ascends the Polish throne (1300-1305).

THE HISTORY OF POLAND.

1305 Waclaw I. deposed by Ladislas I. the Short, who regains the crown of Poland (1306-1333).

1331 Ladislas I. defeats the Germans at Plowce.

1333 Death of Ladislas I. Accession of Casimir the Great (1333-1370).

1334 Casimir the Great confirms the privileges of the Jews and extends them over the whole Kingdom.

1335 Treaty of Wyszehrad by

which Casimir cedes Polish Silesia to Bohemia.

1340 Red Ruthenia incorporated with Poland.

1347 The Statute of Wislica establishes the first code of laws in Poland.

1364 The foundation of the University of Kraków.

1370 Death of Casimir the Great, the last King of the Piast dynasty. Louis d'Anjou, King of Hungary, becomes King of Poland (1370-1384).

1374 Pact of Koszyce limits the powers of the Crown for the benefit of the nobility.

1384 Hedvige d'Anjou, daughter of Louis, becomes Queen of Poland (1384-1386).

1386 Marriage of Hedvige with Ladislas II. Jagello, Grand Duke of Lithuania. Ladislas II. becomes King of Poland (1386-1434), thus effecting a dynastic union of Poland and Lithuania.

1387 Conversion of Lithuania to Christianity.

1399 Death of Queen Hedvige.

1400 Reorganisation of the University of Kraków.

1410 Ladislas Jagello inflicts a crushing defeat on the Teutonic knights Grunwald.

1413 Union of Horodlo, by which certain privileges of Polish nobility are granted to the nobility of Lithuania.

1415 Dlugosz (Longinus), Polish historian, born (1415-1480)

1422 The privilege of Czerwinsk enlarges the rights of nobility and proclaims habeas corpus : Neminem captivabimus. Nemini bona confiscabimus.

1434 Death of Ladislas II. Jagello. Accession of his son Ladislas III. (1434-

1444).

1435 Veit Stos, Polish sculptor. born (1435-1533).

1440 Ladislas III., King of Poland, elected King of Hungary.

1441 The Russian Orthodox Church granted equal rights with the Church of Rome,

1444 Death of Ladislas III. in the battle of Varna (against the Turks).

1447 Accession of Casimir IV. Jagellon (1447-1492).

Vistula proclaimed. War against the Teutonic Order declared (1454-1466).

1454 The Statute of Nieszawa establishes constitutional monarchy in Poland.

1466 Treaty of Torun by which Poland regains West

- Prussia, Pomerania and Ermeland. Danzig reincorporated with Poland. East Prussia becomes a fief of Poland.
- 1471 Ladislas Jagellon elected King of Bohemia.

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- 1473 Nicolas Copernicus, the astronomer, born (1473-1543).
- 1475 First books printed in Kraków.
- 1490 Ladislas Jagellon elected King of Hungary.
- 1492 Death of Casimir IV.
 Accession of Jan I. Olbracht.
- 1493 Convocation of the first Polish Parliament.
- 1499 Wars with Moscow begin (1499-1537).
- The Crown reverts to his brother Alexander I. (1501-1506).
- 1505 The new constitution
 "Nihil Novi" voted by
 Parliament at Radom
 establishes the ascendancy of Parliament over
 the Crown.
- 1506 Death of Alexander I. Succeeded by his brother Sigismund I. the Old.
- 1518 Beginnings of Reformation in Poland.
- 1525 Albert I. of Brandenburg renders homage to the King of Poland.
- 1526 Louis Jagellon, King of Hungary and Bohemia, killed in the battle of Mohacs (against the Turks).

- 1528 Monetary union of Poland, Lithuania and Prussia
- 1543 Copernicus publishes his work "De revolutionibus orbium coelestium."
- 1548 Death of Sigismund I. His son Sigismund II. August becomes King of Poland (1548-1572).
- 1552 Episcopal jurisdiction over the laity abolished.
- 1561 Courland, Livonia and Estonia voluntarily unite with Poland.
- 1565 The introduction of the Order of Jesuits in Poland.
- 1569 Union of Lublin definitely unites Poland and Lithuania into one State.
- 1572 Death of Sigismund II
 August and end of the
 Jagellon dynasty. Interregnum (1572-1573).
 Poland becomes an
 elective monarchy.
- 1573 Henry de Valois elected King of Poland (1573-1574). Act of religious and political tolerance proclaimed.
- 1574 Henry becomes King of France and vacates the throne of Poland.
- 1575 Stephen Batory elected King of Poland (1575-1586).
- 1577 War against Russia (1577-1582).
- 1578 High Courts of Justice established in Poland. University of Wilno founded.
- 1586 Death of Stephen Batory.
- 1587 Sigismund III Wasa of Sweden, elected King of Poland (1587-1632).

- 1595 Union of Brzesc between the Greek and Roman Catholic Churches of Poland. University of Zamosc founded.
- 1601 Wars with Sweden begin (1601-1629).
- 1605 Victory over Sweden at Kircholm.
- 1609 War with Russia.
- 1610 Occupation of Moscow (1610-1613).
- 1620 War with Turkey.
- 1632 Death of Sigismund III. His son Ladislas IV. unanimously elected King of Poland (1632–1648). War with Russia (1632– 1634).
- 1648 Death of Ladislas IV. Rebellion of the Cossacks. John II. Casimir elected King of Poland (1648-1668).
- 1651 Defeat of the Cossacks at Beresteczko.
- 1655-1657 Poland invaded by the Swedes, Russians, Prussians and Transylvanians
- 1657 Frederic William of Brandenburg ceases to be vassal of Poland.
- 1658 Poland regains the Ukraine by the Convention of Hadziacz.
- 1000 Peace Treaty of Oliva between Poland and Sweden. The first Polish newspaper, The Polish Mercury,
- 1661 Foundation of the University of Lwów.
- 1666 War with Turkey.

founded.

- 1667 Peace with Russia concluded at Andruszow.
 Poland cedes the Trans-Dnieper provinces.
- 1668 John II. Casimir abdicates.
- 1669 Michael Korybut Wisniowiecki elected King of Poland (1669-1673).
- 1671 War with Turkey.
- 1673 John Sobieski inflicts crushing defeat on the Turks at Chocim. Death of King Michael Korybut.
- 1674 John III. Sobieski elected King of Poland (1674-1696).
- 1676 The Ukraine passes under Russian domination.
- 1683 King John III. Sobieski defeats the Turks at Vienna and saves the capital of Austria.
- 1686 Kiev ceded to Russia.
- 1096 Death of King John III.
- 1697 August II. of Saxony elected King of Poland (1697-1704).
- 1704 Stanislas I. Leszczynski elected King of Poland (1704-1709).
- 1709 August II. of Saxony again ascends the throne of Poland.
- 1717 Reduction of the Polish Army under the pressure of Russia.
- 1732 Treaty of Berlin between Russia, Prussia and Austria against Poland.
- 1733 Death of August II.
- 1735 August III. of Saxony elected King of Poland (1735-1763)

1763 Death of August III.

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- 1764 Stanislas August Poniatowski elected King of Poland (1764-1795).
- 1767 Polish bishops and senators imprisoned and deported into Russia.
- 1768 Confederation of Bar unites all patriots in defence of the independence of Poland (war with Russia, 1768-1772).
- 1772 First partition of Poland.
- 1773 Establishment of a Board of Education.
- 1788 Great Parliament assembles (1788-1792).
- 1791 Constitution of the 3rd of
 Mai. Reform of Government, equality of
 rights granted to
 burghers and peasants.
 Abolition of the "liberum
 veto," suppression of elective monarchy.
- 1792 War against Russia declared. Prince Joseph Poniatowski appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Polish Army.
- 1793 Second partition of Poland.
- 1794 The Insurrection of Kosciuszko.
- 1795 Third partition of Poland.
- 1797 First Polish Legions under Generals Dabrowski and Kniaziewicz rally to Napoleon Bonaparte.
- 1798 Adam Mickiewicz born (1798-1855).
- 1806 Insurrection in Polish provinces of Prussia.

- 1807 Treaty of Tilsit. Creation of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw as a constitutional state.
 - Frederic August of Saxony becomes Duke of Warsaw.
- 1808 Polish Legions take part in the campaign in Spain.
- 1809 The Duchy of Warsaw declares war on Austria Conquest of the Polish provinces of Austria.
- 1812 The Duchy raises an army of 80,000 men to support Napoleon's campaign against Russia.
- 1813 Prince Joseph Poniatowski appointed Marshal of France. His death in the Battle of Leipzig.
- 1815 Congress of Vienna. Creation of the kingdom of Poland under the Tsar of Russia as Polish King. Creation of the free Republic of Kraków. Constitution granted to the Kingdom of Poland.
- 1823 Persecution of Poles in Lithuania.
- 1828 Tsar Nicholas I. of Russia crowned King of Poland in Warsaw.
- 1830 November 29th.—National insurrection against Russia (1830–1831).
- 1831 Repressions against Poles in Germany begin.
- 1832 Abrogation of the Constitution in the Kingdom of Poland.
- 1839 Suppression of the Uniate Church in Lithuania and Ruthenia.

THE HISTORY OF POLAND.

- 1840 Abrogation of the Lithuanian Statute.
- 1841 The Council of State of the Kingdom of Poland abolished.
- 1847 The Russian penal code introduced in Poland.
- 1846 Insurrection of Kraków Austria annexes Kraków
- 1848 Insurrection in Poznań Lwów, Kraków. Polish Legions participate in the struggles for liberty in Italy, Hungary, Germany.
- 1854 The Crimean War. Polish Legions fight in the ranks of the Coalition against Russia.
- 1859 Austria grants first concessions to Poles in Galicia.
- 1863 National insurrection against Russia. Military convention between Russia and Prussia against Poland.
- 1864 Teaching of Polish prohibited.
- 1866 Poles win national liberties in Austria.
- 1867 Polish administration in the Kingdom suppressed.
- 1867 Teaching of Polish readmitted in Galician schools.
- 1869 Polish recognised as official language in Galicia.
- 1873 "Kulturkampf" begins in German Poland.
- 1874 Forcible conversions of Uniate Catholics to the Orthodox Church.

- 1876 Russification of the judicature in Poland.
- 1885 Mass expulsions of Poles from Prussian Poland.
- 1886 Bismarck creates the Prussian Colonisation Commission to deprive Poles of their land.
- 1894 Creation of the "Ostmarkenverein."
- 1898 Prussian Government grants 200 million marks to the Colonisation Commission to carry on expropriation of Poles.
- 1901 The Wrzesnia persecution of Polish schoolchildren.
- rgo2 Prussian Government grants another 150 million marks for the colonisation of Prussian Poland.
- 1904 Prussian Parliament passes extraordinary laws against Poles.
 - 905 Constitutional rights granted to Russia, extended to Poland.
- 1906 Polish deputies elected to the Duma. Prussian Government prohibits religious teaching in the Polish language. School strike of 100,000 Polish children.
- 1907 Renewed reaction in Russia. Concessions granted in 1905 revoked.
- rgo8 Prussian Government prohibits the use of Polish at public meetings. Further 275 million marks granted to the Colonisa-

tion Commission. Joseph Pilsudski starts the sharpshooters movement in Poland.

- 1912 The county of Chelm sepaarated from the Congress Kingdom and incorporated with Russia.
- The creation of the "Temporary Commission," representing all Polish secret military organisations in preparation for the struggle for Independence.
- 1914 Outbreak of the Great War.

August 6th.—A company of Polish Legions crosses the frontier of Russian Poland. 14th.—Proclamation of the Grand Duke Nicolas promising the union of all Polish territories under the Russian sceptre issued. 16th.
—Supreme National Committee formed at Kraków.

September 2nd.—Lwów taken by the Russians.

November 10th. — The Supreme National Committee transferred to Vienna. 15th.—First Brigade (of two regiments) of Polish Legions formed under Joseph Pilsudski. 26th.—Formation of a National Committee at Warsaw.

1915 April 4th.—Russian Government grants local government to Polish municipalities.

May 1st.—The great attack of the Austro-German armies begins at Gorlice.

June 22nd —Lwów recaptured by Austro-German armies. 24th.—
Formation of a Russo-Polish Committee at Petersburg.

August 1st.—Russian Government promises to grant full autonomy to Congress Poland. 5th.—Warsaw taken by the Germans. 1oth.—Polish courts of law established in Warsaw. 15th.—Joseph Pilsudski arrives in Warsaw.

September 10th.—Polish law courts suppressed by German authorities of occupation.

November 15th.—Polish University and Polytechnic opened at Warsaw.

1916 February 18th. — Polish Board of Education in Warsaw suppressed by the Germans.

June 24th.—Inauguration of the Warsaw Town Council.

September 26th.—Joseph Pilsudski resigns his command in the Polish Legions. Mass resignations of Polish officers.

November 5th.— The Emperors of Austria and Germany proclaim the independence of Poland, 9th.—The Austro-German authorities of occupation

issue proclamation calling up recruits for a Polish army to fight under German command. Proclamation opposed by the Poles. 12th .- Popular demonstrations in Warsaw for the formation of Polish Government. 16th.—Death of Henryk Sienkiewicz (author of " Quo Vadis ") at Vevey, Switzerland. 26th.—The Austro-German occupation authorities promulgate Statute concerning the formation of a Polish Council of State.

December 1st.—Polish Legions enter Warsaw.

1917 January 22nd.—President Wilson's message to Congress laying down the principles of a free, independent and united Poland.

March 17th.—Russian Soviets recognise the independence of Poland.

June 5th.—French Government issues decree concerning the formation of a Polish army in France. 22nd.—Warsaw University and Polytechnic superseded by the Germans.

July 2nd. — Joseph Pilsudski resigns from the Council of State. 9th. — Polish troops refuse to take oath of allegiance to the Austrian and German Emperors. I2th. — Polish legionaries interned at Szczypiorna.

22nd.—Joseph Pilsudski arrested by the Germans and imprisoned in Magdeburg.

August 3rd.—Polish Congress assembles at Moscow. 25th.—Polish Council of State resigns.

September 1st.—Polish law courts re-established by the occupying Powers.

12th.—The Emperors of Austria and Germany issue proclamation establishing the Council of Regency for the Kingdom of Poland.

October 12th.—Recruiting for Polish Army begins in the United States. 15th.—Prince Z. Lubomirski, Archbishop Kakowski, J. Ostrowski appointed regents of Poland. 16th.—Dissolution of the Supreme National Committee in Kraków. 19th. — The Allied Governments officially recognise the Polish National Committee in Paris.

November 27th.—Jan Kucharzewski appointed Prime Minister of Poland by the Councilof Regency.

December 8th. — First Polish Cabinet formed by J. Kucharzewski. 20th.— Soviet Government request Central Powers to withdraw their troops from Poland.

1918 January 6th.—The Allied Governments issue declaration in favour of an independent and united Poland.

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February 11th.—The Kucharzewski Cabinet resigns. 16th. — General Haller's brigade breaks through the German line into Russia. 19th. —Minsk occupied by Polish troops in Russia.

March 7th. — General Haller's brigade joins the 2nd Polish Army Corps in Bessarabia.

April 4th.—Jan Steczkowski appointed Prime Minister.

May 6th. — General Haller's corps fought the Battle of Kaniow against the Germans.

June 3rd.—The Allied Governments issue Versailles declaration on the question of Polish independence.

October 6th.—Polish National Committee in Paris appoints General Haller Commander-in-Chief of the Polish Army in France.

October 31st. — Polish troops occupy Kraków.

November 1st. — Ukrainian troops attack Lwów and Przemyśl.

November4th.—Austrian Poland freed of Austrian roops, 7th.—Ignacy Daszynski forms popular Government at Lublin and proclaims Poland a Republic. 10th.—Joseph Pilsudski released from

the Magdeburg prison arrives in Warsaw. The Council of Regency dis-Polish military solved. organisation disarms German garrisons through-Polish territory. General Beseler, German Governor of Poland, escapes from Warsaw. 11th. -Joseph Pilsudski takes over military command of all Polish troops. 14th.— Joseph Pilsudski assumes supreme power. 15th .-Ignacy Daszynski charged to form first Government of the Independent Polish Re-16th.—Joseph public. notifies Pilsudski various Governments of Europe and America that the Independent Polish Republic came into being.

November 19th. — Daszynski, unable to form a Cabinet, resigns. J. Moracrewski forms a temporary popular Government. 21st.—Lwów rescued by Polish troops. 28th.—The Government issues decree on the electoral system for the Constituent Assembly.

December 3rd.—The Provincial Diet at Poznań demands reunion of Polish provinces of Prussia with Poland. 5th.—Ukrainian offensive begins. 25th.—Ignacy Paderewski arrives at Danzig on the British cruiser Condor. 26th.—Ignacy Paderewski arrives at Poznań.

27th-31st. — Insurrection in Posnania, expulsion of German troops and authorities from the province.

derewski arrives in Warsaw. 4th.—American Food Commission arrives in Warsaw. 10th.—Polish troops defeat Ukrainians at Lwów. 15th.—The Moraczewski Cabinet resigns. Paderewski charged with the formation of a new Government. 25th.—Czechs attack Teshen Silesia. 26th.—General elections for the Constituent Assembly.

February 10th.—Constituent Assembly opens in Warsaw. Polish troops take Brześć Litewski. 12th,—Allied Mission arrives in Warsaw, 19th .--Polish troops occupy Bialystok. 27th.—French Government recognises independence and sovereignty of the Republic of Poland. Armistice with the Ukrainians con-27th.-Great cluded. Britain recognises independence and sovereignty of Poland. 28th.-Recognition by Italy.

March 1st.—Ukrainians renounce armistice. 7th.
—Polish troops occupy Pinsk. 12th.—Supreme Allied Council decides to despatch General Henrys to assist in the organisation of the Polish Army 13th.—Finland recognises independence of Poland.

15th.—Switzerland recognises independence of Poland. 18th.—Victorious offensive of Polish troops against the Ukrainians. 21st.—Belgium recognises independence of Poland. 27th.—Polish Constituent Assembly unanimously passes resolution declaring Poland to be in Alliance with the Allies.

April 2nd.—The French Ambassador to Poland presents his letters of credence to General Pilsudski, Chief of the Polish State. 15th.—First detachments of General Haller's army left France for Poland. 19th.-Polish troops occupy Wilno. Defeat of the Ukrainians near Lwów. 21st.-General Haller arrives in Warsaw. 22nd.—Joseph Pilsudski issues proclamation to inhabitants of Lithuania.

May 19th. — Polish troops occupy Boryslaw and Drohobycz.

June 1st. — Ukrainians propose an armistice. 7th.—Sweden and Spain recognise Poland. 27th.—The Supreme Allied Council authorizes Poland to occupy Eastern Galicia. 28th.—Paderewski and Dmowski sign Treaty of Versailles on behalf of Poland.

July 10th.—Polish Parliament passes the Agrarian Reforms Bill. 31st.— Polish Parliament ratifies Treaty of Versailles.

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August 18th. — Polish population in Upper Silesia rises against the Germans.

October 10th. — University of Wilno opened.

November 27th. — The Supreme Allied Council gives Poland a 25 years' mandate over Eastern Galicia. The Paderewski Cabinet resigns.

December 13th. — M. L. Skulski as Prime Minister forms new Government.

Polish troops evacuate Wilno 22nd.—Polish troops evacuate Wilno 22nd.—Polish and Latvian troops. 15th—
Conference of Baltic States and Poland opens at Helsingfors. 28th.—
Russia makes a proposal of peace to Poland.

Polish troops evacuate Wilno 22nd.—Polish Government sends note to Soviet Government proposing an armistice. 23rd.—Russian army forces passage across the Niemen. 24th.—M.

February 15th.—Sir R.
Tower appointed High
Commissioner at Danzig.
General Pilsudski, Chief
of the State, appointed
Marshal of Poland. 27th
—Poland proposes to
Soviet Russia to begin
peace negotiations at
Borysow.

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Warsaw 28th.—Allied
Mission und
Weygand
Warsaw 28th.—Ambassadors
question of Terman and the state of th

April 26th.—Polish offensive against Kiev begins.

May 6th.—Polish troops enter Kiev. 18th.—The Russian army begins an offensive on the Dvina.

June 2nd.—Polish counter-offensive begins on

the Beresina. 9th.—M. Skulski's Cabinet resigns. 10th. — Polish evacuate Kiev. 24th.—M. L. Grabski forms new Cabinet. 28th.—Polish troops retreat in Polesia.

July 3rd.—Great Russian offensive begins on the line of Polock-Molodeczno. 11th .- Plebiscite in Ermeland and Masuria. British Government addresses note to Soviet Russia on conditions of peace with Poland. 12th.—Peace Treaty between Russia and Lithuania signed. 15th.— Polish troops evacuate Wilno 22nd.—Polish Government sends note to Soviet Government Niemen. 24th. - M. Government Grabski's resigns. M. Witos forms Government. Coalition Mission under General Weygand arrives Warsaw 28th.—Council of Ambassadors decides the question of Teshen Silesia.

August 5th. — Polish Government proposes to Soviet Government the opening of peace negotiations. 7th.—Soviet Government agrees to open peace negotiations. Conference of Baltic States opens at Riga. 13th.—Polish Peace Delegation leaves for Minsk.

August 13th. — Great Polish counter-offensive begins (Battle of Warsaw). 17th.—Mlawa taken by Polish troops. 22nd.—Polish troops take Bialystok. 25th.—Soviet troops evacuate Wilno. 27th. — Polish Government demand the transfer of peace negotiations from Minsk to Riga.

September 2nd.—Soviet Government agree to continue peace negotiations at Riga. 14th.—Polish Peace Delegation leaves for Riga. 21st.—Peace negotiations begin at Riga. 25th.—Polish

troops take Grodno. 30th.—Polish troops take Baranowicze, Lida and Nowogrodek.

October 5th.—Armistice between Poland and Russia signed. 9th.—Polish troops under General Zeligowski occupy Wilno. 12th.—Preliminaries peace signed at Riga. 20th. - Soviet Government ratifies peace preliminaries. 22nd.—Polish Parliament ratifies peace preliminaries. 28th.-The Council of the League of Nations decide to hold in Central plebiscite Lithuania.

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Dec. 13, 1919-June 9, 1920 LEOPOLD SKULSKI. June 23-July 24, 1920 ... July 24, 1920-Sept. 19, 1921 Sept. 19, 1921-June 28,

1922 June 28, 1922-July 31, 1922 ARTUR SLIWINSKI. July 31, 1922-Dec. 16, 1922 Dec. 16, 1922-May 28, 1923

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III

PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF POLAND

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I. GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES.

1. Position, Area and Boundaries.

The territory of Poland extends from the Baltic Sea across the Continent of Europe almost as far as the Black Sea, and forms the borderland between Western and Eastern Europe. The northern extremity of Poland is formed by the bent of the River Dzwina below the town of Drissa and near Kraslaw in the latitude of 55° 51'; the southern—by a Cape in the eastern Carpathians near the mouth of the River Czeremosz in a latitude of 47° 43'. The extent of Polish territory from north to south is about 900 km., and there is a similar distance between the eastern and western extremities. The furthest western point lies near Pszczew in a longitude of 15° 47' and the furthest eastern—near the town of Dzisna on the River Dzwina, in a longitude of 28° 26'.

The southern frontier of Poland is formed by the Carpathians, which from times immemorial form the natural border of the country. In the north, Poland reaches the Baltic with a very narrow seaboard near the mouth of the Vistula. The western frontier is formed by the River Oder, and the eastern by the River Dzwina. The Republic of Poland, whose frontiers were established by virtue of the Treaty of Versailles and the Treaty of Riga, occupies a territory of 388,328 square km., exclusive of the Free City of Danzig with an area of 1,920 square km. The former Russian provinces had a territory of 262,025 square km.; the former Austrian, 80,089 square km.; and the former German, 46,214 square km. As regards its size, therefore, Poland occupies the sixth place in Europe after Russia, France, Spain, Germany and Sweden.

At the commencement of its history, Poland's territory ran along the whole lower stream of the Oder. Under Germanic pressure, and after long and bitter struggles, Poland was deprived of a part of her western territory, but maintained its frontiers since the beginning of the 15th century, and until her downfall in the 18th. In the east, after the dynastic alliance with Lithuania had taken place in 1386, Polish territory stretched beyond the Rivers Dzwina and Dnieper, and even occupied, for some time, the whole continent between the Baltic and the Pontian Seas. The furthest outpost in the east was Smolensk. At the height of its territorial develop-

ment, i.e., during the first half of the 17th century, Poland occupied a territory of 1,100,000 square km. Even after the Treaty of Andruszowo in 1668 and until the year 1772, the

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area of Poland was 751,000 square km.

The establishment of frontiers against Russia after the war of 1920 was difficult owing to the absence of strictly defined "spheres of interests" and of so-called "natural frontiers." With the development of modern warfare and means of communication, these have lost much of their importance. Nor is there any ethnographical delimitation; for, in the area of the Rivers Bug, Dzwina and Dnieper, the population is mixed, and, besides Poles, composed of Lithuanians, White Russians and Ruthenians (Ukrainians), living in larger or smaller communities; the adjoining county of Wilno is, however, inhabited in its entirety by 500,000 Poles, who are in addition scattered throughout the whole territory and even beyond the Rivers Dnieper and Dzwina. The frontier established by the Treaty of Riga brings within Polish territory the entire county of Wilno, and also such parts of the disputed area as are proportionate to the strength of Polish elements within this territory.

The total length of Polish frontiers is 4,302 km., of which 4,165 km. are land frontiers, and the remaining 137 km. represent the length of the Polish seaboard, including the borders of the Hel peninsula. The Russian frontier extends over 1,412·2 km. The document finally establishing this frontier was signed in Rowno on October 23rd, 1922. This agreement became the basis of the decision of the Council of Ambassadors of March 15th, 1923, recognising the eastern frontiers of Poland. The length of the western frontier with Germany is 892 km.; with the enclosed territory of Eastern Prussia, 468 km.; with Czechoslovakia, 720 km.; with Rumania,

280 km.; Lithuania, 440 km., and Latvia, 90 km.

2. Natural Surface.

Poland is a typically low-lying country. Nearly 80 per cent. of its surface lies below 200 m. In spite of this, however, the variety of geological formations within its boundaries is considerable. The character of the surface was shaped during the Ice Period.

Strata formed in the Third Period, and possibly earlier, appear only in the southern parts of Poland. The Scandinavian Iceberg which has covered the formations of former seas

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with loose accumulations of material has produced numerous elevations throughout the territory of Polish plains. Generally, six equatorial belts running from west to east and widening fan-like towards the east can be distinguished; they form a striking characteristic of the Polish territory. Commencing from the north, we have, thus, the Baltic plain elevated up to 50 m. above sea level; further southwards, the hilly Lake District running through Pomerania, East Prussia and Lithuania as far as Minsk, and raised from 100 to 300 m. above sea level; the low belt following includes the provinces of Poznań Mazowsze, Podlasie and Polesia. It is raised from 50 to 150 m. above sea level and is known by the geographical term of "Country of Great Valleys." The neighbouring belt of southern uplands is composed of the Silesian hills, the chain of the Krakow Jura, the Galician uplands, and the Lysogory, the Lublin hills and the Podolian plateau; here the elevations are considerable and give the impression of a semi-mountainous country. They reach generally from 200 to 600 m. above sea level. Further to the south, along the Upper Vistula, San and Dniester, runs the Carpathian plain at a level of from 150 to 250 m., and, finally, the Carpathian Mountain chain. These great mountains running arc-wise for a distance of 1,208 km. from the Danube near Bratislava to Orsova and the Iron Gates, form the southern frontier of Poland for 600 km. In the central part of the Carpathians is situated the powerful chain of the Tatry mountains, formed of crystalline rocks, mostly granites, and reaching a height of 2,663 m. The exquisite beauty of the landscape of the Tatry is a powerful attraction for great numbers of tourists and has given inspiration to many Polish poets and painters.

3. Climate.

The climatic conditions in Poland depend primarily on her position in the moderate zone of rainfalls near the Atlantic Ocean and the Baltic, and also on the general formation of the country, particularly the mountainous bulwark of the Carpathians. Western oceanic winds causing abundant rainfalls predominate in the country. The climate comprises a great range of temperatures. Thus, in Poznań the average yearly temperature is plus 8.0°, and the maximum difference between high and low temperatures—20.6°; whereas in Pińsk it is 6.8° and 24.4° respectively. In Warsaw, the centrally situated capital of the Republic, the mean temperature is

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plus 7.8°. The continental character of the climate appear mostly in the eastern provinces, but the predominant climate is oceanic.

4. Temperature and Precipitation.

		Air	Tempera	ture.		Precip	oitation	in mm.	
Observa- tories,	Year.	Aver-age.	Maximum.	Mini- mum.	Sun- shine hours per year.	Total in the year.	Maxi-	Date.	Number of rain) days
Warsaw Kraków Lwów Poznań Danzig Wilno Warsaw Kraków Lwów Poznań Danzig Wilno	1922	7·2 7·4 6·4 7·2 6·7 5·1 7·8 8·5 7·9 8·1 7·1 5·9	34 · 5 32 · 8 34 · 8 36 · † 35 · 7 31 · 0 32 · 6 32 · 6 32 · 4 35 · 2 33 · 4 31 · 0	-20·5 -22·3 -22·6 -20·3 -21·4 -26·2 -18·6 -19·1 -17·2 -17·3 -15·6 -21·0	1,801-5 1,491-4 1,409-5 1,866-3 1,392-8 1,474-1 1,294-4 1,769-2 1,356-3	438·3 747·3 807·6 646·6 544·8 792·1 522·4 804·3 5194 436·2 404·8 629·3	35.1 59.7 57.4 61.0 41.5 59.7 22.1 34.6 21.5 15.4 15.7 29.9	25.VII 25.VII 16.VII 17.VII 16.VII 26.VII 6.X 1.VIII 31.V 22.IV 18.IX 6.X	158 165 199 197 197 189 205 192 187 203 193 196

5. Rivers and Lakes.

The river system in Poland is very regular. Most rivers begin in the Carpathians, which abound both in streams and rains. There springs the main Polish river, Vistula, and the majority of her affluents. The following table gives an idea of the importance of Polish rivers and shows the division of the whole country according to River Basins. Thus—

Basin o	f R. Vistula			160,875 s	q. km.
**	R. Dnieper			65,063	**
- 60	R. Niemen			57,167	**
30	R. Oder			46,030	
	R. Dniester			41,165	
	R. Dzwina			11,044	**
49	R. Danube			5,290	8.0
**	small Baltic	rivers		1,694	**
				000	
	Total		P 8	388,328	10

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Most of these rivers flow into the Baltic, only the Dnieper, Dniester and the Danube into the Black Sea. Polish rivers are divided according to their character into mountain rivers, low country rivers and those of a mixed character. This last class is predominant, being represented by the Vistula, Oder and Dniester. The Vistula has her sources at 898 m. above sea level, her length is 1,067 km., and the slope 1.05 per cent. The volume of water carried by rivers of this class is very variable, as it depends on the melting of ice and on rainfalls in the mountains. Thus, under ordinary conditions the Vistula carries into the sea an average of 1,100 m.3 of water per second, but at flood time as much as 10,500 m.3 per second. The period of freezing on the Vistula lasts usually 108 days in a year (from the end of November until the middle of March), on the Oder-90 days, whereas the Niemen is frozen 128 days and the Dzwina 138. Owing to the constantly changing volume of water in these rivers, the regulation of their banks is very difficult. The artificial closing of the estuaries of the Rivers Vistula and Niemen for political reasons cause fresh difficulties for Polish river navigation. The exploitation of water power for technical purposes is in its initial stages.

The lakes in Poland, numbering about 4,000, are usually of Iceberg origin. The largest of them, Narocz, has a surface of 82 sq. km.; L. Przyswiaty, 41 sq. km.; L. Gopto, 36.5 sq. km.

Swamps and marshes are very common characteristics of the Polish landscape. The largest area of marshes (15,000 sq. km.) is situated in Polesie; it is adjacent to the great district of swamps which now forms part of Soviet Russia.

6. Flora and Fauna.

Flora.—The flora of Poland gives one more proof of the mixed geographical origin of the country. It is more akin to that of Germany than to that of Russia, several middle European species finding their north-east limits in the basin of the Memel or in the marshes of Lithuania. Coniferous forests, consisting mostly of pine (Pinus sylvestris) and birch, cover large tracts of the sandy soil of Central Foland in the north, extend across the Baltic lake-ridge southwards as far as the confluence of the Bug with the Narew, and join in the south-east the country of Polesie on the Pripet. The pine covers the Lysa Góra hills and the hills in the extreme southwest. The larch, which three centuries ago covered large

tracts, has almost entirely disappeared. Pinus cembra is only remembered, as also Taxus baccata. Picea obovata is cultivated.

Of deciduous trees, the common beech is the most typical; it extends from the Carpathians to 52° N., and reaches three degrees farther north in small groups or isolated specimens; the confluence of the Bug and the Narew may be regarded as The white beech (Carpinus Betulus), the its eastern limit. aspen, and two elms (Ulmus campestris, U. effusa) are found nearly everywhere. The lime appears in groves only in the eastern counties of Poland. It is the most popular tree with the Poles, as the birch with the Russians; judgment of old was pronounced under its shade, and all the folk-songs repeat its name. The oak-a highly venerated tree in Polandgrows in forests only on the most fertile land, but it is of common occurrence in conjunction with the beech, elm, &c. The maples (Acer platanoides and A. pseudoplatanus) are somewhat rare; the black alder (Alnus glutinosa) lines the banks of the rivers and canals, and the Alnus incana is common. The willow and orchard trees—apple, pear, plum and cherry are cultivated everywhere.

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Fauna.—The fauna of Poland belongs to the middle European zoological group; within the historical period it has lost such species as formerly gave it a sub-Arctic character. The reindeer now occurs only as a fossil; the sable, mentioned in the Annals, has migrated eastwards; the wild horse, described by the Annals as intermediate between the horse and the ass-probably similar to the Equus przewalski of central Asia—is reputed to have been met with in the 13th century in the basin of the Warta, and two centuries later in the forests of Lithuania. The wild goat, bison and elk have migrated to the Lithuanian forests. The lynx and beaver have disappeared. The brown-bear continues to haunt some of the forests, but is becoming rarer; the wild boar and the fox are most common throughout the great plain, as also the hare and several species of Arvicola. The mammals in Poland, however, do not exceed fifty species. The avi-fauna, which does not differ from that of central Europe, is represented by some one hundred and twenty species, among which the singing birds (Dentirostræ and Conirostræ) are the most numerous. On the whole, Poland lies to the westward of the most frequented route of the migratory birds, and is less visited by them than the steppes of south-west Russia. Numerous aquatic birds breed on the waters of the Baltic lake-region.

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AREA AND POPULATION.

The territory of the Polish Republic, with an area of 388,328 sq. km., was inhabited on September 30, 1921, by 27,192,674 inhabitants, according to the returns of the census for that day. This amounts to 70 inhabitants per square kilometer. The population is increasing rapidly, on January 1st, 1925, the same area was inhabited by 28,896,000 persons. Poland occupies the sixth place in Europe as regards population as well as territory. The is of following countries precede Poland as regards their populations:-Russia (about 100 million), Germany (58 million), Great Britain (47 million), France (39 million) and Italy (36 million). Other countries with populations smaller than that of Poland include Spain (20 million), Jugoslavia (11 million), Belgium (7 million), Sweden (6 million), Austria (6 million), etc.

The density of populations is so far only 70 per sq. km. and practically equals that of France (71 per sq. km.). Highly developed industrial countries have naturally a greater density of population. Thus, Belgium has 245 inhabitants per sq. km.; Holland, 200; Great Britain, 180; wild Germany, 127; Italy, 124; Czechoslovakia, 97; Switzerthe land, 93; Hungary, 85; and Austria, 78. On the other liski hand, in a great many European countries the density of population is considerably less, e.g., in Rumania, 57; Jugor in slavia, 47; Spain, 41; Lithuania, 35; Latvia, 24; lastly, Russia, whose population per sq. km. is also only 24.

The county of Silesia is more densely populated even than ome Belgium (265 per sq. km.). The county of Lodz, including the in its boundaries the industrial city of Łódź, shows a populathe tion of 118 per sq. km. The fertile agricultural districts are, ind, as a rule, densely populated, e.g.: the county of Kraków, 114 per sq. km.; of Lwów, 100; of Kielce, 98; and of by Tarnopol, 88. The eastern counties, however, approach the ing East European standards. Thus, the density of population ous. in Wolhynia is only 47.5, in Bialystok, 39.9; Nowogródek, 35'7; Wilno, 34 6; and Polesie, 20 8. ted

Urban population is concentrated in the central and south ous western provinces of the country. There are six large towns in Poland, viz.: Warsaw, 1,002,196 inhabitants (May 1st,

1925); Łódź, 452,079; Lwów, 219,388; Kraków, 181,700; Poznań, 169,793; and Wilno, 128,954.

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1. Nationality.

Poles form the greater part of the population of the Republic, i.e., over two-thirds or 69°2 per cent. The second largest group is formed by the Ruthenians or Ukrainians, who number 3,883,000 (14°0 per cent.). Next come the Jews (2,123,000, 7°8 per cent.), White Ruthenians (1,057,000, 3°9 per cent.), Germans (1,036,000, 3°8 per cent.), Lithuanians (72,000, 0°3 per cent.), and others (Russians, Czechs,

Tartars, etc.) numbering 210,000 or 0'9 per cent.

The distribution of this population in Poland has its special characteristics. Thus, Poles live in a homogeneous mass in the western counties, viz., Poznań, 83 per cent.; Pomerania, 80·4 per cent.; Silesia, 71·5 per cent.; and also those in the centre, such as Kraków, 93 per cent.; Kielce, 91·3 per cent.; Warsaw, 89·8 per cent.; Lublin, 85·4 per cent.; Łódź, 83·2 per cent. In the eastern counties they are mixed with the Ruthenians and White Ruthenians and do not always form the majority of the population: (Wilno, 57·4 per cent.; Lwów, 56·6 per cent.; Nowogródek, 54·0 per cent.; but in the Tarnopol county they form only 45·0 per cent. In Polesie 24·3 per cent. and in Wolhynia 16·8 per cent). Ruthenians or Ukrainians form a majority in only two counties, whereas the White Ruthenians are everywhere in a minority.

The German population, which, according to the Census of 1910, numbered in Poland 2,200,000, has now decreased very considerably owing to the mass emigration of officials, military and merchants from the counties of Poznań and Pomerania. The remaining German population within the frontiers of the Republic numbers 1,036,000 and is concentrated mostly in the counties of Silesia (27.5 per cent.), Pomerania (18.5 per cent.) and Poznań (16.5 per cent.). In Poznań itself, where before the Polish regime the number of German immigrants amounted to 45 per cent. of the total population, there has remained to-day not more than 5 per cent. Poznań is at present the most Polish of all cities.

Owing to complicated historical processes, such as the inclusion within the historical frontiers of Poland of large territories inhabited by a mixed population, and also owing to the power of attraction which a one-time rich and

Powerful State exercised on visitors from distant countries,—such as Germans, Jews and Scotsmen from the West, and Armenians and Tartars from the East—the physical and mental characteristics of Poles are not altogether uniform. There are various definite traits of character, however, which predominate both in the nobility and in the people.

The physical characteristics predominant in Poland are: short heads, rather low stature (from 160 to 165 cm.), light hair (60-70 per cent.), and light eyes (64-70 per cent.). Considering, however, the outside influences referred to above and the consequent deviations from the average type, any general conclusions should be made with the utmost caution.

As regards language, the present homogeneous Polish territory is usually divided into the following linguistic groups: Pomeranian, Great Polish (Poznań), Masovian, Silesian, and Galician, The dialects in the Wilejka and Niemen districts, which cover the entire lingual area reaching up to the River

Dzwina, are noteworthy.

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The dialectic differences usually correspond with other ethnographical characteristics which express themselves in national costumes, buildings, customs, superstitions, and folk songs. The delimitation of certain independent ethnographical units was influenced by two factors: these were the geographical character of the district, e.g., mountains and forests, as well as social and economic conditions, such as the age-long participation of certain groups in economic units, e.g., the Duchy of Lowicz, the Country of Nowytarg (Górale),

and the County of Myszyniec (Kurpie).

The character and the large area of habitation have a great influence on Polish psychology. Living in smaller or larger communities within wide areas from the Oder in the west to the Dzwina and Dnieper in the east, they are mixed with other national groups, such as the Germans in the west, Lithuanians, White Ruthenians, and Ruthenians (Ukrainians) in the east. Outside the frontiers of the Republic there are Poles in Germany (about 1 million), i.e., in German Silesia, Ermeland and East Prussia; in Czechoslovakia (about 250,000); in Lithuania (about 250,000); in Latvia (about 80,000), and, lastly, in Soviet Russia, or more strictly speaking in the autonomous Republics of White Russia and Ukraine, about 1 or 1'5 million.

Out of the total of 25 million Poles, 19 million live within the frontiers of their own country, about 3 million on territories

MAP OF POLAND.

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Showing the Administrative Division of the Republitmin into Counties (Wojewodztwa). livi

hei 35 ind LATVIA rad BALTIC LITHUANIA SEA inc 55 llen he he EAST PRUSSIA NOWOGRÓDEK 27 tuc che on who WARSAW POZNAŃ ,0(BRZEŚĆ POLESIE C WARSAW GERMANY LUBLIN ŁÓDZ WOLHYNIA 냅 KIELCE ·ŁUCK 50 S KRAKOW LWOW CZECHO-SLOVAKIA TARNOPOLI STANISLAWOW HUNGARY RUMANIA 30

Note.- In each county the position of the county boroug is indicated; the name of the borough is given wher it differs from the name of the county.

which formerly belonged to Poland, and another 3 million have blimigrated, mostly to France, the United States, and Brazil.

As regards trades and occupations, the population is livided as follows: - out of every 100 inhabitants 65 earn heir living from agriculture and forestry, 14 from industry and mining, 8 from commerce, and 13 pursue various other rades. Thus, in spite of the development of Polish industries, the country remains predominantly agricultural and is, under normal conditions, self-sufficient.

Educational activities are progressing rapidly in Poland ince the re-establishment of the Republic. The number of lementary schools has grown from 18,404 in 1911. (with .431,836 pupils) to 27,414 in 1922 (with 3,197,008 pupils). he number of secondary schools from 463 in 1911 to 762 din 1923, and the number of students from 126,179 to 27,129. During the scholastic year 1922-23, 199,654 tudents were educated in Polish secondary schools, 7,749 in chools where the instruction is given in German, 4,129 here the instruction is given in Ruthenian, 3,452 in Russian, 0.066 in Yiddish, 2,048 in Hebrew, and 237 in French.

2. Administrative Division of Poland (1923).

10				land (1923)	
1			Nun	nber of	
IET	Counties.	Districts.	Towns.	Rural Com- munes.	Manorial Districts.
-	ity of Warsaw		I	_	-
1	ounty of Warsaw	23	55	290	_
0	. Łódź	14	40	234	
S	" Kielce	16	35	312	
100	" Lublin	19	32	281	_
ΑН	Białystok	, '14	47	181	1
3	Wilno	, 8	15	112	
1	" Nowogródek	7	16	95	
	" Polesie ".	10	28	118	_
13	Wolhynia	9	32	95	
1	,, Poznań	38	118	3,038	1,672
	,, Pomorze	20	31	1,350	75
-	" Kraków	24	50	1,917	
14:	., Lwów	28	60	2,203	_
sud	Stanisławów	16	29	906	_
) LLI	Tarnopol	17	35	1,076	_
her	" Silesia "	12	17	414	269
100	Total	275	641	12.622	2.016

4. The Population of Poland by Counties (1911-1921).

County	Area in Sq. Km.	Tota	ation. al in sands.	Density per Sq. Km.	Wo:	er
		1911.	1921.	1921.	1911.	1921.
City of Warsaw Warsaw	121	797 2,464	936	7.736	108	121
Łódż	19,034	2,588	2,251	118	105	110
Kielce	25,736 31,160	2,757	2,536	67	101	108
Bialystok	32,637		1,303	40		109
Wilno	28,409		983	35 36		108
Nowogródek Polesie	23,046 42,278		880	21	_	106
Wolhynia	30,294		1,438	48		105
Kraków	17,448	2,041	1,990	114	108	113
Stanisławów	18,368	1,507	1,349	73	103	110
Tarnopol	16,240	1,606	1,429	88	105	109
Poznań Pomorze	26,603 16,386	973	1,974 939	74 75	106	114
Silesia	4,234	1,035	1,126	266	101	
Total Poland	388,328	-	27,193	70		107.0

The population of Poland on October 1, 1925, is estimated to have passed 30,000,000, and is increasing at a rate which is considered to be the highest in the world.

5. The Population of Poland according to Religion and Nationality (1921).

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	Total	Reli	Religion per 100 of Population.	100 of	Popula	tion.	Natio	nality 1	Nationality per 100 of Population	f Popul	ation.
County.	in Thou- sands. 1921.	Roman Catholic.	Greek or Orthodox Catholic.	Protest-]ews.	Others.	Poles.	Rumenians or bite Anth,	Сеттапа.	.ews.	Others:
Cites of Women	700	7 - 7	7								
Will Walsaw	930	03 0	0.0	7.0	33.0	0.0	72.0	0 3	1.0	26.0	9-1
warsaw	2,112	0.50	0.5	7	9.6	I - I	80.8	0 - 1	2.5	1.1	0.5
Lodz	2,251	6.92	0.5	2.6	14.5	0.8	83.1	0.1	4 6	12.0	0.5
Kielce	2,536	87.4	1.0	0 4	6.11	0.5	90.3	0.0	1.0	80.5	1.1
Lublin	2,088	77.5	7.5	6 0	13.7	2.0	85.4		6.0	0.01	2.9
Białystok	1,303	68-4	14.0	-	14.8	6 0	6.94		0.3	12.5	2.0
									Lith-		
	H		,					0.	uanians	ŀ	177
wilno	983	61.2	26-5		9.6	2.7	57.4	25.4	5.6	8.5	3.4
Nowogrodek	022	39.3	51.3		0-6	0.4	54.0	37.7	1.2	8.9	0.3
Polesie	088	2.8	79.5		12.6	4.0	24.3	(10.3	1	10.4	5.0
Wolhynia	1,438	11.5	74.2		11.2	7.00	8.91	68.4		9.0I	4-2
Krakow	066'1	89.3	2.6	1	7.7	0 4	93 · I	2.4		3.9	9.0
Lwow	2,718	46.5	41 3	1	11.5	0 7	9.99	35.8	1	-	9.0
Stanisławów	I,349	14.5	73.8		8.01	6.0	22.2	2.69			1+3
l arnopol	1,429	31.3	1.65	1	9 2	0.4	45.0	49.7	1	6.4	0.4
									Cer-		
									mans		
Poznań	1,974	82.0	1	16 3	0.5	0.3	83.1	i	16.5	0 · 1	0.3
Pomorze	939	79.5		8.61	0.3	0.4	81 · 0	1	18.5	0.0	0.5
Silesia	1,126	!		-)	1		-	1	1	1
Total Poland	27,193	63.6	20.8	3.7	10.5	I·I	60.2	17.0	3.00	00.	1 . 2
		,			3					,	2
	-				-						

6. Polish Towns and Cities with over 25,000 Inhabitants (1910-1921).

	,-			
City.			Population.	
City.	1-81	1910.	1921.	+ or -
	1	10	oo omitted)
I. Warsaw		797 · 1	936.0	+138.9
		502.5	452·I	- 50.7
7 /		195.8	219.4	+ 23.4
3. Lwów		166.8	181.7	+ 14.9
4. Kraków		150.5	169.8	+ 19.3
5. Poznań		130.3	128.9	T 19 3
6. Wilno		84.0	94.5	+ 10.5
7. Lublin		91.0	87.8	- 3.2
8. Bydgoszcz		102.0	86.7	- 15.3
9. Sosnowiec			80.6	
10. Częstochowa		74·9 80·3	77.0	+ 5.7
II. Białystok			74.8	- 3·3 + 2·2
12. Krol. Huta		72.6	61.6	,
13. Radom.		54.2	48.0	+ 7.4
14. Przemyśl		44.8		+ 3.2
15. Katowice		43.2	45'4	+ 2.2
16. Kalisz	* * * * *	54.0	44.8	- 9.2
17. Kolomyja		41.0	41.4	+ 0.4
18 Kielce		32.2	41.4	+ 9.2
19. Piotrków		39.8	41.0	+ 1.2
20. Włociawek		36 · I	40.3	+ 4.2
21. Dabrowa		24 · 1	39.8	+ I·2
22. Toruń		40.5	39.3	- 15.7
23. Tarnów		34.9	35.7	+ 0.8
24. Grodno		49.7	34.9	- 14.8
25. Grudziądz		35.7	33.8	- 1.9
26. Tarnopol		32.3	30.9	- 1.4
27. Siedlice		26.8	30.8	+ 4.0
28. Równe		32.8	30.4	- 2.4
29. Pabjanice		41.5	29.7	- 11.8
30. Brześć		53.3	29·I	- 24.2
31. Zawiercie		28.9	28.7	- 0.3
32. Tomaszów		28.6	28.3	- 0.3
33. Stanisławów		30.1	28 · 2	- 1.9
34. Bedzin		49.1	28 · 1	- 21.0
35. Stryj		29.7	27.3	- 2.4
36. Drohobycz		34.6	26.7	- 7.9
37 Nowy Sacz		24·I	26.3	- 2.2
38. Gniezno		23.4	25.9	+ 2.5
39. Płock		36.5	25.8	- 10.7
40. Rzeszów		20.7	25-0	+ 4.3

7. Development of Polish Cities (1860-1921).

City.		Po	pulatio	n in Th	ousand	s.	
City.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.	1900.	1910.	1921.
Warsaw	161.0	297.0	383-0	523 · 1	686·o	797 • 1	936.0
Łódż	32.6	39.0	45.2	136-1	288 · I	502.5	452 · I
Lwów	70.0	87.1	109.7	127.9	159.9	195.8	219.4
Kraków	41.0	49.8	66·I	74.6	91.3	166.8	181.7
Wilno	69.5	64.2	102.8	125.0	153.2	_	128.9
Poznań	51.2	56.4	65.7	69.6	117.0	150.5	169.8
Białystok	16.7	17.7	50.7	- 1	71.5	80.3	77.0
Lublin	2010	21.3	32.8	52.1	57.2	84.0	94.5
Sosnowiec	-		_		57.0	102.0	86.7
Bydgoszcz	22.5	27.7	34.0	41.4	52.2	91.0	87-8
Huta Królew-	1.00		500				
ska	1 - 1	19.5	27.5	36.5	57:9	72.0	74.8
Czestochowa	9.0	14.8	21.2	28.7	47.6	74.9	80.0
Przemyśl	10.1	15.2	22.0	35.2.	46.3	44.8	48.0

8. Vital Statistics (1913-1923).
Birth and Death Rate in Certain Polish and Other Cities.

1					
	Paris.		17.2 10.5 19.7 17.9 16.2		15.7 17.3 15.2 14.5
	London,		24.5 16.0 26.9 22.3 21.0		14.3 19.2 12.8 12.5 13.4
	New York.		23.5		14.7 17.9 13.0 111.2
	Moscow.		14.8		23.1
1	Vienna.	lation.	17.8 9.8 14.3 16.1 15.0	ulation.	15.3 18.5 15.3 13.7
	Berlin.	f Popul	19.4 19.8 17.5 11.5 10.7	of Pop	13.5 20.7 16.0 13.3 14.4
	Danzig.	1,000 0	27.1	1,000	16.9
	Ктаком.	hs per	27.3	sths per	23.3
	Bydgoszcz.	of Birt	14.8 9.3 26.0 33.2 35.5	of Deg	10.6
	Роглаń.	Number of Births per 1,000 of Population.	34.3 34.6 36.9	Number of Deaths per 1,000 of Population	25.6
	*709*I	24	26.2 25.3 32.0		16.2 12.8 21.2 16.9 17.3
	Warsaw.		15.3 3.0.2 3.1.4 2.3.1		11.11 16.8 20.5 15.2 15.3
			::::::		
	Year,		1913 1918 1920 921 922 1923		1913 1918 1920 1921 1922
i					

9. Infant Mortality in Certain Polish and Other Cities (1913-1922).

	I	Percent	age of	infants (who di of birth	ied wit	hin 12	month	3
Year,	Wilsiw.	Łódź.	Poznań.	Kraków.	Paris.	Berlin.	Vienna.	Moscow.	London.
1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1920 1921	15·1 18·4 25·6 13·3 15·7 14·4 12·2 15·4 14·8 16·7	- - - 19·1 17·7 18·7	17.5 18.6 17.6 15.2 14.7 37.1 14.4 19.5 20.7	15.6 16.7 16.3 17.7 16.2 17.1 15.6 17.3 15.6	9·8 11·1 — 12·6 10·1 9·8 9·5 8·7	13.6 15.2 13.2 11.9 14.8 14.7 15.3 15.8 14.2 16.0	15·5 13·9 15·2 14·1 15·3 15·8 15·3 16·2 14·6 14·9	27·9 30·3 34·2 35·4 27·8 33·0 22·5 26·5	10·6 10·4 11·2 8·9 10·4 10·8 8·5 7·6 8·1 7·4

10. Division of Population according to Occupations in Poland and Certain Foreign Countries.

		Year of	Numb for	er of Profe every 100	ssionally oc of Population	cupied on.
Countr	у.	Cen- sus.	Agricul- ture and Forestry.	Mining and Industry.	Commerce and Transport.	Other Occupa- tions.
Poland		1910	65	14	8	13
Austria		1910	57	24	9	12
Bulgaria		1910	82	8	3	7
Canada		1911	37	29	18	16
Denmark		1901	48	25	12	15
England	and					
Wales		1911	8	58	14	20
France		1911	41	29	17	13
Germany			35	40	13	12
Switzerland	d	1910	27	45	16	12
United Sta	tes	1920	26	34	17	23

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A Total Western Cours been and Other Dales of Liberty.

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26. House of Toronton American in Colored in Volentia

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IV EDUCATION AND RELIGION IN POLAND

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EDUCATION AND ELAND

EDUCATION AND RELIGION IN POLAND. I. EDUCATION.

1. The History of Education in Poland.

Education in Poland attained a very high standard already during the period of the country's political independence prior to the Partition Treaties, and especially in the 15th and 16th centuries. As far back as 1364 the University of Kraków was established and subsequently re-organised in 1400 by Queen Hedwiga of the Jagello Dynasty. The University educated great men of letters and science, including Copernicus. Representatives of the University took an important part in the religious Synods of that time and their counsel on important matters was eagerly sought after.

After the decline of morality and education in the 17th and the early part of the 18th century, educational work began again in the latter 18th century and continued during the reign of King Stanislas and until the Partitions. This period, which was also one of political reforms, is marked by earnest

attempts at Educational Reforms.

The reforms were initiated by Government. The suppression of the Order of Jesuits by the Pope Clement XIV. necessitated a complete re-organisation of the educational system. In the 17th and 18th centuries all educational work was concentrated in the hands of Jesuits and Piarists; the abolition of the former Order created a gap in the system of education. It was then decided to establish lay schools, and at the same time to give complete satisfaction to the religious needs of the community. A Board of Education (Komisja Edukacyjna) was set up for the purpose of controlling and supervising all educational work throughout the country. The Board of Education became the forerunner of Ministries of Education which were established in every country of Europe during the 19th century. All property of the Jesuit Order was earmarked for the purpose of public education, and the fund thus created was administered by the Education Commission.

With the downfall of the Polish State in 1795, and the failure of the national insurrections in 1830 and 1848, Polish education passed through the most trying period of its history.

The suppression of national consciousness amongst school children and youths became a feature of the educational system of the Partition Powers. The persecutions were still more painful to a nation possessing an ancient civilisation and great educational traditions. There were episodes during this period of persecutions which provoked a loud echo throughout the civilised world. It is sufficient to mention here the Wrzesnia case: parents were prosecuted for protesting against the flogging and torturing of their children who would not be taught in German.*

In Galicia alone the position was somewhat better, especially after the establishment of local government in 1866. Polish was taught in schools of all types, and the autonomous school organisation was concentrated in the Education Council, under the direct supervision of the Viceroy. Although school instruction was given in Polish, the Austrian authorities spared no efforts to suppress all evidence of national consciousness; they might have been successful had it not been

for the hardy patriotism of the teaching staff.

The events of 1905 following upon the unsuccessful revolution in the former Congress Kingdom have proved to the world at large how strongly the Polish people are attached to their language and to their schools. In spite of the great inequality of power, in spite of the failure of the political revolution, a bitter struggle began against the Russification of Polish schools. A boycott of all Russian schools was proclaimed; children and youths, supported by their parents, refused to attend school. The Russian Government had to yield, and in autumn, 1905, the establishment of Polish Secondary Colleges ("Gymnasiums") was permitted. The University, however, remained Russian, although the boycott. of the Warsaw University by Polish students continued until the moment of the Russian retreat from Warsaw in 1915. The University was filled with students specially imported from Russia, and those who had failed in the Russian Universities. The only Polish Universities prior to the war were those at Kraków and Lwów.

The German authorities of occupation, who, by the end of 1915, had established their government throughout the former

^{*} The martyrology of Polish children and teachers of that period was immortalised by Sienkiewicz in his "Memoirs of a Poznań Teacher," and by Zeromski in "Sisyphean Labours."

EDUCATION AND RELIGION.

Congress Kingdom, initiated a policy of Germanisation. The Department of Education, which had been established after the Russian retreat, was closed. Protestant and Jewish schools were the first to attract the attention of the Germans as suitable means of effecting Germanisation. An Order of Hindenburg enacted that German should be introduced in all Jewish schools as the language of instruction. The Jews resented these measures, and the most energetic opposition came from Polish Protestants. In consequence, the Germans were compelled to abandon their schemes, and in autumn, 1917, the administration of schools under both German and Austrian occupation was handed over to Polish authorities which were then being formed.

It was not, however, until the establishment of Polish independence that Polish schools were placed entirely in Polish hands and freed from the interference of German Kreischefs. Already during the occupation, i.e., in 1916, a Polish University* was established in Warsaw, which, within a few months of its establishment, came into conflict with the occupation authorities, and was for some time boycotted by the students.

2. Education in Poland, 1918-1924.

In 1918 begins the period of independence for Polish schools and Polish education. The task of the Government was vast and difficult. A uniform system of education had to be introduced in all three parts of the united country. Compulsory education was necessary in order to overcome the ignorance of the people which had been purposely encouraged by the former imperial Governments. In addition, minority schools had to be organised in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution. As regards the methods of teaching, important reforms were introduced. Instead of mechanical schoolwork and the consequent overburdening of the children's minds, was introduced a method of independent work under the guidance of the teacher. In the higher forms of Secondary Schools special subjects have been

^{*} The first Polish University in Warsaw was established in 1818 at the time of the Congress Kingdom; the second, known as the "High College," in 1862. Both were closed by the Russian Government after the failure of the Insurrections.

introduced, so as to enable the pupils to work according to their natural abilities. The latter reform has so far given very satisfactory results.

It must be remembered that each part of Poland had, before the war, its own individual system of teaching. The important work of codifying these systems into one uniform method required great efforts on the part of the authorities and co-operation on the part of the teaching staff. However, after a few years of untiring labours in this direction a complete uniformity of educational methods has now been achieved.

The administrative organisation of schools is based on a system of decentralisation. The country is divided into II Educational Divisions, headed by Curators who have powers to decide important matters in their divisions. Elementary schools are supervised by inspectors, one for each administrative district. Headmasters of Secondary Schools are subject to the authority of visiting representatives of the respective curators.

The greatest efforts were directed to overcome illiteracy, which, especially in the former Russian provinces, had reached terrific proportions. Thus, the number of schools in 1904 throughout the former Congress Kingdom was smaller than that in 1840! In 1900 36 recruits out of every 100 could not read or write, and the corresponding figure for the Eastern provinces was 48.5! At the same time, the percentage of illiterate people in other Polish provinces was insignificant, although the system of education even in those provinces left much to be desired.

The Constituent Diet, as early as 1919, introduced the principle of compulsory education for children between the ages of 7 and 14, and the execution of this Statute in the former Congress Kingdom began in the scholastic year 1923–24. It is estimated that the complete execution of the Statute will not take place until 1930. Preparatory work in connection with the introduction of compulsory education is being carried on in the eastern counties. To realise the extent of the Government's educational campaign it is sufficient to mention here, that the number of children attending elementary schools in the former Congress Kingdom during the year 1923–24 was 1,345,586, whereas the corresponding number in 1910–11 was only 370,576—an increase of 263 per cent.!

At the same time the number of schools in Galicia has been increased by 1,000 since the establishment of Polish administration.

The educational statistics for the year 1923-24 for the whole country give the following figures. There were 27,384 elementary schools (including 26,653 run by local government authorities) with 62,003 teachers and 3,208,352 pupils. (Prior to the war there were 18,400 elementary schools in the present Polish territory, and the average yearly number of school-children was 2,431,836). The language of instruction in 22,347 of these schools was Polish; in 1,217—German; in 3,025—Ruthenian (Ukrainian); in 32—White Russian; in 39—Czech; in 92—Lithuanian; in 113—Yiddish; in 71—Hebrew; and in 11—Russian. The remaining schools were bi-lingual. Thus, in 332 of them the languages of instruction were Polish and German; in 89—Polish and Ruthenian, and

3. Elementary Education.

The elementary schools have from one to seven forms. The one-form school has usually one teacher, and the number of children varies from 40 to 60. The number of pupils in two-form schools varies between 60 and 100; that in three-form schools, between 100 and 150, etc. The highest type of elementary school, i.e., that of seven forms, is usually found in larger towns and its curriculum gives an excellent basis for further studies at a Secondary or Secondary-Technical college. The time of instruction in all types of elementary schools is 7 years.

The curriculum of the three higher forms of elementary schools corresponds to that of the three lower forms of secondary schools, so that children can, after the completion of the elementary course, pass into the 4th form of a Secondary College, if they wish to continue their education. It is a question under consideration whether the three lower secondary forms should be maintained or abolished, like in many other European countries. At the International Conference of Teachers, which was recently held at Warsaw, this matter was eagerly discussed, but no decisive resolution was passed. The Polish Ministry of Education has provisionally decided to maintain the present system, especially considering the insufficient number of elementary schools.

T)+

4. Secondary Education.

Secondary education is conducted in eight-form schools, known as "Gymnasia." The type of secondary school is not so uniform now as it was before the war. The lower gymnasia have only three forms (1, 2, 3); in the higher ones, with an eight-years' course special subjects have been introduced. This was done by the Ministry of Education which recognised the fact that children between the ages of 13 and 14 develop certain tendencies towards special subjects, and, though gifted in one direction, have no inclination to pursue other branches of science. In consequence, the programme of education in higher forms of secondary schools is divided into four independent sections, such as science, classics, history and literature.*

The programme in these sections is so compiled that the teaching of general subjects is not neglected. Emphasis has been laid on the teaching of Polish subjects ("Polonica"), including history, literature and the history of the language, since these subjects were purposely ignored by the former German, Russian and Austrian educational authorities. In order to link up school teaching with actual life the study of "Modern Poland" has been introduced in the last form of

secondary colleges.

The number of gymnasia prior to the war was 463; their number in 1923-24 has increased to 764, of which 266 were conducted by the Government or by public institutions, and the remaining 498 by private individuals. The great number of private schools has its origin in the insufficiency of Government schools under the respective German and Russian rules; many private schools were formed with the co-operation of the best teachers, and in consequence were very popular with the public. At present private schools are under the supervision of the Government, which grants them equal rights with the Government colleges on being satisfied that the methods and standard of education are entirely satisfactory. Thus, schools which are backward in this respect must either close or introduce the necessary reforms. During the last few years many gymnasia were compelled to close down.

^{*} Further particulars will be found in the booklet "L'Instruction publique en Pologne" (Ministry of Education. Warsaw, 1925].

During the scholastic year 1923-24 221,092 children were educated in secondary colleges; of these, 135,879 were boys

and the remaining 85,218 girls.

The language of instruction in 663 gymnasia was Polish. Nineteen were bi-lingual (usually Polish and a foreign language); in 34 colleges the instruction was given in German; in 20—in Ruthenian; in 2—White Ruthenian; in 10—Russian; in 7—Hebrew; in 6—Yiddish; in 2—French, and in one—Lithuanian. It must be borne in mind that there is no pressure whatever exercised on the part of the Government as regards the language of instruction in particular colleges. Minorities learn in Polish willingly; it may be mentioned that there are in Poland 87 private gymnasia for Jewish children where the language of instruction is Polish.

The attitude of educational authorities to racial minorities is illustrated by the fact that Jewish children form 23.1 per cent. of all secondary school pupils, although the proportion of Jewish population in the Republic is only 10.5 per cent. There is no doubt that the principles of tolerance and equality

are universally applied.

5. Higher Education.

There are in Poland 11 State Universities and University Colleges, including 5 Universities (Warsaw, Kraków, Wilno, Lwow, Poznań), 2 Polytechnics, 1 Agricultural Academy, 1 Mining Academy, 1 high school of arts, and 1 Veterinary Academy. The total number of undergraduates in the academic year 1923-24 was 28,155, and that of women-undergraduates 8,147, i.e., 36,302 students of both sexes.

It is proposed to establish in the near future a Ruthenian

university in Galicia.

In addition to State Universities there are a number of private university colleges, such as the Free University in Warsaw, and the University of Lublin, the latter with strong Catholic tendencies.

All universities enjoy a wide autonomy in all branches of their activities.

Since the development of educational activities throughout the country necessitated an increase in the teaching staffs of all schools and colleges, a Government Institute of Pedagogics was established in Warsaw, and, it is hoped, will supply a sufficient number of qualified teachers. There was little difficulty in completing the teaching staff for secondary schools. In Galicia there was always a surplus of Gymnasium teachers; in the Congress Kingdom many fully qualified university professors had to teach in secondary schools, since Poles could not occupy Chairs at the Russian Universities. The teaching staff of the elementary schools was, however, completed with difficulty. Before the war elementary schools in the former Congress Kingdom and in the German provinces were either Russian or German, and there were very few individuals qualified to undertake the teaching in Polish elementary schools. Furthermore, many of the teachers were foreigners who left Poland as soon as it was established as an independent State.

The Polish Government fully realised the necessity of forming a uniform contingent of teachers for elementary schools and has, therefore, established a number of seminaries for teachers with a 5-years' course of studies. These seminaries are open to persons of both sexes who have completed a course of education in a general school. Candidates with higher education than the standard required may complete the course in two years, or even in one.

The rapid development of teachers' seminaries and similar institutions is illustrated by the comparison of the following figures. In 1918 there were only 24 State and 49 private seminaries, whilst in the year 1923–24 the figures were 116 and 66 respectively, in addition to four special institutes for advanced candidates. The total number of students in these institutes during the year 1923–24 was 29,872. The development of these institutions was aided by local government authorities, who have, in many cases, furnished buildings and building sites for the erection of suitable houses, and have, generally, done everything in their power to co-operate with the Ministry of Education.

The type of technical schools is worth mentioning. The number of these schools is growing rapidly. From 686 in the Scholastic Year 1923-24, it has increased to 829 in 1924-25. The number of students at these schools was 94,665 in 1924-25, as compared with 82,478 in the preceding year.

In addition there are in Poland special educational institutes for backward children. In 1923-24 the total number of these institutions, including special departments of normal schools, was 100, and the number of pupils, 3,328.

The requirements of hygiene and physical training receive the greatest attention of Polish educational authorities. Schools of all types have, in nearly every case, their own school doctor and dental surgeon. Elementary schools in villages are controlled by district medical officers, who are all supervised by the General Inspector of Hygiene with Headquarters at the Ministry of Education.

The Ministry supports sports clubs in connection with schools and gymnasia. Compulsory physical training has been introduced in schools of all types. The boy scout move-

ment is strongly encouraged by the Ministry.

The rapid development of educational activities throughout the country has been followed by a democratisation of schools. Eighteen per cent. of members of secondary colleges (gymnasia) are sons and daughters of farmers and peasants—a state of things which could not be imagined before the war. The State expenditure for educational purposes is steadily increasing. although the economic situation of the country necessitated far-reaching economies in other departments of State administration. Thus, whereas the Budget of the Ministry of Education in 1921 amounted to 40 million zlotys, the corresponding figure for 1924 was 229'5 million (14 per cent. of the total Budget), and for 1925, 323'6 million (16 per cent.). Adding to this the educational budget of the country of Silesia, 24'4 million, we arrive at the sum of 348 million zlotys earmarked yearly for educational purposes.

The total State expenditure for education amounts to 12.5 zlotys per head of population, and the joint expenditure of the State and local government authorities—to 20 zlotys

per head.

Public interest in matters of schools and education is great, due to the fact that before the war the entire Polish nation took part in the struggles for their native language and for their native schools.* Parents' meetings at schools are always well attended. Special councils have been established in connection with elementary schools; these councils, composed of representatives of parents, local government authorities, teachers and clergy, form advisory bodies to the proper Government authorities. Their influence on matters of education is very considerable.

^{*} Many thousands of teachers were imprisoned by the Russian and German Governments for secret teaching of Polish subjects.

Extra-mural studies are conducted almost entirely by public institutions. In order to support the public in their educational activities a Department of Extra-Mural Education has been established at the Ministry of Education and extends its help, experience and influence to these institutions. The chief educational organisations of this type are:—The School Association ("Macierz Szkolna"), the School Society of Kraków, the Silesian School Association, the Popular Libraries Society of Poznań, the Adult Training Courses in Warsaw, and the Workmen's University in Warsaw, the latter with Socialistic tendencies. An educational campaign is also conducted in the Army by the Ministry of War.

The principal Polish Institutes of Science are:—The Academy of Science in Kraków, the Science Society in Warsaw, the J. Mianowski Foundation, the Science Society of Lwów, and similar societies in Poznań and Wilno. All these institu-

tions are known throughout the scientific world.

6. Primary Schools in Poland (1921-1922).

Teachers.		Total.	r,869	3,881	4,675	4.359	4.477	2,553	3,369	1,002	2,077	4,863	2,312	6,292	6,789	2,822	2,771	3,047	57,158
		Per Teacher.	34.7	92.6	*.19	65.3	53.0	9.44	39.8	40 0	42.5	24.0	21.3	49.I	26.8	80 · DQ	62.2	64.2	55.8
Pupils.	Per 1,000	habi- tants.	69.2	102.2	127.6	112.0	113.7	87.4	50.4	64.8	4.8.4	182.3	175.5	155.3	141.8	127.6	120 7	173.8	9.211
		Thous- ands.	64.8	235.00	287.0	284.0	237.4	0.EII	122.1	42.6	9.02	359.9	164.9	300.0	385.4	171.5	172-5	195-6	3,197.0
	67	Seven and more Classes.	64.3	2-1	6.4	80	€.I	2.7	1	3.5	9.1	3.6	4.61	9.4	3.4	I.I	1.4	33.0	1
98.4	Per roa Schools.	Two Classes.	4.9	P. 10	100	2.0	2.6	10 3	1	13.0	13.7	24.3	26.4	27 6	23.4	21.2	24.8	17 g	1
Schools.	Pe	One Class.	3.8	62.5	56.2	260	48.2	36.6	L	68.89	51.0	53.4	42.7	47.7	49.5	26.0	45.8	12.9	
Ē	, c	roo sq. Km.	150.4	2.5	13.2	10 0	6 80	3.3	.4	0.0	00.	11.4	80	9.0I	0 6	6 3	5.6	27.5	14.5
		Total.	182	2,689	2,530	2,582	2,770	1,276	934	347	827	3,032	r,6ao	1,850	2,442	191,1	1,275	613	25,62I
	County.		City of Warsaw	Warsaw		Kieloe	Lublin	Bialystok	Nowogródek	Polesie	Wolbynia	Poznatí	Pomorze	Kraków	Lwów	Stanislawów	Tamopol	Silesia	Total Poland

. The above statistics do not include the county of Wilno.

7. Secondary Schools (1922-1923).

	ME		Pupils.		Number of
County.	Number of Schools.	In Thousands.	Per- centage of Girls.	Per 10,000 In- habitants.	Teachers in Thousands.
City of Warsaw Warsaw Lodz Kielce Lublin Bialystok Wilno Nowogrodek Polesie Wolhynia Poznań Pomorze Kraków Lwow Stanislawow Tarnopol.	106 61 91 62 46 32 37 13 13 13 21 53 32 43 74 23 17	32 · 9 13 · 8 25 · 8 17 · 7 11 · 8 9 · 4 10 · 8 3 · 6 3 · 5 8 · 2 18 · 7 8 · 1 15 · 6 6 · 2 9 · 4	54.7 42.2 47.4 43.0 47.6 48.6 51.7 43.9 36.5 21.3 21.3 21.4 15.3	352 0 65·1 112·7 69·6 56·5 72·3 107·7 27·8 40·1 56·4 94·7 86·3 78·6 90·7 56·2 43·6	2,001 760 1,331 866 605 454 163 186 398 956 414 880 1,097 321 264 300
Total Poland	 762	227.1	39.7	83.5	11,560 1

8. Universities and other Academic Schools (1923-1924).

	Students,								
School.	Total.	Regular.	Women.	Roman Catholics.	Orthodox or Greek Catholics.	Jews.			
University of Warsaw	9,419	9,106	3,289	5,923	195	2,970			
University of Kraków	5,379	5,200	1,213	3,356	238	1,716			
University of Lwow	5,646	5,253	1,427	2,992	155	2,401			
University of Poznań	3,313	3,123	567	3,145	36	22			
University of Wilno	2,200	1,703	749	1,556	81	510			
University of Lublin	1,120	825	410	1,095	9	_			
Polytechnic of Lwow	2,614	2,555	86	2,041	179	340			
Polytechnic of Warsaw	4,063	4,027	240	3,248	77	504			
Agricultural Academy	929	908	151	894	9	2			
Mining Academy	425	417	-	397	21				
Academy of Fine Arts	150	96	32	117	22	8			
Academy of Veterinary									
Medicine	292	292	2	201	50	37			
Institute of Dentistry	396	153	331	143	I	249			
Pedagogical Institute	135	III	88	124		3			
Academy of Commerce	1,116	1,082	240	959	28	70			
Academy of Foreign Trade	398	398		253	19	112			
Free University of Poland	1,259	1,053	485	535	3	439			
Total	38,863	36,302	9,301	26,973	1,123	9,383			

9. Professional Schools and Classes (1924).

Schools.		Total.	Schools.	Classes.	Public.	Private.
Technical		34	29	5	26	8
Artisans		69	29 67	2	30	39
Railway		5	5	-	4	I
Agricultural		12	IO	2	9	3
Supplementary		272	262	2	208	.04
Commercial		165	97	68	24	141
Applied Arts		5	5	_	3	2
Girls' schools		124	71	53	23	101
Total	- 0	686	546	140	327	359

10. Schools for Teachers (Seminaries) (1922-1923).

		No. of Se	minarie	×5.	-		Stud	ients.
County.	Total.	Public.	Male.	Female.	Teachers.	Classes.	Total.	Women
City of War-							77	
saw	II	5	3	7	226	40	1,300	886
Warsaw	15	13	10	4	152	68	2,193	654
Kielce	13	10	6	6	159	60	2,145	654
Lodz	9	8	6	3	83	34	1,210	443
ublin	9	7	4	5	129	38	1,591	905
Bialystok	11	IO	4	4	81	36	1,326	707
Wilno	8	5	3	2		26	1,177	450
Nowogrodek	I	I	I	_	4	5	188	39
Polesie	I	I	I		6	4	100	
Wolhynia	2	I	_	I	17	8	242	114
Poznań	18	18	15	3	150	71	2,905	647
Pomorze	10	10	5	3	101	45	1,415	432
Kraków	24	7	4	19	273	88	4,019	2,945
Lwow	31	14	20	4	366	105	5,438	3,846
Stanislawow	8	3	7	-	128	28	1,268	1,042
Tarnopol	10	4	6	I	106	36	1,321	913
Silesia	9	6	4	1	118	35	967	329
Total	190	123	77	94	2,099	727	28,805	15,246

THE CHURCH AND RELIGIOUS COMMUNITIES IN POLAND.

1.—Conditions before 1914.

The constitutional organisation of the Church was, like so many other legal institutions, inherited by the re-established Republic of Poland from her former rulers, i.e., the Central and Russian Empires. In a newly-established State, possessing a constitutional government and certain traditional principles, a system of legislation is necessary. Poland could either temporarily retain the existing legal enactments, or substitute a legal system of her own. In a country composed of three different parts, and inheriting three different systems of law, a uniform course is impossible. Different measures and different procedure have to be adopted in each case.

This applies in particular to the legal position of the Catholic Church, especially in the former Russian parts of the country. Hampered and persecuted by the Russian Government until the moment of Poland's resurrection, the Church of Rome had to be re-established in its traditional place, i.e., as the Church of the

majority of citizens.

The position was different in the former German and Austrian provinces. The Prussian Government, while systematically persecuting Polish nationals, could not extend its intolerance to the Catholic Church, since large groups of the subjects of the Reich professed the faith of Rome. Nor could there be any persecution of the Church in those provinces which were ruled by the Catholic

Empire—Austria.

Russia, however, had two reasons for suppressing the Catholic faith. In an Orthodox State, the moral and spiritual power of Catholicism was naturally regarded as a danger. The other, the political reason, was, that both in the Polish provinces of Russia and in Russia itself, Catholic persuasion became synonymous with Polish nationality. In consequence, a system of persecutions of the Church was thought to be an efficient means for suppressing the national consciousness of the people.

2..-The Churches in Poland.

It is obvious that, with the establishment of the Republic, of whose citizens 75 per cent. are Catholics, the restrictions and prohibitions imposed by the hostile Russian Government have lost their raison d'eire. The general policy of freedom and toleration of the Republic has, ipso facto, granted complete autonomy to the Catholic Church as well as to other denominations.

As regards its attitude towards particular religions, the Polish Government has adopted that policy of absolute tolerance which was initiated in Poland as far back as the 15th century, when, during the reign of the Jagello Dynasty, the country offered a place of refuge even to those individuals and organisations which

were persecuted in every other European State.

The spirit of tolerance revived with the re-establishment of Poland. Having full confidence in the moral power of its inherent qualities, Poland did not think it worthy of a constitutional State to adopt a policy of intolerance and persecutions, which always spring from moral and ethical weakness. Apart from this, the 125 years' existence under a foreign rule of intolerance and oppressions had shown Poland the false and worthless character of such a policy, and past experiences would not permit the Republic to adopt a policy to exhibit on her part intolerance or vindictiveness. The benefits of such an attitude must have been felt keenly by nationals of those Governments which, before the war, spared no efforts to suppress Polish national and religious consciousness. Toleration is extended not only to large communities of religious minorities, but also to sects, to those even whose activities are not considered beneficial to the community at large, provided; of course, they conform to the constitution and the law of the land.

The principles of religious freedom and tolerance on the part of the State have been embodied in the Constitution of 17th March, 1921, which guarantees to every citizen of the Republic complete liberty as regards religious convictions and the performance of religious rites so long as these are not contrary to law or to public morals. Whilst granting such liberty, the Constitution provides that no citizen shall be exempted from the performance of public duties on account of his denomination. The position of the Catholic Church has been defined in the Constitution: Catholicism is established as the leading Church amongst all other, equally privileged religions. The relations between the Church in Poland and the Holy See are to be regulated and defined by a Concordate. The Churches of religious minorities are granted complete autonomy by the Constitution; they are governed by their own rules, subject

to the recognition of these rules by the State.

The relations between the State and the particular Churches are not strictly defined by the Constitution. In consequence, the present legal status of religious communities is provisional, pending

further legislation on this subject.

As regards the Catholic Church, subsidies were paid to the clergy in accordance with the scale provided for by the German, Austrian and Russian statutes respectively. A uniform pensions scale has, however, been introduced, and pensions are now paid in accordance with the Polish statute of July 28, 1921.

The Government had also expended considerable sums in contributions towards the costs of building of new churches, especially in the counties of Poznań and Pomerania, and also in areas devastated during the War.

The chief government organ for dealing with religious matters is the Ministry of Religions and Education.

3 .- The Catholic Church.

The legal relations between the Republic of Poland and the Church of Rome were not defined until the beginning of the current year, when the Concordate with the Holy See was concluded. The Concordate came into force on August 2, and from that day the position of the Church in Poland is legally established. The Concordate introduced certain changes in the territorial organisation of dioceses, conferred certain privileges on the Church and on the clergy, and granted some benefits to the State.

The Concordate provides that as regards Roman Catholicism, embracing about 63.5 per cent. of the population, the Republic shall be divided into five provinces, i.e., Poznań, Warsaw, Wilno, Lwow and Krakow, composed of 20 dioceses. Greek and Ruthenian Catholics (11.2 per cent. of the population) are to be governed by one province in Lwow which includes three dioceses. Armenian Catholics, forming but a fraction of the population. are to be governed by an archbishop at Lwow. All the dioceses include 7,000 parishes

and the total number of Catholics is 21 millions.

Although the territorial delimitation of Church provinces lies within the exclusive authority of the Church, the Concordate established a very important political principle, namely that the borders of any province cannot extend beyond the territory of the State. This principle is of vital importance from a political point of view. With the settlement of Polish political frontiers, some of the Polish provinces both in the West and the East became canonically subject to the authority of Bishops residing in neighbouring countries. Thus Silesia was included in the domain of the Bishop of Breslau and a part of the Wilno district in that of the Bishop of Kowno. The establishment of the Bishopric of Wilno still further confirmed the decision of the Council of Ambassadors accepting Poland's frontiers in the East which are now, indirectly, confirmed also by the Holy See.

The Concordate granted the Catholic Church in Poland complete freedom of action both as regards jurisdiction and administration, as well as communication with the Holy See and with the faithful. The clergy are entitled to privileges in respect of compulsory Military Service. Estates, the title of which was in abeyance pending the conclusion of the Concordate, are now legally vested in the Church. The State undertakes to aid the Church authorities in the execution of their duties, and to grant them special legal protection, guaranteeing also to Church estates absolute immunity from partition. As regards property formerly belonging to the Church and inherited by Poland from the former Empires, the Concordate provides the regulation by a special agreement to be concluded later. Until the conclusion of this agreement the State under-

takes to grant dotations to the clergy according to scale agreed upon. The clergy are also granted certain privileges in connection with administrative and legal responsibilities; proceedings cannot be taken against them save with the knowledge of their superiors.

The principles embodied in the Concordate confer considerable benefits on the State, guaranteeing the absolute loyalty of both higher and lower clergy. Bishops can only be nominated with the approval of the President of the Republic, who also receives an oath of fidelity from them. Livings can be granted to subjects of foreign states only with the approval of the Polish Government. Furthermore, the clergy must contribute towards the expenditure of the State, and their personal income is subject to taxation.

In view of the pending execution of the Agrarian Reform in Poland, it is important to note that the Holy See has agreed to the extension of the principles of the Agrarian Reform to Church

estates.

The Concordate is of prime importance to both contracting parties. The existing provisional state of affairs is replaced by a firm basis for future relations between Church and State. All legislation conflicting with the provisions of the Concordate is thereby automatically repealed, and a total uniformity as regards the position of the Church has been introduced throughout the country.

The supplementary agreements referred to in the Concordate will probably be concluded in the near future. These agreements will finally establish the position of the Catholic Church in Poland, and the material security of her clergy.

4 .- The Greek Orthodox Church.

The Greek Orthodox Church within the former provinces of the Republic of Poland became re-united with the Catholic Church in 1596 after the Union of Brzesc. Only a small part of her members refused to accept the Union. At the time of the partitions. by the end of the 18th century, there were only about 40,000 dissenters within the present territories of Poland. It was only after the collapse of the rising of 1831, and especially after the failure of the second rising of 1863, that the Russian Government adopted a policy of ruthless Russification and conversion to the Russian Orthodox Church. The Union of 1596 was officially repealed in 1875, and all Union Churches were converted into Russian Orthodox places of worship, whilst the members of the former were registered as members of the Greek Orthodox faith. The official number of Russian Orthodox in the county of Lublin was thus raised from 6,000 to 350,000, and the number of Orthodox Churches from 3 to 400. These activities of the Russian Government were checked by the Edict of Tolerance which followed the Revolution of 1905. Part of the population reverted to the Catholic Church,

so that at present the county of Lublin is inhabited by 142,000 members of the Russian Orthodox faith.

The total number of Greek Orthodox in Poland is 3,100,000; they form a majority in three Eastern Counties, viz., that of

Wolhynia, Polesie and Nowogrodek.

The Greek Orthodox Church in Poland is divided into five dioceses, viz., Wolhynia, with the Bishop's seat in Krzemieniec, Polesie with the Bishop's residence in Pinsk, Grodno-Nowogrodek—in Grodno, Wilno, and Warsaw. The Church is headed by the Metropolite of Warsaw and the Synod of Bishops. Consistories are established in connection with each Bishopric; these perform the administrative duties of the diocese and act as spiritual courts, It must be noted that according to the Russian legislation of 1836, which is still in force, the jurisdiction in matrimonial causes is vested in spiritual courts.

There are 17 Orthodox monasteries in Poland. The largest of them is situated in Poczajewo, Wolhynia. The education of aspirants for Holy Orders is carried on in Theological Colleges at Wilno and Krzemieniec and also at the Faculty of Orthodox Theology at the University of Warsaw. (This Faculty was established in 1924.) The number of Orthodox parishes in Poland is 1,480; there are about 2,000 clergy and approximately 700 nuns

and monks.

The difficulties in the organisation of the Orthodox Church in Poland arose from the attitude of the Patriarch of Moscow, Tikhon, and his followers, who were anxious to retain the supremacy of the Orthodox Church in Russia over that in Poland. These tendencies were, however, soon abandoned in consequence of the suppression of all spiritual activities in Soviet Russia and the impossibility of maintaining regular communication between Poland and the Soviets. In 1922 a congress of Bishops of the Orthodox Church in Poland, presided over by the Metropolite George, recognised the necessity of a separate organisation of the Church in Poland. On November 13, 1924, the Patriarch of Constantinople confirmed the Autocephaly of the Orthodox Church in Poland, giving it a status equal to that of Orthodox Churches in Rumania, Jugoslavia and Greece.

The attitude of the Polish Government towards this Church is decidedly favourable; its rights are equal to those of the Catholic Church. Since the conclusion of the Concordate with the Holy See, the Government is now proceeding to enter into an agreement with the Orthodox Episcopate which will finally regulate the status of their Church in Poland.

5.-The Protestant Church.

Protestants in Poland, numbering 1,010,000 souls, are divided into two separate groups—Lutherans and Calvinists.

Their Churches often embrace members of either denominations. In the former Russian provinces of Poland, Protestants are governed by two separate Consistories, the Lutheran and the Calvinist. In the eastern parts each denomination is represented separately by the Colleges of Lutherans and Calvinists in Wilno.

In the counties of Galicia and in Teshen Silesia, both sections are united in one Lutheran-Calvinist Church, which was established in the former Austrian Empire. Members of this Church are represented in Poland by the Superintendency of the Lutheran-

Calvinist Church.

In the western counties, members of the United Protestant Church predominate. This was established in Germany under the influence of the Government, and united all German Protestants in one National Church, whose members are represented in the Wojewodztwa of Poznań and Pomerania by the United Protestant Consistory in Poznań, and in Silesia by the Church Council.

A small group of Lutherans, who refused to accept the Union, form a separate Church and are known under the name of Old-Lutherans. There are only a few parishes of them in Poland, situated in the

western counties and governed by one Superintendency.

The Constitution grants complete autonomy to the Protestant Church in Poland, but its internal regulations are subject to the confirmation of State authorities. Pending legislative confirmation of these regulations, the corresponding statutes of the former Empires are still in force.

Polish Protestants show as yet no tendencies towards that unification which was exhibited by their co-religionists in the former German and Austrian Empires. On the other hand, representatives of the United Church of Germany are desirous of retaining, mostly for reasons of national policy, their separation.

6.—The Jewish Religious Communes.

The Jewish community in Poland, numbering 2,800,000 souls, has, for historical reasons, no uniform organisation in Poland, which is, however, for the most part similar to the constitution of Jewish

communities in other European countries.

The organisation of Jewish religious communes within the territories of the former Congress Kingdom is based on a Statute of February 7, 1919, confirmed by a Decree of the then Chief of State of the same date. There are about 400 communes, having a legal status of public religious societies, which are governed by a Religious Council elected by the communes for each administrative district. These communes enjoy the rights of a Corporation, and their decrees are given under seal. Officers are elected by a general direct and proportional ballot.

In Galicia the organisation of Jewish communities is based on an Austrian Statute of March 21, 1890. Each commune has its

own rules and regulations, and officers are elected by a curial ballot.

The legal status of Jewish communes in the former German provinces is determined by a German Statute of 1847. Here, too, each commune is governed by its own Statute and officers are elected by those members of the commune who pay regular subscriptions.

There were at one time no fewer than 130 Jewish communes in these provinces. Owing to a continuous emigration of Jewish elements during the last 100 years, which has now been increased by the right of option, these communes have in most cases ceased to exist. Communal institutions, such as synagogues and cemeterics, were included in larger communes; in some cases communal estates and property were handed over or sold to charitable institutions.

The Eastern Counties of Poland had no organisation of Jewish communes in the modern, West European sense of the word. Synagogues, cemeteries and charitable institutions worked independently of each other and were not controlled by any central institution.

Reform of Jewish Religious Communes in Poland.

All religious communes of the former Congress Poland, Galicia, and the former Prussian provinces, have wide powers of a religious and humanitarian character. The costs of establishment and maintenance of communal institutions are covered by compulsory contributions of members, which are levied with the aid of State authorities. In the Eastern counties, these institutions are supported mainly by voluntary contributions.

The control over, and protection of, religious communities is exercised by the Ministry of Religions and Education. A Jewish Department of the Ministry is in existence ever since the restablishment of Poland. This Department is staffed mainly by competent officials of the Jewish faith.

Polish authorities commenced their activities with a scheme of reforms in the former Congress Kingdom, where the religious communes were found to be in a state of complete disorganisation. As early as March 27, 1919, a Circular was addressed by the Ministry to all District Commissioners in which the reform of Jewish religious communities was referred to as "a vital task, the performance of which will benefit the Jewish population and the State at large."

The Circular further says that "the Ministry expects the Commissioners fully to realise the importance of the task set before them, and hopes that, by realising and satisfying the needs of the communes, the Commissioners will gain the confidence of the

Jewish community and will, at the same time, become indispensable collaborators of the Ministry."

Since the date of this Circular, the Ministry has issued many important Orders ameliorating the administrative and financial conditions of the communes throughout the country.

To secure means for the communes, an Order was issued reforming the system of communal taxation. Other regulations dealt with the conditions of ritual slaughtering, with the remuneration of Jewish rabbis living mostly in conditions of utter poverty.

A general election of officers in all Jewish communes throughout the former Congress Kingdom took place in 1924. The election was conducted on the basis of a general, direct and proportional ballot. Thus, the communes received new administrative organs, which realise better the necessity for a complete reform. Communal elections were also held in Galicia.

As regards the Eastern Counties, a circular of August 26, 1921, ordered the collection of detailed statistics prior to the establishment of Jewish communes on the basis of those existing in the former Congress Kingdom. This matter will be finally decided in the near future.

Amongst the many problems which have been settled satisfactorily by the Ministry of Religions and Education in connection with the development of the Jewish community in Poland, the establishment of the first College for Teachers of Jewish Religion deserves notice. Furthermore, a College of Rabbis and a "Union of Rabbis of the Republic of Poland" had also been established.

Matters in connection with the Jewish faith are dealt with in a special Government publication, which appears periodically and contains all legislation in connection with Jewish communes and similar matters. Three volumes of this publication have already been printed; they give a complete record of all work undertaken by the Polish Government for the welfare of the Jewish community.

7.-The Mohammedans.

In accordance with a Russian statute, which is still in force, all spiritual matters of Mohammedans in western Russia and Congress Poland were settled, in the last instance, by a Mufti who resided in the Crimea. Parishes were governed by Immams, who also kept Registers of Births, Deaths, etc. Muezzins took the services in the mosques.

Owing to the impossibility of communication with the Crimea during the war, the Mohammedan Church in Poland remained without a spiritual head, although its former organisation has been retained. The Immams receive subsidies from the State Treasury,

and usually own small plots of land adjoining the mosques. Subsidies are also granted by the State to the lower clergy.

The number of Mohammedans in Poland is about 6,000. They inhabit mainly the Counties of Wilno, Nowogrodek and Bialystok; some are also found in the Counties of Warsaw, Wolhynia and Polesie.

There are in Poland about 1,000 members of the Caraitic faith possessing their own religious communes in Troki, Luck and Halicz, which are headed by "hazzans."

The Land Credit Association of Warsaw.

The Land Credit Association of Warsaw will celebrate this year the rooth anuiversary of its foundation. It is the oldest and the most reliable financial Institution of Poland. Established in 1825, it is a long-term credit institution which provides landowners with credit guaranteed by a mortgage on land. During the 100 years of its existence the Land Credit Association of Warsaw has played a very important part in the social and economic life of Poland. Based upon perfect confidence of the agricultural population of Poland, it has always been useful to those who needed a helpful hand in the hard times of economic crisis, especially after the Polish Issurrection in 1863.

During the long time of its existence, the operations of the L.C.A. of Warsaw have been successfully carried on under the management of well known and prominent Polish statesmen, as Prince Drucki-Lubecki, the then Minister of Finance, who was the founder of the L.C.A.; Count Andrew Zamoyski, the well-known leader of the Insurrection in 1863; Lewis Gorski and Prince Vladimir Czetwertynski, Presidents of the L.C.A.; Eustace Dobiecki, a prominent agriculturist and economist, member of the Russian Council of Ministers and President of the L.C.A.; Ladislas Grabski—the present Prime Minister and Minister of Finance of Poland.

The L.C.A. of Warsaw has the right of issuing its own obligations for a period from 15 to 39 years.

The L.C.A. is based upon unlimited liability of all associated landowners. Every borrower is a landowner who mortgages his estate to the Association. Every estate pledged to the Association belongs to a certain group of land in accordance with the classification of the land as sanctioned by the Minister of Finance. The rates are, of course, lower than the actual selling price and amount to about 40 per cent. of the real value of the land. Moneys lent to landowners on their estates may amount to 50 per cent. of the price fixed by the terms of the classification. It is, therefore, well understood, that the money lent to borrowers by the L.C.A. makes no more than about 20 per cent. of the real value. Consequently the obligations of the L.C.A. are fully secured and the payment of interests and principal of all the obligations is totally guaranteed owing to a special privilege of execution granted to the L.C.A.

The L.C.A. has the right of collecting all calls due from borrowers directly by means of a public sale. The Association is not obliged to bring an action against the borrowers. The estates pledged to the L.C.A. can, in case of need, be put up for public auction according to the Statutes of the L.C.A. of Warsaw.

THE BANK ZIEMIANSKI OF WARSAW.

The Bank Ziemianski is the property of the Land Credit Association of Warsaw. The subscribed capital of the Bank Ziemianski formerly amounted to 3,000,000 gold roubles. The actual subscribed capital of the Bank is 5,000,000 zlotys. Besides doing general banking business the Bank Ziemianski also lends money to industrial enterprises and especially to those of which the production is based upon agriculture, such as sugar mills, potato product factories, distilleries, flour mills, etc.

The Bank Ziemianski is an entirely independent Institution and has 25 branches in the country. It also owns a considerable amount of real property. It has the exclusive privilege among all other Banks of issuing its own short-termed obligations for a period of five years. These obligations are based upon security on agricultural properties. Though the subscribed capital of the Bank is moderate in comparison with the importance of its operations and its good standing, it is one of the most reliable and highly esteemed Banks in Poland, owing to the fact that the Land Credit Association of Warsaw is fully responsible for all its operations. Being a large co-operative Society the L.C.A. is based upon the unlimited liability of all associated landowners, whose estates are pledged to the Association. No one Institution in Poland is able to give a similar security. The Bank Ziemianski is practically responsible not only for its own capital—but for the capital and properties of the L.C.A. and the joint solidarity of all the associated landowners, i.e., more than 2,500,000 acres of land, representing a value of several milliard 2lotys.

The Land Credit Association of

DESCRIPTION OF STREET OF STREET

BANK ZIEMIAŃSKI

Capital Stock - ZL5,000,000 Reserve Fund - ZL720,000

PRODUCTION

AGRICULTURE FORESTRY
MINING
MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

All Banking business transacted.

Boundars in other Cities of Poland.

The Earli is canced by The Lord Coolit Association of Versay. This Association is lasted open unformed liability of all associated landowners (more than two million acres of land).

BANK ZIEMIAŃSKI

Capital Stock - Zl.5,000,000 Reserve Fund - Zl.720,000

Head Office: Warsaw, 1 Kredytowa.

City Branch:
Warsaw, 30 Kopernika.

24 Branches in other Cities of Poland.

All Banking business transacted.

The Bank is owned by The Land Credit Association of Warsaw. This Association is based upon unlimited liability of all associated landowners (more than two million acres of land).

I. AGRICULTURE IN POLAND.

Agriculture occupies a predominant position in the economic life of Poland; no less than 65 per cent. of her population earn their

living by the cultivation of the soil.

Unfortunately, unfavourable economic conditions, which have hindered the development of agriculture ever since the reestablishment of the Republic, have made the export of Polish agricultural produce very difficult; which could not, therefore, attain that important position in the world markets which it

rightly deserves.

The shortage of foodstuffs, which was the natural consequence of war, the unstable economic conditions of the country, which could not settle down all at once—all these circumstances have been adverse to the development of normal-trade relations between Poland and the corn-importing countries. In consequence, the importance of Poland as a source of agricultural supplies is greatly underestimated on the markets of the world.

It may not be out of place in view of the above to give at least a very short sketch of the conditions of agriculture in Poland, which has in so short a time recovered from the devastation inflicted by the ravages of the late war. It has already reached its pre-war standard and further development is steadily progressing.

1. Distribution of Land Property.

The entire area of cultivated land is very unevenly distributed amongst various landowners. Small agricultural holdings form over 50 per cent. of the whole area: these are concentrated mostly in Galicia and in the former Congress Kingdom; whereas large estates are a predominant feature in the western and eastern provinces of the country.

The following figures illustrate this statement:-

200	Total	Per- cent-		Number of Estates. (000's omitted.)									
_	Area (in 1,000 ha.).	age of Total Area.	Total.	Less than 2 ha.	From 2 to 5 ha.	From 5 to 20 ha.	From 20 to 50 ha.	From 50 to 500 ha.	Over 500 ha.				
Small estates	24,646-2	63.5	3,298 5	1,111-4	1,010-4	1,069 2	107.5	_	_				
Large estates	14,186-6	36.5	19,457	_				15,202	4,255				

2. Distribution of Estates in the various Counties.

		Area	Per- cent-				r of Est			
County.		(in age of Total Area.		Total No.	Less than 2 ha.	From 2 to 5 ha.	From 5 to 20 ha.	From 20 to 50 ha.	From 50 to 500 ha.	Ove 500 ha.
Warsaw:										
Large estate	s	983 9	33.4	1,660.0	-		_	_	1,265	404
Small		1,959.2	66.6	232-6	53:4	50.4	114.5	14:3	_	-
Lódź:		-1303 -								
Large		539.3	28 3	946.0	_	-	_	_	701	245
Small ,		1,364.1	71.7	202.6	48.8	59.3	89.8	4.7	_	-
Kielce:										
Large ,,		780.0	30.3	846.0	_		_	_	615	231
Small ,,		1,793.6	69 . 7	310.3	82.9	114.3	110.3	2.9	_	_
Lublin :										_
Large		865-4	27.8	911.0	_		_	-	603	308
Small "		2,250.6	72.2	294.5	57.3	92.7	138.0	6.5	_	_
Bialystok:										
Large ,,		1.013-5	31.1	965.0	-	_		-	765	200
Small ,		2,250.2	68.9	183 0	28 · I	47.2	97.4	10.3	_	
Wilno:										
Large ,,		1,081.9	38 · I	2,544.0	_	-			2,278	266
Small ,		1,759.6	61.0	122.4	13.5	35.0	64.0	9.8	-	-
Nowogrodek :		-1107								
Large		840.0	36.4	1,238.0	-	_		_	1,009	229
Small ,		1,464.6	63.6	133.1	17.5	51.5	58.6	5'9		dame,
Polesie :		1 1								
Large ,,		2.088 0	49.4	856 o		_	-	_	499	357
Small ,,		2,139.8	50.6	142 0	20.4	47.3	66.1	8.2	_	-
Wolhynia:		,								
Large ,,		1,033 0	34°I	852 0	_	_	-	— <u> </u>	56a	292
Small ,,		1,996-4	65 9	226.7	32.2	85.5	103.5	5.8	_	-
Poznań:										
Large ,,		_	_	<u> </u>	_	-	_	_	2,025	551
Small ,,		1,246.6	46.9	173.4	80.4	23.4	52.9	16.7	_	
Pomerania:		' '								
Large ,		871.4	53.2	2,355 0	-		_		2,147	208
Small ,,		767.2	46.8	89.7	34 5	13.7	29.4	13.1	-	7
Kraków:										
Large		390.0	22.4	618.0		_	-	-	505	113
Small "		1,354.8	77.6	291.2	129 0	110.4	49.7	2 · I	_	_
Lwow:		,,,,,								
Large		844.2	31.2	948.0	_	-	-	_	594	354
Small ,,		1,858.2	68 - 8	393.0	206.7	140.5	43.6	3.1	_	-
Stanislawow:							100			
Large ,,		681.5	37.1	426.0	_	-		_	266	160
Small ,,		1,155-3	62.9	236.9	159.9	507-3	17 6	2 · I	_	-
Tarnopol:										-0
Large ,		542.4	33'4	590.0	_	-	-	90	303	287
Small ,,		1,081.6	66.6	251-5	138.9	78.5	31 6	2.5	June .	-
Silesia :										
Large ,,		218-4	51.6	117.0		_	-		67	50
Small ,		205.0	48.4	14.7	7.8	3.7	2.7	0 5	-	-
_ ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,								1		1

Thus, it appears that small estates are predominant in the Galician counties, whereas large properties are to be found mostly in the counties of Poznań and Polesie, where 25 per cent. of all large estates are situated.

Comparing the figures of the last census of landed property of 1921 with those of previous years we can observe a decline in the numbers of large estates and a corresponding increase in the smaller ones.

It is to be noted that the official Polish statistics include estates of over 50 ha. in the group of large properties. Thus—

Co	County.		Area of Lar Estates (in		settanena
			1909.	1921.	
Warsaw Lodz Kielce Lublin Bialystok	::	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	1,134 0 658 9 741 7 1,047 7 169 1	846·2 445·9 493·8 742·4 125·1	The number of State-owned estates has also decreased, as these were apportioned and distributed to small agricultural holders by the Government.

Apportionment Tenancies.

In the foregoing table, showing the comparative distribution of large and small properties within the Republic, all interests in land have been described as "Estates." This term is not altogether correct, since the figures in question are compiled from two different returns, viz., the census of large properties taken on 21st September, 1920, and of small holdings taken in 1921. The latter, including also State-owned property, dealt with "Estates" in the proper sense of the word; i.e., excluded tenancies which were, however, included in the census of 1920. This difference of methods in compiling statistics makes the issue somewhat obscure, especially as there are no data concerning tenancies of large estates. The only figures available are those relating to leases, from year to year, of small plots of land. These are cultivated by the lessee with his own live stock and machines. The lessees are usually neighbouring farmers and the rent is not infrequently paid in kind. Such tenancies are known under the name of "apportionment tenancies."

Apportionment tenancies predominate in the county of Silesia, where they form 30·3 per cent. of all arable land, and in the counties of Wolhynia and Krakow. Shortage of agricultural land and the damages caused by the war to existing farms (in Wolhynia) favour the development of this kind of land tenancies.

3. Cultivation of Land.

The whole area of land suitable for agricultural purposes may be divided into the following categories:—

Arable land	18,307,800 ha.,	i.e.,	48.6 per	cent.	of the	total area.
Meadows	3,838,000 ha.,	32	10.3	11	23	
Pastures	2,528,600 ha.,	9.0	6.7	"	2.3	40
Forests	9,052,100 ha.,	13	24 · I	2.2	12	.,,
Waste land	3,924,800 ha.,	11	10.4	22 10	,	17,111

The comparatively small area occupied by meadows and pasture' land is significant: it confirms the fact that corn-growing is at present the chief feature of Polish agriculture.

4. Corn-growing.

It is, however, hoped that these two classes of land will greatly develop in the near future, for, as will be seen below, such development is warranted by rapidly growing cattle-breeding, which has in Poland excellent prospects of success.

At present the chief articles of Polish agricultural produce are rye, oats, wheat, barley and potatoes.

The area of cultivation of each of these products prior to the war was as follows:—

Wheat	 	 1,341,000	ha,
Rye	 	 5,080,000	2.5
Oats	 	 2,739,000	0.0
Barley	 	 1,259,000	
Potatoes	 	 2 384,000	22

The total area of land on which these five main cereals were cultivated before the war amounted to 12,767,000 ha., whilst in the year 1923-24 the figure was only 11,624,000 ha. This decline is due to the system of apportionment of land and the consequent utilisation of land for other purposes.

The corresponding figures for 1924 are:-

			0 -44	In Proportion to	pre-War Figures.
				1921.	1922-23.
Wheat	 120		1,073,000 ha.	79.3 per cent.	105.3 per cent.
D	 		4,417,000 ,,	86.8	95.1 .,
xye			2,285,000 ,,	94.0 11	102.8
	 0.0	9.0			
Rye Dats Barley	 		1,218,000 ,,	96.3 "	101.6 "

Figures relating to the crops of these products in Poland are preceded by the following comparative Table of the corresponding crops in other countries:—

7 10 - 1130	Wheat,	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Potatocs.
- 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	Tota (in 1,000 tots)	Total In 1,000 to 18,	Total (la 1, co tous). Quintals	Total (in 1,000 tons). Quintals per 1 ha.	Total (in 1,000 tons). Quintals per 1 ha.
Austria: 1909–13 Czechoslovakia:	1,655.8 13.6	2,799·6 330 c 9·8	1,655.4 15.1	2,387 3 12 8 9 2	12,423·8 — 1,083·1 70·6
1909-13 1922 Denmark :	829 3 13.4	1,163.3 13.2	917.6 13.6	936.5 11.5	7,905 3 121.0
1909-13 1922 France:	150 9 31 · 9 230 · 4 24 · 0				846·8 146·1 1,204 0 145·8
1909-13 1922 Germany:	8,644·7 6,405·7 12·5		1,049.0 13.1	5·156·9 13-0 4,183·9 12·6	13,318·8 85·0 13,133·9 90·2
1909-13	4,140.0 21.4	11,309.3 18·2 5,233·9 12·6	3,342.7 20.7	8,592·9 4,015 5 12·5	45,775 · 9 137 · 0 40,665 · 4 149 · 4
1909-13 1922 Italy	2,389·3 12·9 2,504·1 9·5		544 · I 10 · 2 2,041 · 8 II · 8	421·6 9·4 1,276·3 9·6	_ 85.5
1909-13 1922 Great Britain and Ireland	4,989 6 4,370 0 9 5		220·0 8·9 165·0 7·6		1,654·9 57·6 1,265·0 40·2
1909-13 1922 Poland:	1,623 · 2 21 · 3				6,924 · 7 146 · 8 5,261 · 1 100 · 9
1911-13 1923 Former German Province of	1,728.0 12.6	5,734·0 11·3 5,962·4 12·8	1,585.0 12.0 1,655.5 13.8	2,813 0 10·3 3,522·4 14·0	23,345 0 103·5 26,494·2 116·0
Poland: 1911-13	- 18·6				— 144·3 — 131·8

The corresponding crops in Poland during the last few years were as follows:—

		ooo's of Quinta	1923-24 Crop in Percentage of Crops in		
1000	1923-24.	1922-23.	1909-13.	1922-23.	1909-13.
Wheat Rye Barley Oats Potatoes	 8,844·5 36,548·2 12,081·2 24,119·6 268,696·0	13,535·7 59,623·9 16,551·1 35,224·0 264,942·5	17,044 · 2 57,485 · 1 10,185 · 4 28,314 · 3 252,999 5	65·3 61·3 73·0 68·5	51.9 63.6 79.6 85.2 106.2

The considerable decline of crops in the year 1923-24 was caused by the exceptionally bad harvest, which not only Poland, but also most European countries had that year. The difficult position of agriculture has also to be considered, since the prices of corn were then comparatively lower than the standard prices of industrial produce.

The full extent of the losses sustained in consequence of the disastrously bad harvest will be seen from the following comparison of crops collected from one hectare of land in 1924 and in the preceding year:—

	_	_		1924.	1923.
Wheat				8-2 Quintals	13·3 Quintals
Rve			 	8.3	12.8
Barley			 	9.9 "	13.8
ats			 	9'3 10	114 0 ,,
Potatoes			 	115-0 ,,	116.0 "

Thus, as will be seen, the least affected by the crop failure were potatoes.

5. Exports of Cereals.

The crop failure of 1923-24 had the most damaging effect on Poland's agricultural exports. Representatives of farmers and landowners have but recently succeeded in bringing about a total abolition of all restrictions as regards exports of agricultural produce. The imposition of these restrictions was warranted by the general tariff policy of the Government—a policy pursued at one time or other by practically every European country.

The export restrictions were abolished in 1924, and in that year the following quantities of cereals were exported from Poland:—

Rye	 	 	106,456	tons.	
Barley	 	 	127,691	,,	
Potatoes	 	 	271.605		

The value of these exports, of which the above are only the most important items, amounted to 50,000,000 zlotys, according to official returns.

These figures are significant in view of the fact that Poland, even at the present stage of its agricultural development, is in a position to export about 1,500,000 tons of wheat and rye, about 1,500,000 tons of barley. These three items alone represent an equivalent of 300,000,000 zlotys.

Destination of Exports.

The bulk of the rye exports in 1924 was destined to Austria, and the remainder to Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Holland, and also, in the ninth place, to Great Britain, which took 26,603 quintals.

Barley was sold, in the first instance, to Germany; then to Belgium, Sweden, Denmark and Holland.

Potatoes were sent mainly to Germany; then to France and Great Britain; smaller quantities were purchased by Belgium and Holland.

Discussing the possibilities of Polish exports, we have assumed the present stage of development of Poland's agriculture. We must remember, however, that Poland is composed of various provinces, which, under different rule, attained different stages of agricultural development.

The crops collected in 1923 from one hectare of cultivated land in the different parts of the country were as follows:—

Succession of the second		- 30	Quintals.		
General III	Wheat.	Ryc.	Barley.	Oats.	Potatoes.
Former Congress Kingdom	15 0	13.6	15.4	16.2	108-8
Eastern Counties	11.1	9.4	9 6	9.2	104.0
Former German Provinces	18.6	14.8	19.4	10.6	132.0
Galicia	II.O	11.1	11.7	12.1	126.0
Silesia	15 0 .	14'1	16.3	15.7	104.7

These differences will, no doubt, be equalised gradually through a more complete uniformity of industrial and economic conditions. The development of agriculture throughout the country in accordance with the standard prevailing in the western counties will result in a tremendous advance in agricultural production and in the exports of cereals.

6. Seed Culture.

Apart from cereals in the strict meaning of the word, the production of seeds plays an important part in Polish agriculture, both in view of the far-reaching projects for improvement of crops and in view of the very favourable possibilities of exportation.

There are at present in Poland 36 nurseries of agricultural plants; many of these have branches in various parts of the country. Poland may justly pride herself that, in spite of the cessation of all research work during the war, her seed culture does not only equal, but in many ways surpasses the production of her Western neighbours.

The precision of technical work which aims at direct definitions by means of simple, yet precise instruments, excellent material for systematic grafting, a constant control over all experimental fields, together with a clear and simple method of statistics—all this enables Polish seed producers to surpass, in many cases, their Western colleagues.

In addition to practical knowledge acquired in nurseries, the theory of seed culture has not been neglected. The science of inheritance, which is not applied directly for practical purposes, has many brilliant exponents in Poland amongst professors at the Universities and amongst the staff of the Institute of Science at Pulawy.

Amongst the various provinces of Poland, the former Congress Kingdom occupies the chief place as regards seed culture. A considerable amount of work in this direction has also been done in

the former German provinces.

Competitions are held regularly and give encouragement to the producers. The first competition of different varieties of sugar beet seeds was held in Warsaw in 1891 and gave excellent results. The cultivation of these seeds has been carried on systematically ever since, and in consequence Polish producers are able successfully to compete with the German product, which has hitherto predominated on the world markets.

As regards the volume of production of agricultural seeds, figures relating to the whole country are available only since 1922. The following area was cultivated systematically in Poland:—

			74	1922.	1923.
Rye Wheat	 			6,611 hectares	6,103 hectares
Wheat	 			2,786	2,976 ,,
Barley	 			2,469 ,,	2,976 ,, 2,089 ,,
Oats	 	4.0		3,638 ,,	3,015

Taking into consideration the various projects for increasing the crops of Polish fields by means of selected seeds, it is plain that this branch of agriculture will not, for a considerable time, be able to export its output.

On the other hand seeds other than those enumerated above are exported in large quantities. This applies particularly to

clover, lupine, fodder beet, and carrots.

Polish clover is in great demand on the West European markets.

The following firms specialise in this branch of seed culture:—
"Udycz," S.A. in Boruski, Wolhynia.

"Granum," S.A. in Lyszkowice, near Krakow.

Potato seeds are also sought after, especially in Germany; these are produced by the following firms:—

Wiktor Dolkowski, in Kanczuga.

Dr. E. Chrzanowski, in Nowa Wies, Galicia.

"Granum," S.A. in Lyszkowice.
"Udycz," S.A. in Zerkow.

"Udycz," S.A. in Przeworsk, Galicia.

"Siew" Company in the County of Poznań.
H. V. Parpart in Zamarte, Pomerania.

Modrow in Gwizdzyn, Pomerania.

These nurseries cultivate about & varieties of potatoes. Their value for agricultural purposes is determined by the Seeds Section of the Polish Union of Agricultural Organisations. The Government strongly supports the activities of this Section and grants subsidies for the execution of its projects.

Grass seeds are cultivated by the following:-

"Udycz," S.A. in Przeworsk.
"Granum" S.A. in Lyszkowice.
Leszczynski Brothers in Skierniewice.
The Institute of Science in Pulawy.

The latter also cultivates lupine, which is similarly produced

by the Siew Company in Wloszczow, Poznań.

Only two firms specialise in the cultivation of fodder beets, viz., "A. Dobrzanski and Co.," in Budziszowice, and Wiechman in Fijow, Pomerania. Sugar beet seeds are produced in great quantities, and are already meeting the home demand notwith-standing the fact that before the War, 75 per cent. of sugar beet seed production was in the hands of foreigners. The exports of these seeds are also increasing and compete successfully with seeds of German origin.

As regards garden seeds, we are informed that Polish emigrants in Brazil demand Polish seeds, which give more satisfactory results

than the German.

Export of Seeds and its Value.

					1924.	
Seeds o	f clover				 4,866	tons.
20	10 44				 14,015	
	lupine			0 .	 7,980	11
11	vetch				 16,626	,,
12	sugar beet				 2,750	**
2.0	fodder and	indust	rial pla	nts	 561	7.2
Linseed					 6,702	,,
	il-producing	seeds			 10,716	
Miscella	neous				 760	

The estimated value of these exports is 30 million zlotys.

In connection with the gradual restoration of agricultural undertakings after the damages caused by the Great War this branch of agriculture shows a tendency towards further development.

The bulk of Polish seeds exported in 1924 was destined for Germany; considerable quantities of Polish clover were exported to Denmark and Holland, and of vetch to Sweden. Czechoslovakia imported quantities of lupine and sugar beet seeds. The latter were also exported to Italy and Spain, whereas linseed was

absorbed by Latvia. Enquiries were also received from Great Britain, France and the United States.

7. Gardening.

This branch of agriculture has excellent prospects of further development, although at present gardening, and especially fruit-growing, does not satisfy the demands of the home markets, in spite of the excellent natural conditions of development. Thus, in 1922 92,985 quintals of fresh fruit (excluding oranges and lemons) were imported into Poland, and only 7,456 exported. The corresponding figures for 1923 were 62,951 quintals and 32,086 respectively, and in 1924, 36,862 quintals of fresh fruit were imported and 18,000 exported. Although these figures include fruit which, in view of the climatic conditions, cannot be grown to any appreciable extent in Poland (such as grapes, apricots, peaches, etc.) the proportion of imports to exports is abnormal for a country having such excellent conditions for fruit-growing. It is to be hoped that in the near future, Polish fruit-growing will not only meet the home demand, but will also export a considerable surplus.

The same remarks apply, unfortunately, also to flower-growing, for nothing can justify the importation of cut flowers into Poland. In 1924, 452 quintals of flowers were imported from Germany and Italy; the value of these imports amounted to 237,000 zlotys.

8. Breeding of Live Stock.

This branch of agriculture is almost traditionally connected with farming. Unfortunately, the ravages of the War have caused great damage to live stock-breeding and in consequence, its development will be retarded for many years

There has been, however, the beginning of intensive activity throughout the country in order to remedy this state of affairs. The Government supports this action most strongly and has in 1923 granted subsidies to live stock breeders to the extent of 10 million zlotys.

The inventory of live stock throughout the country taken in 1921 shows the following figures:—

		1	In 1921.	-		Before the War (1910).
Horses Cattle			 3,201,166 7,894,568	Horses		3,402,600 8,371,800
Sheep			 2,178,216	Sheep and goats	- 0	4,277,100
Pigs	. 4		 5,170,612	Pigs		5,231,100
Goats		1.4	 300,000			
Poultry Hives			 40,000,000 734,000			

The production of dry fodder (hay and straw) amounts yearly to about 300,000,000 tons. In addition, 10,400,000 tons of potatoes, 3,000,000 tons of other fodder plants, and 6,600,000 tons of agricultural waste had been used as fodder.

2,200,000 tons of oil cake, molasses and chaff were also used for

fodder.

The output of products of animal origin is represented by the following figures:—

Annual production of-

Meat	. approximately	798,486 tons.
Feathers and do	own ,,	2,700 ,,
Milk	11	4,361,766 ,,
Raw wool .	* **	2,645 ,,
Sea and river fi	sh ,,	4,000 ,,
Lake fish . Eggs	• 11	16,000 ,,
3370.00	9 19	93,000 ,,
Ox hides .	"	773,000 hides
Horse hides .	* ,,	266,000 ,,
Sheep hides .		871,000 ,,
Calf hides .	1 19	3,388,000 ,,
Lard		50,000 tons.

As regards the exports, it must be remembered that severe restrictions were imposed on exports of all agricultural products, and especially on those of animal origin during the last few years. The following quantities were exported from Poland during the years 1921 and 1924, respectively:

	1921.	1924.	Value in Zloty: (1924).
Live stock Foodstuffs Raw products Semi-products Finished products	 207,692 heads 163,052 tons 1,470,641 ,, 16,270 ,, 377,971 ,,	930,237 heads 221,662 tons 690,050 ,, 28,230 ,, 215,500 ,,	46,924,200 37,121,560 16,821 000 14,028,000 52,565,000

The above figures show that even during a period of severe restrictions, the production was proportionate to the extremely favourable conditions of the country.

It is almost certain that, considering the agricultural character of the country, the abundance of fodder, and density of the population in villages, Poland will, as regards animal production, occupy the

fourth, if not the third, place in Europe.

At present Poland occupies the third place amongst the European countries only as regards horse-breeding, although much remains to be done to improve the various breeds which

are at present adapted to local conditions, as is usual in countries producing local breeds of horses.

Horse-Breeding.

In the former Russian provinces and partly also in Galicia. horses are of Oriental origin, although a considerable percentage derive their origin from English thoroughbreds. In the former German provinces, the animals are usually bulky and are suited for work on the clay soil of Pomerania.

Cattle.

Two breeds of cattle predominate in Poland, viz., the usual low-country black-and-white variety, and the peculiarly Polish red cattle. The latter breed is becoming more and more popular, for, although it is inferior to others as regards size and weight, it is capable of producing large quantities of rich milk. Other varieties of dairy cattle are found in the Pokucie district and also in the county of Polesie.

The black-and-white breed produces abundant quantities of milk, which contains, however, a rather low percentage of fat. Systematic action has been taken to remedy this defect by means of specially selective mating. This work is controlled by the Breeding Department of the Agricultural Society in Warsaw, and a similar Department of the Pomeranian Chamber of

Agriculture in Torun.

The development of cattle-breeding is always proportionate to the development of various industries producing articles of animal origin. Thus, the Balkan States, possessing large numbers of cattle and a surplus of fodder could have easily developed breeding, if they had sufficiently well developed the corresponding industries. Countries in which these industries are well developed, such as Denmark, or, indeed, the United States, possess an abundance of breeding material and a rapidly developing production. Poland, although possessing most favourable natural conditions. has a comparatively poor breeding material, which is explained by the fact that the meat industry is in the initial stages of its development. Some of the factories are, however, well equipped, such as the one in Czerniewice, near Wloclawek, which is capable of dealing with about 70,000 head of cattle annually. This factory is already exporting considerable quantities of bacon to England. The factory of Meat Preserves in Bydgoszcz supplies canned meat for the Army. Other important factories are the "Silesian" factory in Mikolow, equipped with an up-to-date slaughter-house and producing both tinned meat and sausages; the "Silesia," with about the same capacity and equipment; "Hofflinger and Rucker," in Lwow; "Produkt." in Warsaw, and many other smaller factories in Grudziadz, Rzeszow, Sanok,

Zywiec, etc. The total capacity of all these factories does not, however, exceed 10 per cent. of the cattle produced in Poland. In consequence, a great increase of activity can be expected in the near future; this will in turn give a fresh impulse to Polish cattle-breeding.

Pigs.

It is difficult to classify the total stock of pigs according to breeds. In the former German provinces, the German type, often crossed with the Yorkshire breed, prevails. In Galicia, the English variety is predominant, whereas in the former Congress Kingdom the English is usually mixed with local breeds.

A comparative table of live stock in different countries is appended:—

-	1			1					
	H	orses.		C	attle.]	Hogs.	
Country.	Total No.	Per 1,000 Inhabitants.	Per 1,000 Hectaret.	Total No.	Per 1 000 Inhabitants	Per 1,000 Hectares.	Total No.	,000 htant	Per 1 000
Sweden Belgium	2,213,053 3,683,000 2,635,350 597,988 133,847 368,668 1,802,000 715,681 220,050 3,201,166	61 5 67 2 183 0 34 7 53 2 103 6 122 4 29 8	78·4 47·8 139·0 32·4 106·4 61·0 16·0 73·0	13,217,240 2,590,903 1,424,856 2,062,771 5,937,200 2,550,828	281·3 337·1 792·9 369 0 301·5 351·2 436·3 203·1	358·3 239·9 602·3 345·0 603·4 207·3 56·9 498·I	15,886,000 4,941,960 1,429,908 638,761 1,519,245 3,147,000 716,783 975,748	265·2 126·0 437·6 165·4 222·1 180·9 122·6 128·0	339 8

Conclusion.

It is evident from this concise sketch of the conditions of Polish agriculture and farming that the country is already recovering from the damages caused by the wars of 1914-21, and there is every prospect of an intense development in the future. This has been made possible by the efforts of the entire nation no less than by the immense natural riches of the country.

8. STOCK-BREEDING.

9. Horse-Breeding.

Conditions in Poland as regards climate and fodder are very favourable to horse-breeding. Owing to the abundance of pasture land and the considerable production of oats, horse-breeding showed very rapid development during the pre-war period, as can be seen from the following table. The compilation is based on figures relative to the whole area of Poland before its partition, the figures being given separately for each of the partitioned territories:—

_	1870.	1880.	1890.	1900.	1910.
Former Russian Poland Eastern Provinces Former German Poland Former Austrian Poland	 592 2,057 489 696	In Th 1,037 2,802 515 735	ousands of 1,207 562 766	Heads. 1,392 3,560 627 869	1,227 3,684 688 906

In the year 1910 the total number of horses within the frontiers of the present Polish Republic amounted to 3,496 thousand head.

The European war had had devastating effects on horse-breeding. Requisitions by the army and warlike operations destroyed the greater part of the horses, particularly in former Russian and Austrian Poland. Apart from this, all thorough-bred and half-bred horses in former Russian Poland were evacuated to Russia and the remaining horses, being overworked and underfed, gradually perished. Not until the end of the War and of enemy occupation did horse-breeding begin to revive. Nevertheless when the census was taken in 1921 (September 30th) there were fewer horses than 10 years previously (in 1916), the total number in the whole country being 3,290 thousand head. The eastern counties in particular have suffered in this respect, as on the territory now belonging to Poland there were in the year 1900, or 25 years ago, 827 thousand horses, while in 1921 the number only reached 681 thousand.

As regards the absolute number of horses, Poland is

surpassed in Europe only by Russia and Germany.

In proportion to her area and population, and notwith-standing the heavy war losses, Poland possesses per 1,000 has. of territory 84·7 horses, and per 1,000 inhabitants—121·1 horses. In proportion to the total area Poland is surpassed only by Denmark in regard to the number of horses and by Denmark and the United States of America in respect of the ratio between the number of horses and the population. There are 13·3 horses in Poland per every 100 has. of cultivated land. Galicia, without the highland regions, being best provided in this respect, as also Wolhynia, where there are 18 horses per 100 has. of cultivated land. From the point of view of land cultivation, the number of horses per 100 has. of arable land is the best determination of the wealth of farmers as regards horses. There were in the various provinces of Poland the following numbers of horses:—

Warsaw		15.9	Volhynia		 26.0
Lodz		18.3	975		 15.7
Kielce		19.3	Pomerania		 15.7
Lublin		20·I	Silesia		 16.7
Bialystok		16.1	Krakow		 16.6
Wilno		13.1	Lwow	**	 27·I
Nowogrodek		13.2	Stanislawov	V	 22·I
Polesia		9.6	Tarnopol		 21.6
Average	for 1	the whole	of Poland		T8.0

Average for the whole of Poland 18.0

It can be seen from the above that the whole of former Eastern Galicia (the counties of Lwow, Stanislawow and Tarnopol), Wolhynia and the southern part of the former Congress Kingdom (the counties of Lodz, Kielce and Lublin) are all well provided. In the western counties, such as Pomerania, Poznania and Silesia, a considerable amount of various powermachines is now being used, which causes a diminution in the employment of horses. The most deficient are the northeastern counties (Wilno, Nowogrodek and Polesia). Of the total number of horses in Poland the number owned by big landowners represents just over 15 per cent., the remainder being the property of small farmers. Small farmers are the principal breeders, the local type of horse being a mixed breed, with a large percentage of Eastern blood, and is light and medium-sized.

10. Cattle-Breeding.

During the years preceding the war the number of cattle decreased in all districts of Poland, except in former German Poland. This decrease started at an even earlier date in former Congress Poland, and was more marked.

The following figures show the number of cattle on the territory of Poland according to provinces (in thousand

heads):-

In the Year	. 0	1870.	1880.	1890.	1900.	1910.
Former Russian Poland		1,997	-	3,013	2,823	2,267
Eastern Counties	- 44	3,824	4,437	_	6,736	6,225
Former German Poland		1,445	1,543	1,782	2,000	2,139
Former Galicia		2,071	2,243	2,448	2,718	2,503

The decrease in the course of the last decade is explained by the unfavourable conditions prevailing as regards the breeding of cattle for meat, which was caused by the bad organisation of the fodder trade as well as the competition of Ukrainian cattle in former Russian Poland and of Hungarian cattle in former Galicia. Only on the territory of former German Poland was the breeding of fat stock based on firm foundations. In former Congress Poland yet another cause brought about a diminution in the number of cattle—viz., the decreased number of oxen employed in agricultural work owing to intensified production and lack of labour

which was due to the large number of emigrants.

The European war was the cause of a further very significant fall in the number of cattle. After the conclusion of hostilities, however, cattle-breeding began to revive, so that by the end of 1921 the total remaining deficiency was not very great. In pre-war times the total number of cattle bred on the territory of the present Polish Republic amounted to 8,664 thousand head, and at the end of 1921 the number reached 8,063 thousand head. This number grew rapidly, and on the 1st January, 1925, it was estimated that the total number reached the figure of approximately 8,604 thousand head. There is every reason to anticipate further steady growth, as cattle-breeding, both as regards stock and milch cattle, is becoming more and more remunerative. Fat stock bred in the country at present not only meets the demands of the home market but, as a consequence of the recent aboli-

tion of export restrictions, is also being exported abroad in increasing quantities. For example, at the beginning of 1925 the following were exported:—

In	January		 		7,205 head.
,,	February	0 0	 		7,697 ,,
	March		 4 6	0.0	8,378 ,,
,,	April		 		3,773 ,,

The export of cattle is directed mainly to Czechoslovakia and Austria. Milch-cattle breeding, too, is gradually, although slowly, improving and increasing, but so far it is not yet extensive.

As regards the absolute number of cattle in Europe, Poland occupies the fourth place after Russia, Germany and France.

For every 1,000 has, of the total area of Poland there are 207.6 head of cattle, while for every 1,000 inhabitants, 296.7 head.

These figures are inadequate, but they will, no doubt, grow rapidly, as agriculture in Poland clearly follows the policy of intensified cattle-breeding, particularly as a consequence of the parcelling of large land estates into small holdings. For every 100 has, of cultivated land there are on an average for the whole of Poland 32.7 head of cattle, some districts being more liberally supplied than others. The best districts in this respect are the southern counties (particularly the County of Krakow, with 56.9 head, and Lwow, with 45.1 head) and the western counties (Poznań, 42.5, and Silesia, 53.8). The worst are the north-eastern counties (Wilno, 14.9; Nowogrodek, 22.2; and Polesia, 18.4). As far as natural conditions for cattle-breeding are concerned, they depend to a large degree upon the area of grazing and pasture land. The following table sets forth the number of cattle to every 100 hectares of meadow and pasture land in the various counties of Poland :-

Warsaw		191.6	head.	Volhynia		100.9	head.
Lodz	4.	246.7	,,	Poznań		311.6	
Kielce	4.	198.7		Pomerania		218.9	,,
Lublin		133.4	,,	Silesia		241.0	29
T) :			12	TP .		216.3	
Wilno		47.0	"	I.wow			,,
Nowogrodek		61.1		Stanisiawow	• •		**
Dal:-			2.2	Tarnopol		, ,	2.2
		42·I	**	A	1.1	174.0	2.2
Avera	ge to:	r the w	vhole o	f Poland		126.6	

The above shows clearly that the best conditions for cattle-breeding prevail in the western counties (Poznan, Pomerania and Silesia) and the western central counties (Krakow, Lodz and Kielce), while the worst conditions are noticeable in the north-eastern counties (Wilno, Nowogrodek and Polesia). As regards the breed of cattle, the local breeds predominate, and of these the so-called Polish red cattle is the best for milk production and the so-called "white-back" cattle for fat stock. Of the foreign breeds the Netherland breeds are the most important. At the present time the production of milk can be estimated approximately at 70 million hectolitres annually for the whole of Poland. The production of butter, is also developing most favourably.

11. Pig-Breeding.

Unlike cattle-breeding, pig-breeding has shown a steady progress in all Polish provinces except former Congress Poland. This is but the natural outcome of the intensified development of agriculture, especially as regards milk production, wherein pigs are an indispensable factor in the transmutation of refuse. Pig-breeding is also highly remunerative at farms producing potatoes as well as in places where the disposal of potatoes is difficult.

The pre-war development of pig-breeding throughout Poland is illustrated by the following figures (in thousands of head):—

Year	4.	1870,	1880.	1890.	1900.	1910.
Former Congress Poland Eastern Counties Former German Poland		928 7,704 735 701	706 3,276 674 1,049	785 1,209	1,402 3,780 1,254 1,748	597 4,118 1,834 2,931

Pig-breeding also suffered extensively from the war, but a return to pre-war conditions was effected more rapidly than in other branches of stock-breeding. On the whole territory of the present Poland there were before the war 5,487 thousand pigs, while in the year 1921 there were 5,287 thousand, and at the present time already about 5,600 thousand.

The export of pigs is developing accordingly. For example, during the first months of 1925 the following number of pigs were exported:—

In	January	 	 63,966 pigs.
,,	February	 	60,710 ,,
,,	March	 	 70,971 ,,
	April	 	 53,997 ,,

As regards the absolute number of pigs, Poland occupies the third place in Europe, being preceded only by Germany and Russia; in proportion to area it occupies the fourth place (for each 1,000 has. of territory there are in Poland 136·2 pigs), and, finally, in proportion to population the third place in Europe (for every 1,000 inhabitants there are 194·6 pigs). For every 100 has. of cultivated land there are in Poland approximately 21·4 pigs. In this respect the western provinces (Poznania, 43·3; Pomerania, 42·5; and Silesia, 59·0) are most abundantly supplied with pigs, while the most deficient are the north-eastern counties (Wilno, 11·4; Polesia, 10·1; and Stanislawow, 11·6).

Local breeds of pigs, with a certain admixture of English and Westphalian breeds, are principally produced in Poland. Pig-breeding is mainly carried on by small landholders. Large property owners account for less than 10 per cent. of the total

number of pigs.

12. Sheep-Breeding.

The changed system of farming effected in Poland during the last few decades before the war led to an enormous

decrease in the number of sheep bred in the country.

The principal causes of this decrease are to be found in the limitation of area under pasture and left fallow, the ploughing of fields immediately after the crops are harvested, the use of fields for sub-crops, &c. All this has brought about a diminution in the number of sheep, for the breeding of which large areas of waste and pasture lands are required. To these causes may be added the enormous development of sheep-breeding overseas (Australia, South America), which has effected a fall in the price of wool in European markets. Since sheep were bred in Poland for the production of fine wool and the rearing of sheep for meat met with little success, sheep-breeding has ceased to be remunerative.

The decline in sheep-breeding in Polish territories before the war is illustrated by the following table (in thousands of head):—

graduat-privated	1870.	1880.	1890.	1900.	1910.
Former Russian Poland	 3,744 5,110 5,079 1,003	3,385 5,001 3,729 622	3,755 2,632 652	2,834 6,447 1,593 456	957 5,225 744 378

The decline in sheep-breeding was still more accelerated by the recent war. In Poland there were before the war 4,473 thousand sheep, while in 1921 this figure fell to 2,193 thousand, or scarcely 50 per cent. of the pre-war number. Since 1921 the number of sheep has slightly increased, and at present it can be estimated at 2,396 thousand head. There is, however, no reason to anticipate any marked improvement in this direction.

For every 1,000 has, of the total area of Poland there are 56.5 sheep, and for every 1,000 inhabitants 80.7 sheep. These figures show that, as regards sheep-breeding. Poland precedes Czechoslovakia, but is behind Great Britain, France, Germany and Denmark.

there are 9.0 sheep. Sheep-breeding is found at its highest level of development in Pomerania (26.9 sheep per 100 has.) and Poznania (16.0 sheep per 100 has.); then follow the northeastern counties, i.e., Wilno (with 10.6), Nowogrodek (14.8), Bialystok (14.9), and the County of Stanislawow, which is noted for its numerous highland meadows and pastures (10.6 sheep per 100 has.). In the remaining counties, sheep-breeding is practically non-existent.

Contrary to cattle- and pig-breeding, sheep-breeding is principally carried on by large property owners (over 50 per cent.). Large landowners were also responsible for the breeding of fine wool sheep.

13. Poultry-Farming.

The data to hand regarding the number of poultry in Poland are unreliable. According to the 1921 census, which was very inaccurate in regard to poultry, as well as to the data and observations collected by agricultural organisations and

private individuals, the approximate number of fowl for the whole of Poland may be put down at 40 millions, geese at about 7 millions, and an aggregate number of ducks, turkeys and other poultry at about 5 millions. The total number of poultry in Poland, therefore, amounts to some 52 million birds. Poultry farming is mainly in the hands of small farmers. The production of eggs amounts approximately to 3 milliard annually. During the first four months of 1925 the export abroad amounted to 21,104 birds and 5,049 tons of eggs; in comparison with the preceding year this shows an important increase, which will no doubt continue. The principal centres of poultry-farming are situated in the southern parts of former Russian Poland and in former Galicia.

14. Fisheries.

There are two kinds of fishing—deep-sea fishing and freshwater fishing. The former is insignificant on account of the short sea-board possessed by Poland. Nevertheless, post-war years show a steady increase in the catch of sea fish, with the exception of 1924, which was rather unfavourable. The following figures denote the total catch in tons:—

	 -		Herrings.	Sprats.	Flounder.	Total Catch.		
1921	 44	40	131	678	358	1,299		
1922	 **	20	605	1,712	909 812	3,719		
1923	 100		743	2,151	812	4,120		
1924	 4.5	100	702	I,OII	101	2,389		

The area of inland lakes and ponds amounts to over 450,000 has., and, in addition, Poland possesses numerous rivers. Over 25,000 tons of fish are caught annually in these inland waters. The fauna of inland waters depends on the nature of the latter. There are mountain lakes, marshy or low-lying lakes, and lakes of the so-called Baltic Lake District. Similarly, the rivers may be classified into upper reaches, lower reaches, and the rivers of the Baltic Lake District. In the mountain lakes and in the upper reaches of the rivers, the most valuable fish are the trout and other fish of the salmon variety. In other regions the following fish are caught in larger quantities—carp, pike, perch, crucian and tench.

Further, there are also artificial fisheries where the predomi-

nating fish is the carp.

The fisheries are still in an elementary stage of development, however, and the industry was thoroughly ruined during the war in the greater part of Poland, as the numerous artificial arrangements were destroyed and the water let out from many ponds.

II.-AGRARIAN REFORM IN POLAND.

1. The Necessity of Reform.

A careful study of Polish agrarian conditions will show that the system of land tenure, as it was prior to the war, had to be revised in its entirety and adapted to the requirements of rational cultivation of the soil and to the new social and economic conditions created by the war. The process of reform had begun even before the war, and was conducted by the former German and Russian Governments, whose chief aim was to expropriate Polish landowners in favour of

Germans and Russians respectively.

The Great War and the events following upon it accelerated the process of agrarian reform in Poland. It must be noted that at the time when agrarian reforms were introduced in Poland, most countries of Europe had already revised their land-holding systems. The Communist revolution in Russia, and the nationalisation of land there have, no doubt, been responsible for the rapid introduction of statutory regulations on the agrarian reform in Poland. In 1920, when the Red armies overran a considerable portion of Polish territory, it became a principle of national policy to counteract their activities, not only by force of arms, but also by popular reforms which would neutralise the destructive propaganda of communist teaching.

On the other hand, the Russian events, and their economic consequences for Russia have demonstrated to Polish legislators the fallacy of a ruthless and irrational agrarian reform. Thus, there could be no question of a radical parcellation of land in Poland. It was realised in all quarters that the reform must be introduced by way of evolution in order to

ensure its satisfactory working.

The haste with which agrarian questions have been dealt with by the Constituent Diet in 1919 can be explained by circumstances referred to above. It must be noted, however, that, with the re-establishment of normal conditions, these problems were considered more seriously and fully. The Agrarian Reform Act of July 20, 1925, is an example of careful and considered judgment on the part of the Legislature.

2. Parcellation of Land.

The question of parcellation of large estates is one of the most important problems in connection with the execution of agrarian reforms. The Statute of July 15, 1920, regulating the procedure to be adopted in this respect contained a number of provisions which made it very difficult, and in some cases impossible, to find the necessary land for purposes of parcellation. Furthermore, the Statute provided that distribution of land could only be performed by Government Land Offices, whereas in former years, land was often parcellated by private institutions or individuals in a very satisfactory, though not statutory manner.

Generally speaking, the original Statute of 1920 resulted in a complete failure and did, in no way, achieve its purpose. In addition to its minor shortcomings, it was found, after the enactment of the Constitution, that it conflicted with the provisions of the latter by allowing compulsory expropriation

of land at only 50 per cent. of its market value.

The draft Statute of July 20, 1925, is intended to remedy the shortcomings of the Act of 1920, and to introduce such new measures as were found desirable after five years' experience. It deals with all problems connected with the execution of agrarian reforms, such as financing of the reform, employment for farm labourers of parcellated estates, regula-

tion of prices of land, etc.

An important section of the Statute provides for the establishment of an area of land adequate for purposes of agrarian reforms. Such land is to be composed of State-owned estates, "mortmain" estates (in accordance with the Concordate with the Holy See), land owned by public institutions, excluding Local Government corporations, and all other estates of an area larger than the following minima:—60 hectares in industrial and urban districts; 400 hectares in the Counties of Nowogrodek, Polesie and Volhynia; and 180 hectares in all other districts.

The general control over all matters connected with the execution of this Statute is vested in the Minister of Agrarian Reforms; the executive bodies controlled by the Minister

(a) the District Land Offices and the State Agrarian Bank, and

(b) private institutions or individuals authorised to conduct the parcellation of land.

3. Total Area of Land Affected by the Reform.

It is estimated that the total area of land affected by the provisions of the Agrarian Reform Laws amounts to 2,270,000 hectares of arable soil.

Of this area, 243,254 hectares have already been distributed in small plots to farmers and landowners. Thus, the nett area to be parcellated amounts to approximately 2,000,000 hectares.

Farm labourers losing their employment in consequence of the Reform will have to be compensated by grants of land. It is estimated that during a period of 10 years, no fewer than 82,027 families will become entitled to such grants. Assuming an average of five hectares per family, the total area to be thus disposed of will amount to 410,135 hectares. It is obvious therefore, that for the amelioration of small and undeveloped estates by means of parcellation, there remains but 1,500,000 hectares.

Assuming that there are 2,109,587 farms and estates falling within this category, the amelioration of which will require 6,040,932 hectares of land, it is clear that only 25 per cent. of the total demand will be satisfied by the projected system of parcellation. On the other hand, since the process of reform is to extend over a period of ten years, it is possible that an additional 2,000,000 hectares of arable land may be found through a rational cultivation of waste land, especially in the Eastern districts of Poland. Even then, a large proportion of farmers and landowners will still remain without adequate areas of land, and will have to seek employment in other branches of economic life, or migrate to the neighbouring countries which are experiencing a shortage of farm labour.

4. The Program of Reform.

The term "Agrarian Reform" includes so many various problems connected with the system of land-holding that it may not be out of place here to give a few details concerning the different aspects of that system which will be affected by the execution of the Polish Agrarian Reform Laws.

The following are the aims and objects of the Reform:—

I. The amelioration and development of agricultural

production by means of revising the present system of land-

holding. This is to be achieved by :-

(a) the consolidation of farms and estates dispersed and separated from each other, but forming one agricultural entity;

(b) the abolition of easements:

(c) regulation of tenure of agricultural land by rural communities:

(d) inter-change of various kinds of land for the purpose

of achieving better agricultural production.

II. The amelioration of small and undeveloped holdings by additional land being purchased from neighbouring estates: or by the consolidation of a number of small holdings into one estate.

III. The establishment of new estates of various types and area, such as agricultural, cattle, poultry or vegetable farms.

IV. State protection to small landowners from land

speculation.

V. Welfare of farm labourers, partly, in connection with permanent or temporary emigration.

VI. Higher standards of production of arable soil: also

cultivation of waste and forest land.

VII. Material aid to new estates in the shape of grants of agricultural implements, live stock, seeds, etc.

VIII. Giving aid and encouragement to co-operative unions

and societies formed amongst the new landowners.

IX. Granting of the necessary credit facilities for the purchase of fertilisers, live stock, implements, etc. (These activities are carried on by the State Agrarian Bank.)

5. The Execution of the Reform.

In accordance with the aims and objects enumerated above, the following measures have been taken for the purpose of introducing the Agrarian Reform throughout the country:

I. The amelioration and development of agricultural

production:

(a) Consolidation of land.

This question is regulated by the Consolidation of Land Act of July 31, 1923. Prior to this statute, land was consolidated according to various rules existing in different districts.

Up to January 1, 1924, the District Land Offices have consolidated a total area of 161,895 hectares distributed

amongst various estates.

The activities of the Land Offices have increased considerably since the enactment of the Statute of 1923. Up to October 1, 1924, 828,781 hectares have been submitted to the Land Offices for consolidation. Work has been commenced on an area of 195,596 hectares distributed in 579 localities. New farm houses must often be built, and for this purpose the new owners are granted 6 per cent. loans by the Agrarian Bank. At present, these loans cannot exceed the sum of 1,300 zlotys per holding.

(b) Liquidation of easements.

The Statutes of May 7, 1920, and April 7, 1922, regulate this matter. During the period 1919–1923 easements have been liquidated in connection with 5,000 land holdings; in 1924—in connection with 2,542; total, 7,542.

(c) Tenure by communities.

There is no Statute regulating the procedure in connection with this aspect of the Agrarian Reform. So far, only a few thousand hectares of land belonging to rural communities have been parcellated.

II. Amelioration of small and undeveloped holdings.

The corresponding legal provisions are contained in the Statute of July 15, 1920, also in the draft Statute referred to above.

III. Establishment of new farms and estates.

This question is dealt with in Chapter 2 on the general scheme of Parcellation of Land.

The progress of the Land Reform is apparent from the following Table:

	Total Area Par- cellated.	Total No. of Purchasers.	No. of New Holdings.	No. of Additional (Adjacent) Holdings.	No. of Special Holdings (Work- men's, Labourers', etc.).
1. Land Offices 2. Institutions authorised	341,000	49,500	22,500	26,000	1,000
to parcellate 3. Private individuals	190,000	38,000	13,000	22,000	3,000
(owners)	180.000	40,000	8,000	30,000	2,000
Total	711,000	127,500	43,500	78,000	6,000

AGRARIAN REFORM. .

Thus, during the last five years since 1919, 700,000 hectares of land were parcellated amongst 127,500 purchasers, *i.e.* at the average rate of 140,000 hectares per annum. This may be regarded as a very satisfactory figure.

The other aspects of the Agrarian Reform are incapable of being represented by statistical figures; considerable progress

is, however, being made in every direction.

It is, however, important to note in connection with point III, the different Statutes dealing with the establishment of the State Agrarian Bank, which is to supply the necessary credit facilities to landowners and farmers. The constitution and activities of this Bank are fully dealt with in the article on Government Banking Institutions. (See section: State Agrarian Bank, pp. 555-558.)

III.—FORESTRY IN POLAND.

1. Area of Woods and Forests.

Timber forms one of the most important items in Polish production. The area occupied by woods and forests is still very extended, although it has diminished considerably during the 19th century owing to the introduction of railways and the rapid development of industries. The total area of forests and their distribution amongst the different counties is apparent from the appended Table I.:—

Table I.

77.3	Popu-			ea. ares).		Per-	Forest Area	
County.	lations in 1000's.	County.	Govern- ment Forests.	Private Forests.	Total Forests.	of Forest Land.	per z inhabi- tant.	
Lwow Stanislawow Tarnopol Krakow Poznan Pomerania Lodz Warsaw Kielce Lublin Bialystok Volhynia Nowogrodek Polesie Wilno Silesia	2,718 1,348 1,429 1,990 1,974 939 2,251 3,048 2,089 1,303 1,438 822 880 984 1,125	2,702,400 1,836,800 1,624,000 1,744,800 2,660,300 1,038,600 1,903,400 2,943,100 2,573,600 3,116,000 3,263,700 3,029,400 4,272,800 4,272,800 4,2840,900	26,253 243,016 21,923 199,643 275,406 80,368 109,934 245,002 93,148 517,522 271,781 174,767 361,677 205,290 9,676	650,357 385,004 273,940 385,734 262,470 79,548 199,117 232,955 379,366 558,345 169,777 573,766 398,338 914,137 511,680 133,882	676,610 628,020 273,940 407,657 462,113 354,954 179,485 342,889 624,368 651,493 687,299 885,547 573,105 1,273,814 716,970	25 0 34 1 16 8 23 3 17 3 21 6 14 6 11 6 24 3 21 2 21 1 25 9 24 8 29 8 25 2 33 8	0.25 0.46 0.19 0.21 0.23 0.38 0.12 0.11 0.25 0.31 0.53 0.69 1.33 0.74	
Total	26,874	36,832,800	2,835,406	6,108,356	8,943,762	23.0	0.33	

As will be seen from this Table the total area of woods and forests in Poland amounts to nine million hectares; it forms 23.0 per cent. of the territory of the Republic, and the proportion of forest area to the population is 0.33 hectares per inhabitant. As regards individual counties, the county of Stanislawow possesses the largest forest area in proportion to its territory (34.1 per cent.); the second largest forest area is situated in the county of Silesia (33.8 per cent.).

The eastern counties (Polesie, Volhynia, Nowogrodek and Wilno) include a high proportion of forest land; woods in the county of Warsaw form but o'rr per cent. of the total territory.

The following Table II. gives a comparison between Poland and other European States as regards their respective forest

areas :--

Table II.

Country.		Total Area in Ha.	Population.	Area of Forests. Ha.	Per- centage of Total Area.	Forest Land per r Inha- bitant Ha,	State Forests (approx.)
Russia (Europe	an)	517,281,483	101,734,443	155.882.447	30	1.50	80.0
Sweden		41,049,261	5,847,037	23,742,001	55	4.06	33.2
Finland		33,314,000	3,331,814	17,372,000	52	5.20	80.0
Germany		47,415,959	5,985,728	12,812,730	27	0.31	33.0
France		52,952,579	39,209,776	10,087,473	19	0.25	36.0
Poland		38,832,800	27,192,674	8,943,762	23	0.33	31.7
Norway		32,365,764	2,646,306	7,105,500	22	2.68	12.5
Rumania		29,469,512	18,000,000	7,019,075	24	0.39	38 6
Jugoslavia		24,791,600	11,971,679	6,700,000	27	0.55	
Spain		50,451,688	21,282,960	4,912,000	IO	0.23	6.0
Italy		28,661,000	38,825,184	4,685,000	16	0.13	4 0
Czechoslovakia		14,048,328	13,595,816	4,661,133	33	0.32	8.5
Austria		7,960,764	6,067,430	3,054,863	38	0.50	6.6
Bulgaria		10,443,580	4,861,439	2,831,943	27	0 58	29.7
Portugal		8,910,640	6,400,000	1,956,446	22	0 31	8 0
Latvia		6,570,000	1,727,500	1,819,300	27	0.31	_
Hungary		9,111,000	7,187,019	1,815,000	20	0.22	_
Great Britain		22,745,569	42,917,382	1,090,111	5	0.03	2.2
Switzerland		4,129,835	3,861,508	969,073	23	0 25	4.5
Greece		6,321,100	5,400,000	840,037	13	0 15	80.0
Lithuania		513,300	3,600,000	790,000	15	0.21	_
Estonia		3,830,667	1,750,000	770,062	20	0 44	1 -
Belgium		2,945,040	7,458,903	519,781	18	0 04	4.8
Denmark		4,301,650	3,267,831	367,335	8	0.11	25.0
Holland		3,264,978	6,841,155	233,945	7	0.03	7.5
Ireland		8,243,748	4,462,000	121,319	I	0.03	_
Luxemburg		258,631	263,824	81,891	31	0 30	0.0

Thus, Poland occupies the 12th place amongst European countries as regards their respective forest lands. In this respect it yields to European Russia, Sweden, Finland, Germany, Rumania, Jugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Bulgaria, Latvia and Luxemburg, and has a similar percentage of woods and forests as Switzerland.

2. Character and Composition of Forests.

Pine woods predominate in the western and midland counties, where they are often cultivated artificially. In the

south-eastern counties foliferous varieties prevail, of which oak is the most important. The mountainous districts of the southern counties abound in fir and beech trees, which appear separately or in mixed woods. Mixed forests predominate also in the north-eastern parts of the country; pines and firs are often intermixed with ash and plane-trees and oak.

It is estimated that pines form 65 per cent. of Polish woods; fir-trees, 15 per cent.; oak, 5 per cent.; and other foliage trees, 15 per cent. Thus pine woods form the majority of Polish

forest areas and supply the bulk of timber exports.

3. State Forests.

State forests form 31.7 per cent. of the total forest area. Apart from Soviet Russia, the following countries have a larger percentage of State-owned forests than Poland, viz., Finland (80 per cent.), Greece (80 per cent.), Germany (33 per cent.), France (36 per cent.), and Sweden (33.2 per cent.).

The largest proportion of State forests is contained in the county of Pomerania (78 per cent.); this is followed by the counties of Bialystok (75 per cent.), Stanislawow (38 per cent.), Kielce (37 per cent.), Volhynia (32 per cent.), Poznan (32 per cent.), Warsaw (32 per cent.), Nowogrodek (30 per cent.), Lodz (29 per cent.), Polesie (28 per cent.), Wilno (27 per cent.), Silesia (20 per cent.), Lublin (14 per cent.), Krakow (0.9 per cent.), Lwow (0.03 per cent.). There are no Government forests in the county of Tarnopol.

The character and composition of these forests differ in accordance with the geographical position. Pine and fir woods form 85 per cent. of all Government forests and are spread throughout the territory of the country. Oak and plane trees are distributed over 5.5 per cent. of the total area, and other foliage woods over 9.5 per cent. Foliage trees appear frequently in pine woods, and predominate in the

highland country as well as in Podole and Volhynia.

As regards their age, younger trees (up to 40 years) are prevalent in Polish forests. There is, however, no fixed rule as to this. Younger woods form 36.2 per cent. of the total forest area; those between 40 and 80 years, 25.5 per cent.,

and those over 80, 29.4 per cent.

The administration of all Government forests is concentrated in the Ministry of Agriculture and State Domains. The Forestry Department of the Ministry controls the exploitation and maintenance of all State-owned woods and forests. The department also grants concessions for the exploitation of timber, and is empowered to sell all timber and its products to private concerns or individuals. The department exercises its functions through 10 district offices, which are further divided into 350 control stations. In accordance with the decree of the Council of January 16th, 1925, the headquarters of district offices are situated in Warsaw, Radom, Siedlee, Bialowieza, Wilno, Luck, Lwow, Torun, Bydgoszcz and Poznan respectively.

Privately owned woods are also controlled by the Govern-

ment through the respective county forest offices.

4. Important Forests.

The following are regarded as the largest and most important individual forests:—

r. The Bialowieza Forest.—This forest is situated in the quadrangle formed by the towns of Bialystok, Wolkowysk, Brzesc and Kobryn. It spreads over a uniform area of 114,378 hectares and is the largest forest in the Central European plain. Woods form the greater part of this area; the remainder is covered with swamps, marshes and turf pits.

The forest is situated within the limits of the European water system. The rivers Narew, Lesna and Jasiolda spring

from it.

Practically all trees found in Bialowieza are of great age, usually over 200 years. Oak and elm woods cover 5 per cent. of the total area; pine woods, 30 per cent.; firs, 25 per cent.; mixed oak and pine woods, 12 per cent.; mixed alder

and fir woods, 10 per cent., and others, 13 per cent.

The predominant tree in Bialowieza is the pine, usually about 100 years old and averaging 2.5 m³ in size. The richest parts of the forest abound in oak trees of from 1 m. to 1.80 m. in diameter; the length of these trees from root to ramification is usually from 10 to 15 metres. The number of these oak trees in Bialowieza is estimated at nearly 100,000.

The energetic measures taken by the Government have removed all danger of destruction of the Bialowieza woods through irrational exploitation. In order to preserve a part of the forest in its original form a territory containing all specimens of trees appearing in Bialowicza has been set up for the purpose of creating a National Park. The projected Statute

has already been drafted and is now awaiting parliamentary sanction.

2. The Augustow Forest.—This forest is situated in the northern part of the county of Bailystok within the administrative districts of Suwalki, Augustow and Sejny. The total area of the forest is 111,200 ha. The land occupied by the forest is hilly and abounds in small lakes and rivers. 58,302

hectares of the forest are owned by Government.

Here also the pine is well in evidence. Only 3 per cent. of the area is covered with fir trees and 4 per cent. with foliage woods, mostly alder and birch trees. Trees suitable for felling (80-120 years) form 20 per cent. of the total; trees of from 40 to 80 years old, 40 per cent.; and young trees, 20 per cent. The remaining 20 per cent, are formed by plains cleared by exploitation or by forest fires. At present the area of woods in the forest amounts to only 82,150 hectares. normal conditions the average yearly increase in these woods should amount to 4 m3 per hectare, and the average thickness of 100 years old woods to 400 m3 per hectare. The irrational administration of the Russians, together with military operations and the plunders of the German occupation authorities, have reduced the annual increase of timber to only 2.5-3.5 m3 per hectare, and the thickness of trees per hectare averages but 250 to 350 m3.

Pine woods occupy 78,150 ha. (including 20,100 ha. suitable for felling and foliage woods are spread over an area of 4,000 ha.,

of which 500 ha. are suitable for exploitation.

Transport conditions in or around the Augustow Forest are very satisfactory. The Augustow Canal runs through it and enables the direct shipment of timber to Danzig. The western part of the forest has direct railway connections with Grodno, Augustow, Suwalki and Orany. In addition there are good roads suitable for the transportation of timber to neighbouring provinces.

- 3. The Miedzyrzecze Forest has an area of 49,175 hectares and is situated in the western part of the Lithuanian Lake District. Pine woods predominate here; firs, birch and aspen trees appear infrequently. The soil is sandy, with an admixture of clay in some localities. Most of the woods forming this forest are owned by Government.
- 4. The Grodno Forest is also owned by Government, although privately owned areas appear here and there. The total area

of this forest amounts to 104,129 hectares, and is similar as

regards composition to the forest of Miedzyrzecze.

5. Government forests of an area of 35,195 hectares are situated in the eastern part of the County of Nowogrodek which also contains private forests of twice that area. Pine woods predominate throughout.

6. The Krzyszyn Forest is situated in the basins of the Rivers Narew and Niemen between Bialystok and Grodno.

Most of it is owned by Government (58,302 hectares).

7. The Kurpie Forest, also known as the Green Forest, is spread over an area of 185,725 hectares, of which 44,521 are State property. The marshy parts of the forest are covered with alder trees; otherwise the pine is prevalent.

8. The Northern Polesie woods are mostly owned by private

individuals; 112,450 hectares are State-owned.

9. The Volhynia-Polesie Forest is composed of private estates of a total area of 300,000 ha., situated southwards of the Prypec and the Royal Canal. The total absence of fir trees is characteristic.

10. The central parts of the Midland Counties between the Rivers Vistula, Bug and Pilica contain large areas of pine

woods.

- II. A belt of State Forests runs along both banks of the
- 12. The St. Cross Forest is situated in the county of Kielce and includes 69,142 ha. of State-owned woods. Pine and fir-trees, often intermixed, predominate here.

13. The Sandomierz Forest and the neighbouring Roztocze

Forest belongs mostly to the Zamoyski Estates.

14. The East Carpathian Forest is situated in the south-eastern counties; 156,586 ha. is owned by the State. The lower districts of this forest are covered with foliage trees, which are intermixed with pines and firs in the northern parts. At an altitude of 1,200-1,700 metres firs prevail, and the higher parts are covered with knee-timber woods.

15. The belt of aboriginal forests between the Rivers Warta and Notec is owned by Government to the extent of 47,736 ha.

- 16. **Pine Woods**, mostly State property, are situated in the river districts Wielkopolska-Kujawy, and reach as far as Bydgoszcz.
- 17. The Tuchole Forest, spreading over an area of 117,134 ha., is situated in the southern parts of the county of Pome-

rania and belongs to the State. Pine woods predominate; foliage trees grow on more fertile soil.

5. Distribution of Property in Forest Lands.

It is evident from Table I. that State-owned forests form 31.7 per cent. of the total forest area (2,835,406 ha.). Privately owned land includes forests owned by private individuals or concerns, local government authorities, churches and other institutions of a corporate character. In the following Table (III.) we have divided private property into smaller (under 50 hectares) and larger estates.

According to the figures supplied by the Central Bureau of Statistics the total area of large forest estates, owned privately, amounts to 4,010,450 hectares, and the area of estates under 50 ha., similarly owned, to 1,968,025 ha. Public and Church organisations own an additional area of 129,881 ha. The distribution of property in forest land is illustrated by the following Table III.:—

Table III.

			Yahio	444	•				
					Other	Fore	sts.		
	State		O	ver 5	o Ha.				1
Counties.	Forests.		Private	Private.		Corpora- tions.		Under 50 Ha.	
	Area. Ha.	%	Area. Ha.	%	Area.	%	Area. Ha.	%	Area. Ha.
Warsaw Lublin Kielce Lodz Bialystok. Nowogrodek Polesie Volhynia Wilno Lwow Stanislawow Tarnopol Krakow Poznan Pomerania Silesia	109,934 93,148 245,002 80,368 517,522 174,767 201,781 205,290 26,253 243,016 21,923 199,643 275,406 9,676	32 14 39 29 75 30 28 32 28 4 39 5 43 78	153,416 313,619 232,957 146,445 1293,540 743,493 340,547 268,621 440,419 192,271 164,173 200,883 211,446 62,070 113,139	49 37 52 18 51 59 40 38 65 30 60	6,195 12,615 3,790 2,276 164 10,036 671 2,443 734 8,332 59,597 6,838 4,990 4,668 3,688 2,786	2 4 1 1 2 - 1 9 2 2 1 1 2	73,344, 232,111 142,619 50,396 45,196 94,702 169,973 130,776 242,325 201,606 133,136 102,929 170,861 46,364 46,364 13,794 17,897	21 33 23 18 7 17 13 28 34 30 22 38 42 10 4	348,889 651,493 624,368 279,485 687,299 573,105 1,275,814 845,547 716,970 676,610 628,020 273,940 407,657 462,113 354,954 143,498
Total Poland	2,835,406	31	4,010,450	45	129,881	2	1,968,025	22	8,943,762

It is evident from Table III. that large forest estates occupy a total area twice as large as that occupied by small estates Generally speaking, large forest estates occupy 45 per cent. of the total forest area, smaller estates, 22 per cent., and estates belonging to public and Church corporations only 2 per cent.

38.3 per cent. of the total area occupied by large forest property is being exploited. It is noteworthy that the area of arable land forms 36.6 per cent. of the total area of large

landed property in Poland.

As regards the character of large estates, it can be stated that the size of the estate is proportionate to the size of the forest area, i.s., the larger the estate the greater the percentage of forest lands. Thus, in estates of over 1,000 ha. forests form already 51·1 per cent. of the total area. It is to be noted that the increase of the proportion in forest land and a corresponding decrease in the percentage of arable land is gradual and uniform. Thus, in estates of from 50 to 100 ha., woods form 7·9 per cent. of the total area; in those of from 100 to 200 ha., 12·1 per cent.; 200-300, 15·3 per cent.; 300-400, 17·0 per cent.; 400-500, 19·3 per cent.; 500-1,000 ha., 26·0 per cent., and in all estates over 1,000 ha. the percentage usually amounts to 50 per cent. or over.

6. Production of Timber.

The production of timber from Polish forests is illustrated by the appended Table (IV.):—

Table IV.

	- 1		Yearly Pro	duction,	M3.		Area	Timber	
		State	Forests.	Othe	r Forests.	7. (of Forests	Pro- duced	
Counties.		Per 1 Ha. of Area.	Total.	Per 1 Ha. of Area. Total.		Total.	per I Inhabi- tant. Ha.	per 1 Inhabi- tant, M³.	
Lwow		4:2	107,000	3.6	2,208,000	2,315,600	0.25	0.84	
Stanislawow		4 3	107,000	3.0	1,190,000	2,315,600	0.46	1 63	
Tarnopol		+ 3	1,010,000	2.5	622,000	622,000	0.10	0.46	
Krakow		315	67,500	3.4	1,189,600	1,257,100	0.31	0.63	
Pomerania		3.4	935,000	3 0	238,300	1,173,300	0.38	1 - 45	
Poznan		3.3	659,000	2 0	116,000	1,375,000	0 23	0.70	
Lodz		2.3	167,000	2.8	494,000	661,000	0.12	0 20	
Warsaw		2 3	218,800	2.8	565,000	783,800	C.II	0.26	
Kielce		4 · I	911,700	3.7	1,328,000	2,239,700	0.25	0.88	
Lublin		3-8	340,000	3.5	1,870,000	2,210,000	0.31	1.06	
Bialystok		3.3	1,431,000	3 0	426,000	1,857,000	0.53	1.45	
Wolhynia		3 I	551,200	2.8	1,060,000	1,611,200	0.59	1.12	
Nowogrodek		2.7	382,300	2.4	775,000	1,157,300	0.69	1.40	
Polesie		2.6	508,000	2.3	1,135.000	1,643,060	1.33	I.88	
Silesia		2 · I	280,000	3'2	400,000	428,000	0.13	0.38	
Wilno	• •	2.6	480,000	2.3	1,047,000	1,527,000	0.74	1.28	
Total		3.1	7,796,500	2.9	15,263,900	23,060,400	0.33	0.85	

The figures included in the above table were compiled by the Forestry Department of the Ministry of Agriculture. These figures are not always strictly correct, especially as regards privately owned forests, since in many cases no returns were available.

The following conclusions may be drawn from these figures:—
(a) The highest production of timber per hectare in State forests was attained in the counties of Lwow and Stanislawow (4'3 m³); next follow the counties of Kielce (4'1) and Lublin (3'8). The eastern counties showed a considerably lower standard of production. The low returns for the counties of Warsaw and Lodz are explained by the damages caused to forests during the war and by the subsequent plundering of the German authorities of occupation. The same applies to forests situated in the county of Silesia.

(b) As regards private forests, the highest production of timber was achieved in the counties of Kielce (3.7 m³), Lwow

(3.6) and Lublin (3.5).

(c) The average production of timber per hectare of exploited

forest land throughout Poland amounts to 3.05 m3.

(d) The area of forests per inhabitant is largest in the eastern counties, which is explained by the sparseness of population in these districts. In the counties of Warsaw, Lodz and Silesia the forest area per inhabitant is only 0°11, 0°12 and 0°13 hectares respectively.

(e) The maximum of timber per inhabitant is produced in the county of Stanislawow (1.63 cubic metres) and in the eastern counties. The average throughout Poland is 0.85

cubic metres per inhabitant.

The following Table (V.) gives a comparison between the output of Polish forests and that of forests situated in other countries:—

Table V.

Countries.		Forest Area.	Percentage of Total Area.	Forest Area per	Annual Production of Timber. Timber Production per 1 Ha. of Area.	
		Hectares.		Inhabitant.	Cubic Metres.	
Germany Austria Hungary France Poland		 3,998,850 9,767,566 9,023,659 9,608,635 8,443,762	25.9 32.5 28.0 18.2 23.0	0 23 0·37 0 47 0·24 0·33	48,363,861 29,800,000 27,500,000 25,800,000 23,060,400	3:53 3:00 3:60 2:80 3:05

FORESTRY.

It is evident that the average yearly production of timber in Poland is not sufficiently high. France, where the percentage of forest land is considerably smaller, produces larger quantities of timber than Poland.

It is to be noted that the output of private forests is con-

siderably below that of State owned areas.

The low production of Polish forests is explained by the damages caused by foreign Governments and also by the irrational exploitation by private owners. As has been mentioned, the annual increase in production could, under favourable conditions, amount to 4 m³ per ha., i.e., the increase in the total production would amount to 13.2 million m³.

It must also be added that during the current year most forests in the western provinces were infected with an epidemic which necessitated the destruction of valuable timber material.

Out of a total production of 23 million m³, 40 to 50 per cent. was used as fire-wood; the remaining output was used as

building material, etc.

The production of timber in Poland is quite sufficient to meet the demands of the country. The surplus, amounting to 6-8 million cubic metres, can be exported.

CENTURY EUROPEAN TIMBER CORPORATION, LTD.

CAPITAL - £750,000

Divided into:

500,000 8% Cumulative Participating Preference Shares of £1 each.

500,000 Ordinary Shares of Ten shillings each.

THE Corporation was formed in July 1924 and represents the most important industrial venture of British Capital in Poland and, at the same time, the greatest organisation for timber exploitation in Europe.

The Concessions from the Polish Government which the Corporation was formed to take over, cover some 700,000 acres of forest, including the well-known Bialowieza Forest, which is almost the last primeval forest in Europe, in which the trees grow to an unusual height before throwing out branches, and the wood is well matured, thus yielding logs of the greatest length, and girth and highest quality.

The Corporation operates 150 kilometres of private railway lines, besides being well served by the railways of the Country, and there are

good floating facilities from the various forests.

The Corporation is working eight saw-mills, some in the forests and others at strategic points, including two at the Port of Danzig.

It has been no small task to build up an organisation to deal with such a vast undertaking, and it will be impossible for the Company during its first year of operations, to handle much more than one-half of the 720,000 cubic metres, which is the maximum annual cutting allowed under the Concessions.

The Corporation has, however, produced some 7,000 cubic metres of Oak, 3,000 cubic metres of Ash, 9,000 cubic metres of Alder, about 7,000 cubic metres of Lime, Birch and Aspen, besides about 50,000 cubic metres of White Pine and 160,000 cubic metres of Red Pine, which two latter will always represent the bulk of the output. This is besides pulpwood and firewood.

From these fellings, there have been produced sleepers, telegraph poles, pit-props and, when the various saw-mills have completed their work, many thousands of standards of White and Red Pine sawn goods.

Deliveries to date have amounted to upwards of £75,000, but by far the greater part of the season's output, in the form of sawn goods, will be despatched to British and Continental buyers during the ensuing months.

The Corporation has appointed Agents in all the principal countries

of Europe and in most of the Dominions and Colonies.

The principal offices of the Corporation are in the Bialowieza Forest, where they occupy the extensive buildings formerly used by the Czars of Russia as their hunting-box. There is an office and a special representative in Warsaw, a forwarding office at Danzig, and the London Offices are at 30/31, St. Swithin's Lane, E.C.

The Report and Accounts, showing the result of the year's operations,

should be ready about the end of the year.

Fr. BORSUK

TIMBER BROKER

Polish Soft and Hardwoods

PIĘKNA 16a

WARSZAWA POLAND

7. TIMBER EXPORTS.

It has been mentioned above that the annual production of timber, amounting to 23 million cubic metres, is not only sufficient to meet the demand of home markets, but allows for a considerable surplus to be exported abroad. Assuming the home consumption to be 16 million cubic metres, the

remaining 7 million are available for export.

The exports of timber occupy a prominent position in the Polish trade balance. In 1922 they formed 12 per cent. of the total exports. The corresponding figures for 1923 and 1924 were 11·15 and 12 per cent. respectively. The value of timber exported in 1922 amounted to 79·6 million zlotys; of that exported in 1923, 133·1 million; and that in 1924, approximately 150 million zlotys. It is obvious, therefore, that the exports of timber are growing, and that their importance for the Polish trade balance is gradually increasing.

The bulk of timber exported from Poland is formed by first-class qualities of both raw materials and of manufactured articles. The appended table illustrates the extent and character of Polish timber exports during the years

1923-1924 :-

		192	1924.		
	- 1	Tons.	000's zl.	Tons.	ooo's zl.
Raw Materials		7 060 76-	1	0	1
Including:	100	1,260,169	45,696	579,803	20,664
Pulp		750,467	19,926	229,660	5,905
Timber .		242,217	6,782	72,624	1,972
Miscellaneous		267,485	18,888	277,519	12,787
Half-finished Articles Including:		1,072,276	68,366	1,230,148	87,100
Beams, Boards		822,088		00	-0-10
Sleepers		248,875	56,491	1,023,588	78,012
Other Articles		1,313	11,088	206,560	19,088
Finished Articles	- 11	43,197	787	en 8 17	22,800
Including:		431297	12,604	59,847	22,000
Coopery Articles		26,721	6,383	44 474	8,355
Carpentery Articles		1,266		44,474	428
Furniture and Utensils		6,110	5,829	4,138	5,925
Inlays, etc		0,110	3,029	7,080	5,766

It is noteworthy that, although the exports of raw materials are decreasing, the exportation of manufactured articles is advancing. This is explained by the development of the

various timber industries, which have, since the war, made great progress towards reconstruction and technical excellence.

The following comparison between the respective proportions of raw timber and manufactured articles exported from Poland will confirm the statement made in the preceding paragraph:—

Thus-

	-		1923.	1924.
Timber Exports, Total		 	100 per cent.	100 per cent.
Raw Materials		 	36.2 ,, ,,	16.0 ,, ,,
Half-finished Articles		 	53.5 ** "	66.4 ,,
Finished Articles		 	10.5 "	17.6 ,, ,,

As regards the destination of Polish timber exports, round timber was sent mainly to Germany, whereas half-finished articles found a capacious market in Great Britain. Apart from these two countries, timber and wood articles are exported to Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Danzig, Holland and Hungary. Smaller quantities are sent

to the U.S.A., the Argentine, and Italy.

Germany forms the most convenient market for Polish timber; the exports to Germany are, however, declining. On the other hand, the growing exports of round timber and manufactured articles to England is significant. The participation of England in the exports of beams and boards during 1922 amounted to 16.3 per cent. of the total. The corresponding figures for 1923 and 1924 were 32 per cent. and 37 per cent. respectively. 6.7 per cent. of all railway sleepers exported from Poland in 1923 were destined for England, and in 1924 this figure increased to 7.5 per cent. The growing demand for the Polish article proves that Polish exporters are gradually adapting their goods to the requirements of their English customers. In addition, the quality of some of the Polish timber is practically beyond competition (e.g., Volhynian oak, or eastern Polish pine). The exports of Polish timber to Belgium, France and Holland have also increased. New markets were established in Latvia, the Argentine, and Denmark.

During the first six months of the current year the exports of timber have considerably increased, as compared with 1924. All classes of timber show advanced exports.

It is also to be noted that the Polish timber trade is being conducted on more businesslike lines. Whilst during the period of currency inflation many persons and firms were trading in timber for purely speculative reasons, at the present moment the timber trade is placed on a really solid basis.

The establishment of a timber exchange in Bydgoszcz shows a further improvement in this direction. Transactions as regards raw and manufactured timber are made there. Forwarding and insurance business is also transacted at the exchange. The timber exchange will have a beneficial influence on the Polish timber trade, and will serve as the proper agency for the purchasing and selling transactions of Polish timber merchants. The town of Bydgoszcz is most suitable as the headquarters of the trade. It is connected through a system of waterways with the whole territory of Poland and Russia. As has been mentioned before, the town forms the recognised centre of the timber industries.

THE "LASMET" INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL COMPANY

Head Office: PLAC TRZECH KRZYŻY 11 WARSAW.

Managing Office: GDAŃSKA 29 BYDGOSZCZ.

Woodmills in Bydgoszcz and Klonów deliver:

BOARDS, LATHES, BEAMS, RAILWAY SLEEPERS and all other kinds of sawn woods.

TIMBER AND WOOD EXPORTERS.

Ceramic Works in Bydgoszcz deliver:

BRICKS. TILES and POTTERY GOODS.

IV.- THE INDUSTRIES OF POLAND.

1. General Industrial Conditions.

The development of Polish economic life after the War was hindered by the damages caused by direct war operations in all parts of the country, save the former Prussian provinces. The industries were severely affected, many factories completely destroyed and others damaged beyond repair. The total loss due to the War amounted to 3,985,3 million gold zlotys.

Direct military operations, and in addition evacuations and requisitions by the belligerent Powers, inflicted great injuries. In the report submitted to the Peace Conference at Versailles the value of requisitions was given as 2,154,2

million gold francs.

The evacuation of industrial undertakings into Russia was initiated by the Russian Government under the pressure of the oncoming German Army. The German authorities of occupation continued the ruthless and systematic policy of requisitions, with the result that by the end of the German occupation the majority of factories had been robbed of all machinery and installations. All raw materials were regularly sent to Germany, together with parties of Polish workmen

compulsorily enlisted for service.

Thus, when the industries of the world were experiencing an unprecedented boom following the Great War, Polish industries were in a state of utter ruin and disorganisation. Moreover, the Great War was followed in Poland by the war with Soviet Russia, which was not concluded until 1921. It is obvious, therefore, that under such circumstances a State composed of three different political and economic units could hardly be expected at that time to compete with foreign countries.

The financial position of the country was desperate; all balances deposited in Russian Banks throughout the former Congress Kingdom had been transferred into Russia, where they remain to this day. The remaining capital was soon devoured by the ravages of inflation.

THE INDUSTRIES OF POLAND.

The reconstruction of Polish industries under such conditions could only be achieved with the aid of the Government, which has, in fact subsidised the work of restoration,

The development of this work is evident from the appended figures showing the number of workmen employed in different industries at different periods:—

To the second	1717	1913.	1920.	192r.	1922.	1923.
Smelting Industry		19,800	10,300	14,100	17,800	18,800
Textile Industry Engineering	110	182,500 83,700	43,500	115,900	144,500	146,300
Foodstuffs		82,100	19,900	35,900	44,400	45,100
Articles of Animal ori Paper Manufacture		9,300	3,000	6,000	5,300	5,300
Printing		20,200	5,900	10,700	13,200	13,300
Chemical Industry		41,700	12,300	19,600	36,700	37,100
Mineral Industry		16,900 64,700	6,700	21,200	15,200 36,200	15,400 36,700
TOTAL		520,900	140,100	280,800	379,300	384,800

These figures illustrate sufficiently the extent of destruction caused by the War. On the other hand, it must be remembered that new branches of industry have developed in Poland since the War. Thus, the construction of locomotives, tractors, aeroplanes and motor-cars has been commenced in Poland; new branches of production in the chemical industry have also been established. These and other War industries have done much to improve the hopeless economic situation in Poland.

The depreciation of currency, destroying on one hand the available capital of the country, has, on the other, created favourable conditions for Polish industries. Both short and long termed obligations, as well as taxes and duties, have depreciated in value. At the same time, the general public, distrustful of the mark, commenced to invest their capital, including small savings, in merchandise. Factories were often unable to meet the demand, and the goods thus purchased were stored indefinitely.

The year 1924 must be regarded as the turning point in Polish economic history. In this year, a stable Polish currency was introduced, the Budget balanced and taxation increased. But the financial reform brought in its train a severe industrial crisis as its natural consequence.

THE INDUSTRIES OF POLAND.

The first measure adopted for the purpose of financial rehabilitation was the stabilisation of taxes. Taxes were assessed in gold units and their value in Polish marks varied from day to day, in accordance with the rate of exchange. Almost concurrently with the stabilisation of taxes, came that of the mark itself, and the ground for financial reforms

was prepared.

An immediate advance in the prices of goods, which were by now calculated in gold units, followed the stabilisation of the mark. In consequence the standard of prices, temporarily lowered by currency depreciation, soon became equal to that of other European countries. The rapid advance of prices resulted in an increased cost of living and consequently in costs of production, since wages were calculated on a sliding scale according to the index figure of the cost of living. The fluctuations of the Index are seen from the following table:—

1914		 	 100
1923	(Average)	 	 67.9
	(December)	 	 79.4
	(January)	 	 120.5
	(April)	 	 126.5
	(July)	 	 127.2
	(October)	 * *	 150.0
	(January)	 	 120.0
1925	(April)	 	 150.5

Another cause of increased costs of production was increased taxation; the extent of this increase will be seen from the following figures representing the total revenue from direct taxes during the period of inflation and in 1924:—

Average Monthly Revenue (in '000 zlotys).

	-		Direct Taxes Total.	Turnover Tax.	Special Property Tax.
1922		 - 11	2,449	877	
1923		 	2,449 4,360	2,038	162
1924	- 14	 44	24,42I	14,756	16,585

The shortage of capital and the exorbitant Bank rate still further increased the difficulties of Polish industries. The Report of the Banking Union for October 30, 1924, states that the total turnover on that date formed but 30 per cent. of pre-War business. Taking into consideration the 40-50 per cent. increase in wholesale prices, and the corresponding decrease in the purchasing capacity of gold, it is obvious that

the activities of private banking institutions are of little help to the struggling industries. The predominant part of credit business is transacted by the Bank of Poland, *i.e.*, the Bank of Issue, which in itself is an abnormal and undesirable economic feature.

The calculations of economic experts estimate the demand for credits in Poland at 1,500 million zlotys, whereas the highest estimate of credits granted in 1924 does not exceed 700 million. This difference between supply and demand plainly illustrates the difficulties of Polish industrialists, and explains the almost incredible Bank rate of 24 per cent. per annum (minimum).

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The only other source of obtaining capital was the issue of shares. But the general industrial crisis had a most depressing influence on stocks, and especially on industrial shares. This, together with the shortage of investment capital, makes the issue of new shares almost impossible. The following table shows the demand for capital by Limited Liability Companies in 1924 as compared with the preceding years:—

_			Comp	of new canies zlotys).	New Issues of existing Companies (in .000 zlotys).		
922—(Average mo	nthly)		No. of Coys.	-000 zlotys.	No. of Coys.	· ooo zlotys.	
923 924—January	200	* 4	28	332	=		
February			21	88	24	7	
	**		20	1,027	18	8	
	* *	4.0	24	2,506	30		
April			28	11,934	30	10	
May		* *	20	6,129	16	68	
June			10	3,825	10	I	
July			4	201	10	5	
August			6	3,526	4	I	
September		4 0	5 6	5,400	12	365	
October			6	344	2	I	
November			4	926	8	276	
December			2	430	3	73	
1925—January			2	300	I	0 4	
February			-	-	2	2 6	
March	V., (2	20,200	1 2	730	

The following figures represent the average quotations of shares of nine industrial companies at the end of each month in 1924 and 1925. The total value of all transactions in 1924 and 1925, as compared with 1923, is also appended. The latter figures are quoted from the returns of the Warsaw

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Bourse. The average quotation of 1914 is taken as 100. Thus:—

Months.			1924.	1925.		Total value of transactions on the Warsaw Bourse.			
					1923.	1924.	1 1925.		
January			52.28	20.68	3.3	5.0	with		
February			62.46	28-79	1.8	5.7	2.1		
March			60.95	25.05	2.7	7.4	4.7		
April			46.06	19.76	7.7	3.6	2.6		
May			27.74	17.26	8-4	2 2	-		
June			21.00		8 0	1.3			
July			30.94	_	15.4	2.4	_		
August			35-73	_	7.5	4 · I	-		
September			26.92	_	5.3	3.3			
October			22.95		3.9	2 - 1	-		
November			20.66	_	4.7	1.6	_		
December			18.02	_	3 5	I'4	_		

It has been mentioned above that the stabilisation of currency and the increase in cost of production which followed the financial reforms, resulted in an advance in wholesale prices, which were soaring up to the world standard. This is illustrated by the following figures supplied by the Central Bureau of Statistics. The index figure of wholesale prices in January, 1914, is taken as 100:—

Index of Wholesale Prices.

-	-		General Index Figure.	Corn and Foods of Vegetable Origin.	Foods of Animal Origin.	Metals and Coal.	Building Materials.	Chemicais.
Average figu	res for-			1 1				
1922			72.8	87.0	72.3	83.3	50.0	62-I
1923			85 9	95 3	79.1	101.6	66-8	70.4
1924		+ 9	110.3	107.1	153.2	123.8	82.7	83.9
1923.			- 11					
December			99.8	76·1	96.6	111.4	63.9	76-I
1924.			17					
January			106.0	90.1	165.6	133.7	83.2	86-9
February			8.111	85.4	155-8	132.5	91.3	90 4
March			100 4	86.8	143'3	125.0	85.0	91.0
April			100.0	85.8	139.7	122.3	85.4	86.6
May			104.0	87.3	125.2	119.7	79.6	88.9
lune			100.6	84.7	113.3	119.7	78.3	88.7
July			102.3	94'1	130.4	118-3	73-0	83-1
August	1.0		109.2	117.8	150.4	118.9	72.6	79.8
September			12214	135 9	160.2	118.9	76.9	79.9
October			116.4	142'1	184.7	121-5	81.8	76.0
November			116.6	137 0	180.5	123.7	89.2	71.9
December	10		118.3	134-7	181.6	125.7	92.4	80.0
1925.				Page 1			F-78 -	
January			119.5	185.8	148.0	127.6	93.0	79.4
February	. 6.7		121.1	181.8	150.2	124.6	96.3	79·I
March		. 6.	121.6	184-8	146-4	123.0	98.4	82.3

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The upward movement of wholesale prices is characteristic of the general conditions in Poland. The advance in January, 1924, was consequent upon the financial reforms which were commenced in that month. At the same time the capacity of the home markets declined—the increase in prices of agricultural produce was smaller than that of manufactured articles. In consequence, the purchasing capacity of 65 per cent. of the population has decreased. The second half of 1924, however, witnessed a reverse process, but the partial crop failure of that year counteracted all possible benefits which might have accrued from the increased buying power of the farming population.

The returns of the Central Bureau of Statistics show the extent of the crop failure in 1923-24 as compared with the preceding year:—

your.	I			923–24 Crop 000 Quintals).	Decrease in 1923-24 Crop as compared with that of 1922-23 in Percentages.
Kye				10,148	48-7
Wheat				8,844	34.7
Barley				12,081	27.0
Oats				24,120	35:5
Other Cr	ops	* 1	**	91,593	26-7

The position of industries was made worse by the fact that goods warehoused during the whole period of inflation were now thrown into the market. A considerable decline in output was observed in all industries, and at the same time the wholesale prices of many articles manufactured in Poland exceeded the world standard. Polish goods have thus lost their competitive ability which they had acquired during the preceding years; in addition, foreign manufactures began to penetrate into Poland and to compete with Polish-made articles.

An adverse trade balance in 1924 and in the current year was the direct result of this situation. It must, however, be borne in mind that the disastrous harvest of 1924 was an important factor in the trade deficit of that year. Agricultural produce had to be imported in large quantities, as will be seen from the figures appearing in another article.

To define the exact decrease in production during the present industrial crisis is impossible, for no statistics are as yet available. The table below will give a general idea as to the importance of the crisis. Further data will be found in articles dealing with particular branches of industry.

THE INDUSTRIES OF PCLAND.

		and Si	n of Mining melting stries.	Fact	ories.		
Month.		Figure of Mining and Smelting Production.		Working one Wo	e No. of Days per orkman ekly.	No, of Unem- ployed on the 1st of each Month.	No. of Applica- tions for 100 Vacancies.
		Average Produc 1923	tion in	In all Industries.	Textile Industry.		1
1924.							
January		95-5	95 5	4.88	4.00	67,581	205.7
February	4 411	84-1	91.8	5.15	4.53	100,530	204 4
March		87.2	88·I	5:32	4:99	110,737	177.8
April		84-5	86.8	5.08	4 · 12	109,531	161.4
May		84.3	83 9	4.92	3 31	94,600	159 I
June		61.0	71.4	4.98	3.82	97,870	205.4
July		59.8	66.4	5 23	4.02	137,830	255.1
August		42.2	59.4	5.48	4.80	152,390	540.2
September		63 6	59.3	5.42	4 79	165,440	526.7
October		74.7	58 9	5 84	5.36	156,110	413.8
November		72.0	58.8	5.46	4 · 22	146,740	557.3
December		72.8	58.3	5.50	5 10	150,650	804.4
1925.							
January		76-8	57.0	5.66	5 35	161,940	791.6
February		69:4	_			175,930	824.9

It appears from the above figures that the climax of the crisis was reached in the second half of 1924 when we see a further decline in the production of Mining and Smelting Industries, together with a rapid advance in the number of unemployed. By the end of 1924 and in the beginning of the current year the crisis had somewhat abated, although there was no decrease in the number of unemployed. The extent of the crisis is further illustrated by the decrease in loads carried on Polish railways:—

mbi ma	Wagons	Wagons Loaded.		Industrial Loads. No. of Wagons Loaded.		
et mor	1923.	1924.	1925.	1923.	1924.	1925.
January	1 11,557	9,811	9,542	1,376	941	1,149
February	12,551	10,673	10,004	1,649	1,147	1,544
March	13,128	11,037	- :	1,864	1,367	
April	11,503	10,700	_	1,621	1,377	_
May	10,027	12,111		1,654	1,351	
June	13,340	10.443	_	1,953	1,212	_
luly	13,064	10,112	_	1,988	1,332	_
August	13,426	8,789	_	1,902	1,273	1700
September	12,535	11,945	_	1,762	1,410	-
October	11,657	14,449	-	1,463	1,435	
November	13,016	13,919	_	1,381	1,359	_
December	11,200	11,719	_	1,304	1,165	-

Owing to the increased production of sugar, and the consequent necessity of transporting sugar beet, the loads carried by railways at the end of 1924 exceeded even those of 1923.

The attitude of Polish industries towards the crisis was not one of passive resistance. Almost immediately the crisis began efforts were made by the industries concerned, and often also by Government, to relieve the situation.

The problem of estimating the costs of production is at present a question of vital importance. It is obvious that during the period of devaluation any calculation in the strict

sense of the word was impossible.

Attempts are being made to decrease the costs of production by a total reorganisation of its system. These attempts have been frequently impeded by lack of capital, necessary for the introduction of new installations, labour-saving devices, etc. In spite of this, however, large quantities of new machinery were purchased by Polish industries even during the year 1924. The textile industry in particular made considerable investments in new plant. No fewer than 106,000 spindles were imported for the manufacture of fine fabrics which have never before been produced in Poland. New methods of well-drilling were introduced in the oil industry, which enabled the period of drilling to be reduced from three or four years to one year. The work of electrification has also made considerable progress. Electric installations are to be introduced throughout the oil basin, and the existing systems in the coal districts will be extended.

Labour-saving devices are being introduced with excellent results. In the textile industry, the mechanical staff has been reduced, and the normal proportion between the numbers of manufacturing and auxiliary labour has been restored. The same applies to coal mining, where the numbers of pithead workers have been reduced to their pre-war strength. In consequence, by the end of 1924 the productive capacity of labour has increased in many branches of industry, and is still increasing, which is illustrated by the following comparison of the average productive capacity of one workman

at the beginning and at the end of 1924 respectively.

Output o	f Cod	day	Mining. per Workman anuary.	(in Tons). December.
Dabrowa	Basin	 1	0-47	0.74
Krakow	22	 	0.48	0.79
Silesia		 	0.59	0 94

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To illustrate further the importance of reducing the number of workmen as compared with the cost of exploitation of coal, we append a comparative table of the cost of labour per one ton of coal in Polish and German Upper Silesia, respectively.

The cost of labour per ton was as follows:--

		Polish	Upper Silesia.	German Upper Silesia.
1924.			(zlotys).	(zlotys).
January			7-96	5.55
March	1		8.35	5.22
May			7.05	9.49 (strike)
October			4.89	5.10
November		* *	4.86	2.31
December			4.8I	5:30

The cost of labour per ton of coal in January, 1924, was higher in Polish than in German Upper Silesia, but by the end of the year the proportion became reversed. When the crisis showed signs of abatement in the beginning of the present year, it was decided to increase the number of working days of actually employed workmen, instead of re-engaging those who had been dismissed. This explains the fact that, in spite of a somewhat better outlook in Polish industries at the beginning of the current year, the number of unemployed has shown no decrease.

The extremely difficult conditions in which Polish industries have to continue their activities have had a tendency to centralise industrial concerns. The chaos in the home markets, and the lack of co-operation between Polish firms operating abroad, required a thorough settlement by the organisations concerned. In 1924 the "Federation of Polish Refineries" was formed, which incorporates already the entire mineral oil-refining industry. During its short existence the Federation has succeeded in re-organising and regulating the methods of sale throughout the industry. A "Cement Trust" was also formed to include all cement factories, save one. Considerable difficulties are experienced in the federation of the Smelting industries and the Timber trade, although progress in this direction is being made.

In addition, many industries have formed Export Unions in order to co-operate in the expansion of their business in foreign markets.

The efforts of the Government to relieve the severe industrial situation deserve special mention.

The Government's campaign began with a series of reductions of, or exemptions from, duties and taxes. The Coal Tax was repealed in 1924, and the corresponding assessment of the Industrial Tax in respect of coal was considerably reduced. Freight charges on State Railways were reduced, especially for the transportation of raw materials and of articles destined abroad. In order to encourage exports, the Bank of Poland granted special export credits, and facilities for the discount of foreign bills. An important step was also made when the Turnover Tax was abolished in respect of exported goods.

It is clear from the above remarks that the industrial crisis in Poland was by no means due to overproduction. Its causes lay in the sudden shock administered to the economic life of the country by the stabilisation of currency and the financial reforms. The crisis, though severe, affected the industries but temporarily. On the other hand, it served as an impulse to energetic development so as to enable competition with the highly industrialised countries of Europe. In this respect, the crisis was of great advantage to Poland and to her industries.

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this this tions is in The severity of the crisis was increased by the disastrous crop failure in 1924. The harvest prospects for the present year are excellent. The situation will be further improved by the increasing work of building and by Government orders for the construction of new harbours, railway lines, etc.

During the last few years building activities were practically abandoned owing to the complete lack of funds. The Government has now earmarked 100 million zlotys of the proceeds of the American Loan for the purpose of subsidising building operations. The satisfactory Budget will now enable the Government to undertake the construction of works of public utility which were abandoned for reasons of national economy.

All this leads us to believe that the current year will be more favourable to the industries of the country than the preceding one has been.

1. Distilling.

As regards potato production, Poland occupies the second place amongst the countries of Europe, the potato crop in 1924-25 amounting to 268,696,000 quintals.

Such abundance of potatoes is of great importance for the development of the various industries manufacturing potato

products, such as spirits, starch, potato flakes, etc.

The bulk of potato production in the former Central and Russian Empires was collected in the respective Polish provinces which were ruled by them. This is obvious from the following table:—

		crop per head population. Klg.	
Grand Duchy of Poznan	 	 2,600	
East Prussia	 	 1,310	
Germany (without Polish provinces)		 740	
Galicia	 	 170	
Austria (without Polish provinces)	 	 245	
Former Congress Kingdom	 	 750	
Russia (without Polish provinces)	 	 150	

Prior to the war the distilling industry in Poland was at the height of its development; as regards production, it yielded only to Russia, and equalled the production of France and that of Germany within her present frontiers.

The following quantities of alcohol were distilled in various

countries during the year 1912-13:-

					Hectolitres.
Poland		 			 2,742,300
France		 			 2,953,000
Germany		resent	frontie.	rs)	 2,884,000
Russia (a	pprox.	 			 4,000,000

Polish distilleries suffered severely from the ravages of the war. A large number of them were destroyed by direct military operations, and many were robbed of their equipment by the German authorities of occupation. The greatest damage was done to distilleries in the Eastern counties, where no fewer than 335 distilleries with a total output of 408,200 hectolitres existed in 1913–14. In 1922–23 these figures were reduced to 52 and 23,690 hectolitres respectively.

During the season 1923-24 only 1,232 distilleries were active in Poland; about 1,300 are still in a state of ruin. The shortage of capital makes the reconstruction of these very difficult.

The development of the distilling industry since the war is illustrated by the following table:—

	Yea	r.	No. of active	Output of alcohol of 100 per cent. strength			
			distilleries.	In hectolitres.	In percentages.		
1913-14			 2,510	2,742,300	100.0		
1919-20			 659	222,100	8·1		
1920-21			 856	454,800	16.6		
1921-22			 1,131	598,100	21.8		
1922-23			 I,202	879,820	32·I		
1923-24			 1,287	825,750	30.1		

The production of 1923-24 forms thus only 30·1 per cent. of the pre-war output. In spite of this, we can observe a considerable progress in the work of reconstruction of the distilling industry. During the five years 1919-1924 the number of active distilleries has increased by nearly 100 per cent., from 659 to 1,287. A particularly rapid progress took place in the development of industrial distilleries; this being due to the increased consumption of molasses:—

Year.	No. of di	stilleries.	Production	of Alcohol.	Production of ind, distilleries in
t car.	Agricultural.	Industrial.	Agricultural.	Industrial.	percentages of total production.
1913-14 1922-23 1923-24	2,485 1,155 1,232	25 47 55	Hectolitres, 2,690,000 806,370 727,860	Hectolitres. 50,400 73,450 95,690	Per cent. 1.8 8.3 11.6

The export of alcohol forms at present but a small fraction of the total production. The bulk of exported alcohol is destined for Germany. The following quantities were exported:—

1922 13,073 tons. 1923 2,718 ,, 1924 3,515 ,,

The value of the alcohol exported in 1924 was 2,354,000 zlotys. Consumption of alcohol in Poland for industrial and lighting purposes is as yet insignificant and forms but to percent. of the total consumption. The increased consumption of alcohol for industrial purposes is strongly advocated by the Government.

The production of spirits is also highly developed. The treating capacity of all spirit-producing establishments is about 3,000,000 hectolitres of alcohol per annum and exceeds

by far the actual production of the latter.

The spirit-making industry is concentrated in the Western provinces of Poland, especially in the counties of Poznań and Pomerania. The two largest factories, viz., the "Akwawit" and "Winkelhausen" are situated in Poznań and Starogard respectively. The former is equipped with the largest spirit-making plant on the Continent. In other parts of the country the spirit-producing industry exists in the shape of special departments in connection with distilling works.

Large quantities of liquors, etc., were also produced in the former Austrian provinces; in the former Congress Poland

so-called neat spirits formed the bulk of production.

The development of this industry in 1923 is shown by the following figures:—

No. of factories—946.
Total production of spirits ... 900,000 hectolitres, including
Raw spirits 600,000 ,, and
Liqueurs, brandies, etc. ... 300,000 ,,

Polish spirits are known in the Scandinavian countries, also in Great Britain, the Balkans, and in Russia. The exports of spirits were as follows:—

1922 1,530 tons. 1923 346 ,, 1924 352 ,,

2. Brewing Industry.

Polish breweries have an abundant supply of the chief raw materials, viz., hops and malt. The cultivation of hop-fields is very extensive, and considerable quantities of hop are exported, in addition to meeting the demand of local breweries. The export of hops is represented by the following figures:—

The output of Polish breweries has declined considerably since the war, which was due to the decreased consumption of beer. Furthermore, many breweries were destroyed during the war, and out of the 500 existing before the war, only 243 were active in 1924.

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The annual output of Polish breweries, as returned by the Central Union of Polish Breweries, was as follows:—

	Year.	No. of breweries.	Output in hectolitres.	Per cent
Before	the war	 500	8,000,000	100.0
1919	1	 -	2,300,000	28.75
19:0		 _	1,900,000	23.75
1921		 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	2,100,000	26.25
1922		 _	2,400,000	30.0
1923		 247	1,300,000	16.25
1924		 243 approx.	2,000,000	25.0

The consumption of beer per head of population before and after the war was as follows:—

Before the War:		After the War :		
Former German provinces	112.3 litres			7.67 litres
" Austria "	41'5 11	1921		8.67 ,,
,, Congress Kingdom				8 00 ,,
Average in Poland	34.0 "	1923		4 33 //
		1924	 	8.20 ", abbrox.

The consumption of beer in 1924 formed but 24 per cent.

of pre-war consumption.

The brewing industry in Poland has excellent prospects of further development. As soon as the consumption of beer reaches its pre-war standard, the production of Polish breweries will not be able to supply the demand. The pre-war yearly consumption is estimated at 9,200,000 hectolitres, whereas the present yearly output of all breweries does not exceed 2,000,000 hectolitres.

The production of malt has also excellent prospects, in view of the fact that Poland is in Europe one of the chief

producers and exporters of barley.

The crop of barley in Poland in 1924-25 formed 12.40 per cent. of the total European production. The production of other countries reckoned in percentage of the total European crop was as follows:—

Germany	 	18.59 per cent.	CSlovakia	 8-26 per cent.
Spain	 	16.53 ,,	Scandinavia	8.6
Poland	 	12'40 ,,	Great Britain	 8.6

Malt-floors exist in Poland in connection with every brewery. In addition, there are 40 independent malt-floors with a total

surface of 131,000 square metres.

The production of malt amounts at present to about 40,000 tons per annum, which, compared with the production of barley, is a very small figure indeed. Here, as in other industries, the shortage of capital places great difficulties in the way of further development.

Part of this comparatively small output is, however, being exported. The exports of malt, which do not exceed to per

cent. of Poland's export capacity, were sent to Belgium, Austria, Switzerland, and the Scandinavian countries.

The following figures show that the export of malt is steadily growing:—

In	1920-21	 	 	15,000	tons	were	exported
22	1921-22	 	 	25,000	12	2.0	13
	TO 22-22			25 000			

3. POTATO PRODUCTS.

Starch

The total number of starch-producing establishments in Poland is 132, the majoirty for agricultural purposes.

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The output of starch in Poland prior to the War amounted to 80,000 tons per annum; about 50 per cent. of this was produced in former Prussian Poland.

The industry suffered severely from the damages of the War; most of the starch-producing works in Eastern Poland were completely destroyed, and are now being rebuilt.

The statistics for 1922-23 return the number of active starch works as 67, and their total production as 32,000 tons, i.e., only 42 per cent. of the pre-War output. During the same period, 21,700 tons of starch flour were produced.

Potato Syrup.

The pre-War output of this product amounted to 20,000 tons per annum, but since the War the production has considerably decreased. There are at present six factories of Potato Syrup, producing a total of 8,000-10,000 tons yearly.

Potato Flakes.

These are produced mostly in the parts formerly German of the country; this is due to the proximity of Germany, which absorbs the bulk of Polish potato flakes. There are 190 potato drying works in Poland, of which 174 are situated in the counties of Poznań and Pomerania.

The annual production of potato flakes before the War amounted to 50,000 tons; during the season 1922-23 this figure was exceeded, the output in that year being 62,000 tons.

Potato products are manufactured primarily for export. Home consumption is insignificant.

The exports of these products during the years 1922-24 were as follows:—

		1922	1923	1924
		Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Starch and potato flour		11,700	27,050	15,728
Dried potatoes and flakes	2+	20,145	33,400	29,997
Potato syrup, glucose and dextrine	24	-	-	527
		T8 4		

4. SUGAR INDUSTRY.

The production of sugar from beet, which was initiated in Western Europe in the beginning of the 19th century, evoked great interest in Poland. After many attempts at the cultivation of beet and the subsequent production of sugar, the first Polish sugar factory was established in 1820 by Count Mycielski, on his estates in the province of Poznan. This was followed by another factory in the former Austrian provinces in 1823, and of yet another in the Congress Kingdom in 1826. Thus, already in the early years of the 19th century, sugar factories were established in all three parts of Poland.

The development of the sugar industry in all parts of the country was gradual. The first sugar-producing establishments were owned by private landowners, and were mostly of a somewhat primitive character. With the development and improvement of machinery great sugar factories were established throughout the country by large companies. The development of the sugar industry on a large scale began in 1870 and its evolution was different in each part of the divided

country.

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The Polish provinces which were ruled by Germany were always regarded as being distinctly agricultural. The German Government spared no efforts to develop both agriculture and the agricultural industries in these provinces. Thus, State railways were developed throughout the territory, long-term credits were readily granted to landowners and farmers. Under such conditions, the establishment of large sugar works in the provinces of Poznań and Pomerania was greatly facilitated. It is to be noted that these factories produced only raw sugar, which was subsequently sent to German or foreign refineries, since no refineries existed in that part of Poland.

The conditions in the former Congress Kingdom were entirely different. The Russian Government, not only systematically refused to support Polish agriculture, but by supporting agricultural development in Russia proper, spared no efforts to suppress a similar development in Poland. The construction of railways or roads was prohibited for strategical reasons. No credits were granted to landowners, and sugar

of such policy the sugar factories of the Congress Kingdom a rebuilt on a much smaller scale than those in former German Poland.

In the former Austrian parts, i.e., in Galicia, the conditions were always unfavourable to the development of the sugar industry. In consequence, the number of sugar factories there was gradually decreasing, and at the outbreak of the war there

was only one sugar factory in that province.

Prior to the war there were 88 sugar factories within the present frontiers of the Republic; these factories owned 182,082 hectares of land for the cultivation of beet. The land thus cultivated produced annually 4,434,600 tons of beet, which were manufactured into 594,130 tons of white sugar. The Great War had a disastrous influence on the economic life of Poland, more especially that military operations did not cease there until 1921. The statistics of the Polish post-war sugar industry, i.e., beginning with the season 1921-22, are represented by the following figures:—

Year.		No. of Sugar Works.	Area of Beet Plantations in Ha.	Beet Crop in Tons.	Production of Sugar Tons.	
1921-22	-1.1	 	68	81,836	1,560,000	155,400
1922-23		 	71	108,729	2,081,000	270,000
1923-24		 	75	141,217	2,765,800	345,700
1924-25		 	76	169,916	3,125,000	438,070

An analysis of these figures, and their comparison with those for the year 1913–14, will lead us to interesting conclusions. Out of 88 factories existing in Poland in that year, only 68 were working in 1921–22, i.e., in the first year of normal conditions for the sugar industry. It is obvious that both the area of plantations and the production of sugar have, in consequence, also decreased. This will be clear from the following comparison:—

Year.	Sugar Works.	Area of Plantations in Hectares.	Beet Crop. Tons.	Sugar Production, Tons.
1913-14	88	188,082 100 per cent.	4,434,600 100 per cent.	594,130 100 per cent.
1921-22	68	81,836 45 per cent.	1,56c,000 35 per cent.	155,400 26 per cent.

SUGAR INDUSTRY.

Thus the production in 1921-22 amounted to slightly over a quarter of the pre-war production.

Compared, however, with the production of the last season, the sugar output of 1921-22 has increased immensely. Thus—

and ve	Yea	r.	Gyner (II Jos	Sugar Works.	Area of Plantations. Hectares.	Beet Crop. Tons.	Sugar Production Tons.
1913-14				88	182,082	4,434,600	594,130
1924-25				76	169,916 93 per cent.	3,125,600 70 per cent.	438,070 74 per cent.

It appears from these figures that the area of plantations is rapidly approaching the pre-war figures, and that the production forms already nearly 75 per cent. of the pre-war output.

The consumption of sugar per head of population amounted before the war to 11-12 klg annually. During the war this figure declined considerably, and has not, as yet, reached its pre-war standard. The consumption is, however, gradually increasing. Thus—

		Co	nsumption	of Sugar
Year.		pe	r head of po	pulation.
1913-14			11-12	klg.
1921-22	2.4		3.9	99
1922-23			6.2	**
1923-24			6.35	11
1924-25			8.9	0.0

The value of **exports of sugar** from Polish sugar works prior to the war cannot be estimated, since the factories were situated in three different States, and no statistics as regards their exports are available. Since the war, Poland exports her sugar regularly, and with the increase of production increase her exports. This is apparent from the following table:—

Year.	E	Exports of Sugar.
		Tons.
1921-22	 	40,000
1922-23	 	95,000
1923-24	 	150,000
1924-25	 	190,000

SUGAR INDUSTRY.

We may conclude from the above cursory remarks that the production of sugar forms an important part in the industrial life of the country. In Europe, Polish sugar production occupies the fourth place after Germany, Czechoslovakia and France. As regards the volume of exports, Poland occupies the second place after Czechoslovakia.

The figures quoted above show that the sugar industry has developed immensely since the conclusion of the war. There

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is every hope for its further development.

THE AGRICULTURAL SYNDICATES OF POLAND AND THEIR CENTRAL ORGANISATION:

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The "Kooprolna" Agricultural Trading Company Ltd., Warsaw.

(Spolka Akcyjna Handlowo-Rolnicza "Kooprolna.")

It is impossible in a few pages to give more than a short description of the work and development of the above-named Agricultural Syndicates or Cooperative Trading Associations which were first organised in 1899 and have within a comparatively short period, interrupted to a certain extent by the war, reached a stage of development which makes them a permanent factor in supplying the needs of the farmer and landowner and in assisting them to dispose of their produce.

The lack of co operation in trade had been felt by farmers in Poland long before that time; it was only in 1899, however, that the Russian Government, which ruled over the largest part of Poland, decided to allow Agricultural Trading Associations, called Syndicates, to be founded, the activities of which were strictly limited to one county.

Within a few years in each county an Agricultural Syndicate was formed with most of the larger farmers and landowners as members, and branches of these Syndicates were opened in a great many district towns.

The Syndicates soon realised that by combining they would be able to purchase their goods more cheaply, and satisfactorily, and sell their produce to greater advantage. This led to the formation of a central organisation, which, having existed in one form or another long before it assumed its present character and name, after a great many difficulties, due, before the establishment of Poland's independence, to distrust of the Russian autorities and to obstacles of a legal nature, finally took the form of a Limited Company in which the Syndicates hold all the shares. This is the Spolka Akcyjna Handlowo-Rolnicza "Kooprolna" (The "Kooprolna" Agricultural Trading Company, Ltd.) which has its head office in Warsaw.

There are 37 agricultural Syndicates with 146 branches, besides the Agricultural Bank at Lwow (Lemberg) at present associated with the "Kooprolna."

The map of Poland accompanying this article shows how widely the Syndicates and their branches are distributed over the whole country. This distribution gives them special facilities, not possessed by any other organisation, for dealing with the whole agricultural population. It will be seen that, apart from the originally associated Syndicates in the former Kingdom of Poland, agricultural societies in Galicia (formerly Austrian) and some in the former Prussian part (Poznania) have joined the "Kooprolna" after the war. In all the sixteen counties of Poland the "Kooprolna" is represented either by affiliated Syndicates or its own branches.

Apart from this, other agricultural institutions in Posnania and Pomerania, which exist independently, have often united with the "Kooprolna" in a joint scheme for the purpose of importing agricultural commodities such as fertilisers, machinery, &c., and exporting in payment for these farm produce such as grain, sugar, &c. Such a situation arose in 1923 when the Polish Treasury arranged to collect the taxes from the farmers in the form of grain, the price of which was fixed in advance at its approximate export value. A company was formed, called the "Unitas," in which the "Kooprolna" owned the majority of the shares and took charge of its commercial management. A loan was obtained in London by the "Kooprolna" for an amount of £200,000, which was remitted to the Polish Treasury on account of the taxes due by the farmers, who in return delivered to the "Kooprolna" at Dazzig 58,313 tons of grain, which eventually formed part of the total amount of grain exported by the "Kooprolna."

The development of the "Kooprolna" has been very rapid since the war. As a general buying and selling agency for the Syndicates it has established branches in Danzig, Poznan

and Katowice (Upper Silesia). It also has an agency in London (see cover of this book) through which during the last five years, purchases of large quantities of fertilisers, machinery, &c., have been made and financial relations with London banks on a large scale have been established.

The first most important post war action of the "Kooprolna," which was calculated to exert a most beneficial influence in raising agriculture after the vicissitudes it had passed through was finding the means for supplying the tarmer with fertilisers and machinery for his exhausted and neglected land. This was done through the London agency of the "Kooprolna" with the assistance of London banks by means of a Bareer Scheme. Partly on account of official restrictions, and partly on account of the decreasing value of the currency, the prices of farm produce in Poland at the time were much below world market prices.



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In order to place the farmers in a position to pay these prices for fertilisers and machinery, the "Kooprolna" supplied them with what they required, and by obtaining credits in London, enabled them to pay for all these commodities out of the produce of the following harvest n grain, sugar, farina and even timber, which were exported and sold abroad.

The following will give an idea of the effect of the barter scheme, which has been carried on uninterruptedly ever since.

In 1020 about 61,000 tons of fertilisers, 250 tractors, 1,600 harvesting machines, binder twine, &c., to the value of about £1,000,000 were imported by the "Kooprolna" into Poland.

In 1924 the " Kooprolna" supplied the following goods

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r. Fertilisers:	gooda :	
Nitrate of Soda to the value of about Superphosphate (manufactured in Poland)	£474,000	
Basic Slag (from abroad) Basic Slag (from home)	£23,000 7,500	
Potash Salts	30,500	
2. Machinery	£644,500 142,000	
3. Iron and Hardware	125,000	
5. Grain sold in Poland	£41,000	
Flour	77,000	
6. Coal and Coke	£1,008,500	
7. Sugar, Flour, &c. (Upper Silesia)	1,151,500 160,000	
and the same of the same of	£1,311,500	5
Bought for export :— Grain to the value of	£90,000	٠
Clover Seeds	I2,500	
,,,,,,,,,	4,500 £107,000	3

Besides the above transactions, in 1924 the "Kooprolua" exported to England, France-Holland, Belgium, Denmark, Esthonia, Finland, Latvia, Norway, Austria, Germany and Switzerland 91,540 tons of Rye, Barley and Oats, and 838 tons of Peas, Beans, Vetches and Clover Seeds. The grain exported by the "Kooprolua" through the Port of Danzig constituted 90 per cent. of the total quantity exported through that port.

The harvest being a good one this year, the "Kooprolna" is prepared for a large export of grain. Apart from the annual credits for fertilisers its London agency has, with the guarantee of the Polish Treasury, been successful in arranging with a group of British Banks, headed by the British Trade Corporation and the British Overseas Bank, Ltd., a credit for £1,000,000 to be used as advances to the farmers in Poland to enable them to export their grain. This credit has saved the farmers, whose means were much depleted by last year's bad harvest from falling into the hands of unscrupulous speculators.

The "Kooprolna" also takes an active interest in the flour mill industry. After the war some German flour mills were purchased in former Prussian Poland, and since that time, new mills with a total daily output of 240 tons have been built or are in course of construction. For this purpose local flour mill associations are being organised among the farmers. Associated farmers supply the building and undertake to "feed" the mill with grain. The "Kooprolna" supplies the machinery on credit terms. The more elaborate parts of the milling machinery which cannot be manufactured in Poland are being imported from France, while the locomobiles are being supplied by Messrs Marshall, Sons & Co., Ltd., of Gainsborough with the assistance of the Export Credits Department of the Board of Trade.

The CAPITAL of the "Kooprolna," which was insignificant at the outset, has been greatly increased as a result of a small commission added to the price of goods supplied to the Syndicates. It stands, at present, with reserves, at about 2,500,000 zloty (about £100,000). This capital may appear insignificant to English readers, in the circumstances, however, in which Poland is placed at present, it can be regarded as quite considerable. The strength of the "Kooprolna," however, lies not in its pecuniary resources, but in the influence it exerts on its shareholders, who all have a common interest at stake. It is by the will of its individual shareholders, which is ever increasing in strength, that it prospers and, as time goes on, the greater advantages to them of the central institution becomes more and more evident.

From this short survey it will be seen how it has been possible, by careful management and a studious application of means to requirements, to build up a powerful institution in Poland, such as few other countries possess, exercising a beneficial and permanent influence on the agricultural interests of the country.

WOOD INDUSTRY.

The production of timber, aided by the abundance of forests, occupies one of the most important places amongst

the industries of the country.

According to the returns of the Central Bureau of Statistics for January 1st, 1925, there were in Poland on that date 778 establishments in the different branches of the timber industry; these employed a total of 43,211 workmen. It must be added that only mills employing over 20 men are included in these figures. The 778 establishments are distributed over the country as follows:—

Midland counties—185 establishments, employing 11,843 workmen.

Eastern counties—80 establishments, employing 2,551 workmen.

Western counties—284 establishments, employing 11,353 workmen.

Southern counties—57 establishments, employing 3,824 workmen.

South-eastern counties—172 establishments, employing 13,640 workmen.

Most of these mills employ from 20 to 50 men each; the number of such mills was 548, and the total number of workmen employed 13,909. In addition, the following mills employed:—From 50 to 100 workmen—140 mills, total employed 9,693.

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,,	100	,,	200	22	_	54	25.	1.0	**	763
2.3	200	,,	300	99.		18	77		1)	4,254
2.7	300	2.2	500	**	_	16	**	+6:	00.	629
1,	500	2.2	1,000	**	_	2	.14	.10		1,481

There were no mills employing over 1,000 men.

The above mills were all active on January 1st, 1925; apart from these there are in Poland 171 establishments temporarily closed down; under normal conditions these employ a total of 4,319 men.

As regards the number of employees, the timber industry occupies the fourth place amongst Polish industries, yielding only to the textile industry (122,793 employees), the engineering industry (82,495), and the food-producing industries (56,036).

Sawing mills are concentrated in the neighbourhood of Bydgoszcz, which was, prior to the war, the recognised centre

of the German timber industry. The development of the industry in that particular district was warranted by the proximity of forests, also by the convenient lines of waterways existing between Bydgoszcz and the eastern Polish forests (Bydgoszcz Canal, Rivers Vistula and Bug, Augustów and Royal Canals). It must also be noted that Germany strongly supported the progress of the timber industry by means of protective import duties, and by affording many important transport facilities. Other localities where the timber industries are flourishing are usually situated in close proximity to the large forests in the east. The chemical treatment of wood is carried on in Białowieża and Augustów; the largest works in Europe producing articles of dry distillation of timber are situated in Hajnówka, near Białowieża. Many turpentine works of various sizes are to be found in that district.

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In addition to sawing-mills, the timber industry is represented by various other establishments, such as carpentries, furniture works, shops producing fancy wood articles, frames, baskets, etc.

The manufacture of bent-wood furniture is well-developed; its progress is aided by the abundance of raw material, and especially of beech wood. At the beginning of 1924 there were in Poland 20 large factories of bent-wood furniture, employing a total of 5,300 men.

Working at their maximum capacity these factories could give employment to over 20,000 workmen. Most of the bent-wood furniture made in Poland is exported to the United States, the Argentine, Germany, Italy, Czechoslovakia, Holland, etc.

The exports in 1922 amounted to 1,452 tons; 2,726 tons were exported in 1923, and 4,138 tons in 1924. These figures show the increasing demand for Polish furniture in foreign countries.

The following are the largest Polish factories of bent-wood furniture:—Thonet Brothers, employing 860 men; "Wojciechowo," 670; "Mazowia," 435; Kon Brothers, 222; and the "Bentwood Furniture Company," of Noworadom, 218 men. All these factories are situated in the former Congress Kingdom. In addition there is the "Mundis" factory in Galicia, and the "Gosciecin Chair Company" in Pomerania: each of these employ about 300 workmen.

I. THE COAL INDUSTRY IN POLAND.

1. The Coal Resources in Poland.

The coal found in the Polish Republic in the so-called 'Dabrowa, Kraków, Teshen and Upper Silesian basins' represents genetically one unit and forms part of the Silesia-Moravia-Kraków coal basin embracing the great Silesian lowland, which was created during the Carboniferous period. The division of Poland between the three Empires was solely responsible for this irregular demarkation, although it is in fact noticeable as regards the various calorific value of coal from the different basins which, not only in the home market but also abroad, caused a differentiation of the various brands of coals, such as that from the Kraków, Dabrowa and Silesian districts.

According to the latest investigations of Professor Michael, the area of the Silesia-Moravia-Kraków coal basin is 5,757 sq. kms, the division into separate districts being as follows:—Former German Poland: Upper Silesia 2,800 sq. kms. 48.6%

,, Austrian ,, Kraków basin 2,517 ,, 43·5 % ,, Russian ,, Dąbrowa ,, 440 ,, 7·9 %

These figures, however, are exaggerated, especially in regard to former Russian Poland, as, on the strength of borings proving the existence of productive formations on the territory of former Russian Poland, this area can be calculated at 200 sq. kms. at the most. In accordance with recent calculations made by the geologist Makowski, the whole area of the basin amounts to 5,400 sq. kms., of which the following portions are situated within Polish territory, the remainder being retained by Germany:—

Total .. 3,880 sq. kms. 100 per cent.

The strata of the Polish basin can be divided into three groups:—

(1) Group "Reden" (Upper Coal).

(2) Group "Super Reden" (Middle Pennant).

(3) Group "Sub-Reden" (Lower Coal).

The first of these groups contains thick strata which, in the eastern part of the basins, join together into one layer attaining a thickness of 20 metres. The other two groups contain a stratum of lesser thickness.

The calorific value of the coal in the various groups is not the same, but varies locally. This is shown by the following figures:—

The "Reden" group ... from 6,500 to 7,600 cal. The "Super Reden" group ... , 4,800 ,, 7,000 cal.

(the first figure is that of coal in the eastern part of the Kraków basin)

The "Sub-Reden" group... from 5,200 to 7,100 cal. (the first figure for coal in the Kraków basin).

According to the calculations of the State Geological Institute, which are most reliable as being the result not only of a critical analysis of all previous calculations but also of additional studies, the deposits of coal in the Dąbrowa basin down to a depth of 1,000 meters, and only as regards strata of a minimum thickness of 60 cms., are as follows:—

- (a) Actual deposits 500 million tons.
 - (b) Probable deposits 900 (c) Possible deposits 800 .. , ,,

Total .. 2,200 million tons.

According to groups :---

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- (a) "Reden" group 900 million tons.
- (b) "Super Reden" group ... 250 ... (c) "Sub-Reden" group ... 1,050

Total .. 2,200 million tons.

If strata of 50 cms. thickness are taken into account the above figure would read 2,300 million tons.

As can be seen from the above table, the principal deposits of coal in the Dabrowa basin are to be found in the "Sub-Reden" groups and to a lesser degree in the "Reden" group, while it should be noted that of the 800 million tons of possible deposits the "Sub-Reden" group, which has been less thoroughly investigated, contains not less than 610 million tons.

Coal from the Dabrowa basin has already a well-established name, not only in the home market but also abroad, as a good

THE COAL INDUSTRY.

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fuel coal. For industrial purposes Dabrowa coal is inferior to other coals only for two branches of industry, i.e., gas industry and iron manufacture. This is due to its belonging to the superior category according to Gruner's Classification, i.e., to the so-called dry and longflame coals, and as such it is unsuitable for gas generating or for coking.

These two branches of industry are, therefore, supplied with coal and coke from Upper Silesia and Czechoslovakia. In addition Dabrowa coal is superior to others as being the hardest and therefore capable of producing up to 50 per cent.

of large assortments.

The analysis carried out before the war by the Central Sugar Laboratory in Warsaw showed the following results in the case of Dabrowa coal:—

Ashes		 0.5 % uj	o to 1.24 %
Moisture		 14.0 %	,, 9.19 %
Sulphur		 0.5 %	" I·24 %
C		 70.58 %	,, 60.42 %
H		 4.46 %	3.72 %
0		 12.29 %	,, 10.07 %
N		 1.39 %	,, 0.95 %
Calorific v	alue	 6,290 %	7,000 cal.

Deposits in Polish Upper Silesia have been calculated by the Geological Institute as follows:—

(a) Actual deposits:

"Reden" and	" Super-Reden "	4,703 million tons.
strata.		

Total .. 5,288 million tons.

(b) and (c) Probable and possible deposits:

"Reden" and "Super-Reden" 34,918 million tons. strata.

"Sub-Reden" strata 4,675 ,, ,,

Total .. . 39,593 million tons.

Total of (a), (b) and (c), 44,881 million tons.

Of this, according to approximate valuation, it can be assumed that the actual deposits and probable deposits, which represent greater value as regards industry, amount to 36,000 million tons.

THE COAL INDUSTRY.

The above data indicate that in Polish Upper Silesia enormous quantities of coal deposits are found in the "Super-Reden" and "Reden" groups, while the deposits of the "Sub-Reden" group represent only an insignificant part of the total. The ratio between the groups (a), (b) and (c) can be expressed as being 8:3:1, which shows that this basin has been inadequately and certainly less thoroughly investigated than the Dabrowa basin.

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Coal from the Upper Silesia basin can be classified according to its position in the first four classes of Gruner's Classification: dry, gas, caking and coking. The analysis shows the following results:—

Ashes			3.0 %	to	6.77 %
Moisture					10.64 %
C			61.39 %		
H			5 5 70		
N			5.53 %		I · 48 %
Calorific va	alue, 5,500	to		2,8	1 40 /0

It is extremely difficult to calculate the deposits of coal according to quality. Speaking conservatively, it may be assumed that the stocks of coking coal in Polish Upper Silesia amount to about 11 per cent., i.e., to some 5,000 million tons. The quantity of gas coal may be calculated, conservatively again, at 8,000 million tons. The remainder consists of fuel coal.

The Kraków basin contains three coal fields: the northern or "Jaworzno" (Chrzanów), south-eastern or "Spytkowice" and south-western or "Brzeszcze."

The stocks in this basin are as follows: (a) and (b) Actual and probable stocks:

Spytkowice	397 S	q, kms.	4,600	million tons.
Brzeszcze	200	- 11	600	
Jaworzno	91	93	1,500	
Total			6,700	**

The above calculation is based on a depth of 1,000 metres and a thickness of layers of over 75 cm. If layers from 50 cms. are added, the total is increased to 8,200 million tons. In the case of the remaining 600 sq. kms. of coal fields situated in Galicia, only the possible deposits of group (c) can be taken into

consideration. This would give some 6,000 million tons. Thus, the total deposits of coal in Galicia amount to 14,200 million tons.

Such insignificant deposits in comparison with those of the Dabrowa basin, especially when the respective areas are compared, are explained by the fact that so far only the existence of strata belonging principally to the "Super-Reden" group has been ascertained in the Kraków basins. Strata of the "Reden" group, which form the principal wealth of the Dabrowa basin as of Upper Silesia, have not been found here at all. Strata of the "Sub-Reden" group may occasionally be met here, but only at a greater depth and of an insignificant thickness and as such are of no industrial value.

The coal of the Kraków basin, belonging to the "Super Reden" group, bears the characteristics of these coals, viz. it is of the poorest quality, contains great quantities of ashes and moisture and, being soft, it is unsuitable for long transport. It also contains inter-strata of loamy slate from 10 to 30 cms. thick, which decreases the already low calorific value of the coal. The analysis carried out at the Central Sugar Laboratory in Warsaw shows the following results:—

Ashes	 	 2.68 %	to	15.0 %
Moisture	 	 6.0 %	12	20.0 %
C	 	69.58 %		
H	 	4.20 %		
0	 	 14.88 %		12.59 %
N	 	 1.30 %	11	0.67 %

Calorific value, 5,000 to 6,250 cal.

According to Gruner's Classification, this coal belongs to

class I., i.e., dry and longflaming.

Polish Teshen Silesia possesses formations of productive carbon extending over an area of 200 sq. klms. The coal here belongs to the "Super Reden" group and therefore possesses the characteristics of Kraków coal. The deposits amount to about 500 million tons, almost exclusively belonging to group (c,) i.e., "possible," as this area has been little investigated.

Now, when the above-cited figures representing all four coal basins are added together, it will be seen that the total deposits of coal in Poland amount to 61,881 million tons, of which the "actual" and "probable" stocks are represented

by the figures 43,100 million tons.

THE COAL INDUSTRY.

It is, therefore, evident that in respect of coal wealth, Poland occupies the third place amongst European States, viz.:—

Germany	 	349	milliard	tons.
Great Britain	 	189	22	37
Poland	 	62	,,,	22
Russia	 	60	11	3.3
France	 	17		11
Belgium	 	11	"	,,

Apart from pit coal, Poland possesses coalfields bearing brown coal or lignite.

In view of the fact that Poland possesses these two kinds of fuel and in view of the state of development of their exploitation, the economic importance for the country of pit coal mines and lignite mines is entirely different. Approximately about 250 times more pit coal is raised than lignite, and, if we take into consideration the smaller value of the latter, it will be clear that lignite mining has not much economic importance for the country. The stocks of lignite are calculated at 63 million tons, the calorific value of the lignite being 4,500 calories.

Output of Pit Coal in Poland during the years 1913-1924 in Tons.

Year,	Polish Upper Silesia with the "Silesia" Mine (Teshen Silesia).	Ratio in Per- centage to 1913.	Dabrowa Basin.	Ratio in Per- centage to 1913.	Krakow Basin.	Ratio in Per- centage to 1913.	The whole of Poland.	Ratio in Per- centage to 1913.
1913 1918 1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924	31,937,475 19,198,261 24,789,835 22,393,807 25,791,612 26,630,153 23,815,610	60·11 77·62 70·12 80·76 83·38	6,819,209 4,498,687 4,613,710 4,873,709 5,751,767 7,054,968 7,418,575 6,585,097	100 00 65·90 67·66 71·47 84·36 103·46 108·79 96·57	1,970,790 1,537,366 1,348,642 1,385,416 1,672,512 1,985,525 2,049,269 1,823,973	100.00 78.00 68.43 70.30 84.86 100.75 103.98 92.55	40,727,474 25,160,613 31,048,960 29,818,086 34,832,105 36,097,997 32,224,680	61·78 76·24 73·21

THE COAL INDUSTRY.

3. Movement of Coal in the Polish Coal Mines in the year 1924.

p.	in Stock Carried Over for	NextYear.	606,495 2-55 2-55	475,392 6.54 6.3x	82,274 4 69 4.51	1,104,16x 3,46 3.43	737,683 2 05 4 05
	Grand Total.	:	23,818,260	6,352,050 rad·ao 96 46	1,755,264 100.00 96.23	31,925,574 100.00 99.07	35,990,153 100.00 99 70
		Total.	3,121,873 13.11 13.11	841,103	322,053 18.35 17 65	4,285,029 I3.42 I3.30	4,581,813 12.73 12.69
	Consumption.	Grants in Kind.	632,561	3.38	84,798 4 83 4 65	939,879	1,004,597 2.79 27.8
umption.	ŭ	Used by Mines.	2,489,312 10 45 10 45	618,583 9.74 9.39	237,255 13.52 13.00	3,345,150 10.48 10.38	3 577,216 9.94 9.91
Total Consumption.		Total.	20,696,387 86.89 86.90	5,510,947 86.76 83-69	1,433,211 81 65 78 58	27,640,545 86-58 85-77	31,808,340 87.27 87.01
	Sales,	Export.	11,244,026 20,696,387 46 79 86.89 46.79 86.90	\$73,915 \$.79 \$.68	14,284 0.81 0.78	11,532,225 36 12 35 78	12,560,295 34.90 34.79
		Home Markets.	9,552,362	5,137,032 80 87 78 or	1,418,927	16,108,320 50 46 49.99	18,848,045 52:37 52:21
100			:::	:::	:::	:::	:::
			Upper Silesia Percentage of expenditure Percentage of quantity raised	Dabrowa Basin Percentage of expenditure Percentage of quantity raised	Krakow Basin Percentage of expenditure Percentage of quantity raised	Total Percentage of expenditure Percentage of quantity raised	Year 1923 Percentage of expenditure Percentage of quantity raised

4. Export of Coal from the Polish Coal Mines in the year 1924.

THE COAL INDUSTRY.

4. Export of Coal from the Polish Coal

	Sile	sia Basin		Dal	orowa Bas	sin.	Krakow
Country.	Tons.	Per- centage of the Exports from Silesia Basin.	Per- centage of the Total Exports.	Tons.	Per- centage of the Exports from Dabrowa Basin.	Per- centage of the Total Exports.	Tons.
I'o Germany—							
Upper Silesia	1,954,384	17 63	17.03			-	_
(b) Eastern Prussia (c) Remaining	209,541	r 88	1.82	555	0 15	en-rete	-
Germany	4,602,379	41.30	39 91	_	_		-
Total	6,776,304	60.81	58-71	555	0.12		_
Austria Hungary Czechoslovakia Danzig Free City Rumania	2,586,351 622,111 508,951 336,937 133,075	23·21 5·58 4·57 3·02 1·20	22'43 5'40 4'41 2'92 1'16	261,680 59,586 46,002 470 4,977	69.98 15.94 12.30 0.13 1.33	2·27 0·52 0·40 0·04	9,339 4,385 ————————————————————————————————————
Switzerland Yougoslavia Memel	61,644 59,739 19,264 14,223	0.56 0.54 0.17	0·54 0·52 0·17 0·12			=	
Italy Denmark	13,576 9,160 1,468	0.08	0·12 0·08	=	=	=	=
Bulgaria Sweden	502 365 356	=	=	645 —	0·17 —	0.01	=
Total	11,144,026	100 00	96.64	373,915	100.00	3.24	14,2840
Year 1923	11,985,445	100.00	95 42	533,812	100.00	4.35	41,028

5. Consumption of Coal in Poland.

			Users					1924.	1923.
Railways	• •							3,124,830 3 79,52 0	5,122,300
Army and Go								169,230	66,200
Agriculture a	nd A thori	gricultu ities and	ral In publ	idustry ic instit	utions	8.0		483,850 1,075,450	1,158,000
House fuel		• •		* *		• •		1,359,220 2,977,800	1,216,900 2,185,045
Agents Coke Works								1,200,620	1,679,300
Industry		• •	• •		• •	• •	- • •	5,238,800	6,712,700
Total	• •		* *	• •	• •	• •		16,108,320	18,848,045

Mines in the year 1924.

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Basin.			Total fi	rom the wh	nole of Polan	d.		
Per- centage	Per-		1924.		1923.			
of the Exports from Krakow Basin.	centage of the Total Exports.	Tons.	Average per Month.	Per- centage of the Total Exports.	Fons.	Average per Month.	Per- centage of the Total Exports	
-	_	1,964,384	163,699	17.03	1,746,158	145,513	13.90	
_	_	210,096	17,508	1.82	209,685	17,474	1.67	
_	_	4,602,379	383,531	39.91	6,087,060	507,256	48.46	
Gard.	-	6,776,859	564,738	58.76	8,042,903	670,242	64-03	
65·39 30·70 2·94 0·98 —	0·08 0·04	2,857,370 686,082 554,953 337,827 138,192 61,644 59,739 19,264 14,223 13,576 9,160 1,468 1,147 365 356	238,114 57,174 46,246 28,152 11,516 5,137 4,978 1,605 1,185 1,131 763 122 96	24·78 5·95 4·81 2·93 1·20 0·54 0·52 0·17 0·12 0·08 0·01 0·01	2,789,607 3,74,571 742,226 240,221 121,302 154,065 21,187 16,247 2,950 6,150 17,770 5,461 85 24,965 585	232,467 30,121 61,852 20,018 10,109 12,839 1,766 1,354 246 513 1,481 455 —	22·21 2·98 5·92 1·91 0·97 1·23 0·17 0·13 0·02 0·05 0·14 0·09	
100.00	0.13	11,532,225	961,019	100 000			_	
100.00	0.33	_	_	_	12,560,295	1,046,691	100.00	

As can be seen from Table 2, the production of the Upper Silesia basin shows least progress, as the maximum obtained in 1923 amounts only to 83°38 per cent. of the pre-war output, while that of the Dabrowa basin during the same period reached 108°79 per cent. and that of the Kraków basin—103°98 per cent. of the 1913 production. This can be explained by the abnormal conditions consequent upon the war and by the political uncertainty which prevailed longer in Upper Silesia than in other districts, *i.e.*, up to the middle of the year 1922, when part of Upper Silesia was finally incorporated into Poland.

Different conditions prevailed in former Russian Poland and Galicia. With the advent of Poland as an independent State the Polish Government gave careful protection to the mining industry by furthering all initiative on the part of industrialists with regard to the renovation of damaged plant and of making new investments. In spite of the coal famine, the Government released the sequestrated coal in certain quantities for the purpose of purchasing abroad the necessary machinery. A scheme of partial recovery of invested capital by means of reduction of the purchasing price and premiums has also been inaugurated by the Government.

Thanks to the above, the beginning of the year 1919 already showed a rapidly increased output. The mines, taking advantage of Governmental assistance, made enormous investments, so that in respect of their technical equipment the mines of both the Dąbrowa and the Kraków basins show great advance over pre-war times. New mines were brought into existence, as, for example, the "Jowisz" mine, belonging to the "Saturn Company," which as regards its engineering equipment and protection of labour finds no equal not only in Europe but in the whole world.

Table 2 shows that the output in Poland in the year 1924 fell considerably below that of 1923. This can be explained first of all by the general coal crisis which the whole world then experienced, and further by the acute economic crisis within Poland herself. An exceptional lack of demand in the coal markets resulted in almost every country in a huge accumulation of raised coal, restricted production and finally in sharp competition.

In Poland exports fell some 9 per cent., while the whole consumption showed a 15 per cent. decrease. This decrease of consumption was, no doubt, partly due to an exceptionally mild winter. The Government, aware of the excessive production and the unavoidable loss of part of the foreign markets (for example, Germany), has set itself, from the moment Upper Silesia was incorporated, to increase the home consumption of coal as one of the principal aims of its coal policy.

An increased consumption, however, cannot be realised within a short period of time, as it is closely connected with the general progress and the economic state of the country. The only means of keeping the demand and the production to the present level, is therefore to foster at any cost the export

of coal to all possible markets, i.e., by retaining the old markets

and gaining new ones.

Above all, it was imperative to make it possible for dearer Polish coal to compete with the cheaper foreign coals in the oversea markets. The coal tax was, therefore, abolished on July 16th, 1924. In April, 1925, the turnover tax was similarly abolished in the case of coal exports and this helped to a considerable extent to bring the prices down. At present Polish coal is cheaper than Czechoslovakian, British and some German coal. Special tariffs were also introduced for coal intended for export.

Very significant efforts have been made with regard to

increasing labour efficiency.

While at the beginning of the year 1924 the output per shift per man amounted—

at the end of the year 1924 the output increased to-

In Dąbrowa basin ... 0.740 ton. ,, Kraków basin ... 0.793 ... ,, Upper Silesia ... 0.917 ...

At some mines, as for example at the "Skarboferm" coal mine, the output per shift per man amounted to 1·1 tons, which shows great progress considering that in the year 1913 with a 10-hour working day the output amounted to 1·17 tons.

The regaining of competitive powers, together with the considerable increase of labour efficiency and the vast possibilities of an increased home consumption, fully justify the optimistic outlook as to the future of the Polish coal industry.

"POLMIN"

STATE OIL WORKS

Head Office: Warsaw, ul. Elektoralna 2

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General Representatives of the Drohobycz State Mineral Oil Works (Generalvertretung der Staatlichen Mineralöl Fabrik Drohobycz Aktiengesellschaft) Berlin W. 66—Wilhelmstr. 42b.

Polish State Petroleum Company Limited (Państwowe Zakłady Naftowe m.b.H.) Danzig—Wallgasse 15-16.

TELEGRAPHIC ADDRESSES:

- "POLMIN"—Warsaw; "POLSTAATSMIN"—Berlin;
- "POLTANK"—Danzig.
- "POLMIN"—Drohobycz.

Refinery: State Mineral Oil Works at Drohobycz (Państwowa Fabryka Olejów Mineralnych w Drohobyczu) —universally called "POLMIN."

Mines: Tustanowice, Borysław, Bitków.

The purpose of the undertaking is the exploitation of the petroleum mines which are the property of the Polish State, and the working up of rock oil at the State Mineral Oil Works at Drohobycz as also the sale of oil products at home and abroad.

The main objective of the State Oil Company is the State Mineral Oil Works at Drohobycz which is one of the largest refineries not only in Poland but on the whole Continent

The Works, which have a working capacity of 36,000 wagons of oil per annum, manufactures every kind of petroleum product, such as: aviation oil, extracts, motor, tractor and varnishing oils, high-flamed petroleum, for exports, "Watek White" and refined petroleum, gas oil for the manufacture of gas and for fuel, vaseline, spindle, transmission, compressor, transformator, turbine, machine, motor, aeroplane, cylinder, vulcan oils, cart grease and "Tovotte," paraffin, candles and asphalt.

II.—THE PETROLEUM INDUSTRY IN POLAND.

1. Historical Outline.

The beginning of the Polish Petroleum Industry dates from the year 1857, though even before that date, and as far back as the 16th century, oil was known to appear on the water surface in wells dug in Galicia and elsewhere. It was then used almost exclusively for medical purposes and as a lubricant.

In the year 1857 the first Polish Petroleum Company, viz., "Klobassa, Lukasiewicz and Trzecieski" was formed in the district of Jasło, for the purpose of exploiting crude oil in the immediate neighbourhood. In the following year an oil refinery was established in Ulaszowice and began to distill crude oil according to the

method invented in 1853 by Dr. Lukasiewicz.

In 1854 the first oil lamp was lit by Dr. Lukasiewicz in a hospital at Lwów, and during the years 1861-1862 Polish oil was first used for lighting purposes on Austrian railways and in the streets of Prague. The American Petroleum Industry commenced

almost simultaneously with that of Poland.

The year 1884 forms a turning point in the history of the Polish Oil Industry. In that year, drilling activities by a mechanical process were commenced by a Canadian, William MacGarvey. An entire drilling outfit was imported from Canada and boring activities began in Kryg, near Gorlice. The Canadian plant was subsequently improved upon and adapted to local conditions by Polish engineers such as Jurski, Zdanowicz, Mikulski, Wolski, and others. From that time the output of oil was increasing rapidly. The height of development was achieved when that brilliant Polish engineer, Stanislas Szczepanowski returned from England and commenced the exploitation of oil, first in Sloboda Rungurska, near Kolomyja, and then in Schodnica.

A model refinery of oil was simultaneously constructed by Szczepanowski in Peczeniżyn, near Kolomyja. The latest plant,

based on American patterns, was introduced.

The discovery of rich oil-fields in the district of Boryslaw in 1898 constituted an important step forward in the development of Polish oil production. The Boryslaw fields soon became covered with thousands of drilling towers; new companies, both Polish and foreign, were formed; the output of oil soon exceeded the demand of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and Polish oil, petrol, paraffin and grease became of world-wide renown.

In 1904 new oilfields were discovered in Tustanowice, near Boryslaw, by Wladyslaw Szujski, who was killed in action on the western front during the first year of the War. This discovery

resulted in intensive exploitation in the Boryslaw-Tustanowice district, and oil-mining in Galicia was flourishing.

The output of oil in 1909 exceeded 2 million tons, and in that

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year formed over three per cent. of the world production.

Under the supervision of Polish engineers, wells were drilled down to a depth of 1,500 m. and deeper (the deepest well, "Henryk," in Tustanowice, has a depth of 1,817 metres); as regards the depth of shafts, Poland soon achieved a record, and Polish miners are,

therefore, sought after in all oil-producing countries.

The increasing output of the Boryslaw and Tustanowice fields. which formed over 90 per cent. of the total oil-production in Poland, caused an acute crisis in the oil industry. When new wells, such as "Wilno" and "Oil City," produced as much as 100 wagons per day each, a sudden overproduction of petroleum was experienced. Refineries were unable to cope with the abundant supply of raw material, reservoir accommodation was insufficient to store the surplus. In consequence, there was an unprecedented slump in the prices of oil, which, at one time, was offered at 0.60 Austrian crowns for 100 klg. New reservoirs, with a total capacity of over 100,000 wagons, were hastily built; the Government Factory of Mineral Oil in Drohobycz was then established for the purpose of manufacturing fuel oil, which was subsequently used on the railways.

After 1909 the output of oil in Boryslaw and Tustanowice began to decline; the last years preceding the Great War were marked by stringent money conditions, and were, in consequence, unfavourable for the development of drilling activities. Still less could the industry be developed during the War, when the oil-fields were within the range of direct military operations and were repeatedly captured or re-captured by the belligerents. During the Russian retreat of 1915, part of Tustanowice and of its oil was burnt; and during the Ruthenian invasion, i.e., from the end of 1918 until the second half of 1919, all activities were abandoned, since the oil mines were deserted by the technical staff and workmen.

The Polish Administration received the oilfields in Galicia in the latter half of 1919 in a state of utter neglect. In addition, a flight of Austrian and German capital was experienced; but this was soon substituted by French enterprise. The changes of ownership and the difficulties in obtaining the necessary plant and machinery caused a considerable delay in the re-commencement of normal activities. In fact, the exploitation of existing fields did not begin until 1921.

After this short historical outline we may consider the present state of development of Polish (a) oil mining, (b) refineries, (c)

exploitation of mineral gas, and (d) output of ozokerite.

2. Oil Mining.

The Polish oilfields are spread over the slopes of the Carpathian mountains over a distance of 400 kilometres, extending from

THE PETROLEUM INDUSTRY.

Kleczany (District Nowy Sacz) in the west, to Kosmacz and Sloboda Rungurska (District Kolomyja) in the east. Thus, the petroleum belt extends from the Western to the Rumanian frontier of Poland.

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In no fewer than roo localities oil is produced. In some places the output is insignificant; others, like Potok, Kroscienko, Boryslaw, Schodnica and Bitkow, form the centre of the petroleum industry. The wells in western Galicia are numerous, but the output is small, whereas in the eastern parts of the country, and especially in Boryslaw, Tustanowice and Mraznica, great quantities of oil are found.

Large quantities of petroleum in Poland appear at greater depths than those in other oil-producing countries—usually at a depth of over 1,000 metres. The costs of drilling are, therefore, considerably higher and are the main cause of insufficient exploitation of many fields, where drilling had to be abandoned before the required depth had been reached. In Boryslaw, however, deep drilling has been carried on with excellent results.

As has been mentioned, oil mining in Poland is concentrated in one or two districts. This concentration results in a sudden increase in oil production, with a discovery of new oil-bearing wells in such districts, and a corresponding decline when the supply is being gradually exploited. The following Table (I.) illustrates the extent of oil production in Poland during the years 1884-1924:

Table I.

	Ye	ear.	-	Tons.		Y	ear.		Tons.
1884		1.		2,300	1905				801,800
885				8,000				::	760,400
1886				43,100	0			- ::	1,775,970
887				40,000					1,721,590
888				64,900				- : :	2,053,150
.88a				71,700					1,761,420
1890				91,600					1,453,030
1891				87,700				- : :	1,186,500
1992				89,900					1,071,040
1803				96,300				- : :	878,020
1894				132,000				- : :	740,000
1895				214,800	6			- : :	919,090
1896				339,700	barn.				849,730
1897				309,600	2079				822,940
1808		1		323,100				- : :	831,700
1899				321,600	1920				765,020
1900				326,300					704,870
1001				452,200					713,100
1002				576,000	70.00				737,180
rg03				713,300	****				770,792
1904				827,100	-3-4		•••		77-179-

It is apparent from this table that the exploitation of oil was increasing until the year 1909, when it reached its maximum of 2,053,150 tons; at that time Galicia occupied the third place

THE PETROLEUM INDUSTRY.

amongst oil-producing countries, yielding only to America and the Caucasus. The lowest point was reached in 1921, but since 1922 the output is steadily advancing. The production of 1924 has increased by 10 per cent. as compared with that of 1921.

Tables IIa, IIb and IIc show the production of oil in particular week

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districts during the years 1919-1924:-

Table II. (a)—Mining District Jasto.

	A G	DIC AL.	0) 11111				
Locality.		1919.	1920.	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.
Kleczany		209	142	122	117	128	97
Posadowa		24	25	22	19	26	7
Ropa		-	-	2	4	3	O.
Plowce		_	_	_	_	38	22
Szymbark		187	642	703	480	150	172
Ropica ruska		_	26	39	454	16	269
Lazy			_		5		
Siary		9			-	240	288
Sekowa		349	157	152	351	340	200
Dominikowice	* *	220	285	218	756	83	
Dukla		230	205	210	/30	14	_
YF		936	752	735	1.020	1,027	993
Kryg		1,559	1,405	1,226	764	1,467	1,392
Libusza		1,521	1,558	1,592	1,635	2,130	3,010
Korczyna-Biecz		286	296	344	266	350	538
Harklowa		3,501	3,395	2,974	3,070	3,171	3,801
Wojtowa		105	95	81	67	58	34
Pagorzyna		171	106	9.5	82	79	71
Lipinki		2,529	3,444	2,969	3,592	3,665	4,410
Mrukowa			7	2		_	_
Ropianka		124	86	195	212	201	140
Łeki		124	97	102	85	88	75
Kobylany		277	255	264	241	196	232
Rowne		4,054	3,855	3,557	3,285	3,011	3,060
Wietrzno		334	490	404	332	413	368
Rogi		1,535	1,426	1,157	1,061	979	733
Boberka		1,396	1,688	1,345	1,393	1,846	1,595
Bialobrzegi		38	3	_			0-6
Potok		10,027	8,845	9,822	10,696	11,664	12,806
Toroszowka		48	36	13	_		
Krosno		_	238	1,301	1,731	1,429	1,304
Weglowka		4,220	4,814	4,399	4,764	4,837	4,174
Kroscienko nizne		4,648	4,727	5,511	6,170	5,061	4,949
Kroscienko wyzne	* *	664	553 J	2,000	1,761	1,466	1,373
Klimkowka Jaszczew	• •	3,793	2,694	2,009	5	23	34
317.11	• •	2,340	1,401	1,493	2,843	3,099	1,104
Posada gorna	**	2,340	13	*,493		50	32
Iwonicz	**	518	663	1,051	1,398	1,773	2,068
Tokarnia		102	121	63	237	216	193
Rudawka rymani		48	67	66	111	70	79
Wola Jaworowa		26	57	63	86	55	23
Besko		-	12	6	2	_	_
Trzesniow		_	_	II	17	_	127
Turzepole		1,296	1,064	1,398	1,387	1,299	1,261
Grabownica starz		1,818	1,555	1,765	2,424	3,087	3,723
Humniska		901	892	724	869	920	887

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the Locali	ty.		1919.	1920.	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.
922		1		<u> </u>		1		1
has tara wies .			40	42	49	48	45	46
MORLS			87	79	152	174	257	231
larWielopole .		1.	Igo	59	6r	116	101	155
Witrylow	0	4.4	-	-	-	6	8	
	10		674	578	617	1,247	684	607
čmiennica .		2.4	756	670	697	656	643	575
Mecinka	0		_	-	-		_	34
Golcowa	0		-	- 1	-	-	_	14
Poraj			-	_	- 1	-	_	5
Stroze male .		71.	_	_	-	=	-	5
1. Tyrawa solna		5.0	-	_	-	-	-	4
Total			51,722	49,315	50,571	56,041	56,269	57,120 7
7								
0.7								

Table II. (b) District Stanislawow.

Loca	ality.		1919.	1920.	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.
Bitkow Jablonka	***		18,738	2,464	20,238	21,884	27,175 16	36,087
Kosmacz			565	624	-	1,393	1,233	988
Pasieczna	4.9		137	279	419	736	1,006	786
niow			-	141	777	.49	7	-
oloboda rui	ngur	4.0	1,704	2,414	2,464	2,618	2,179	2,193
Tekucza -	+ 9	44	part.	-	10	22	(1966)	-
Rosolna	10.4		-	-		-	-	48
Kryczka				_	_		-	56
Total		- 0	21,144	24,922	23,859	26,702	31,616	40,495

Table II. (c)- District Drohobycz.

Local	lity.		1919.	1920.	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.
Bandrów			-		_	_	0.2	-
Boryslaw	74	100	314,310	270,588	236,481	226,589	214,659	237,141
Duba			_	11	60	48	_	103
Dolina		2.0	7			5	13	
Holowiecko		2.0		_	_	-	27	12
Hoszów	Se.	5.5			_	_	19	-
Hubicze ruo	plap:	ana		_	_	1,639	1,611	783
Kropiwnik		26		10	_	-	_	-
Lodyna		- 1-	173	176	155	156	170	414
Mraznica			94,369	110,288	103,200	95,875	106,596	112,174
Nahujowice			-		_	1,025	579	628
Opaka			1,108	912	1,065	B75	784	851
Orów				_		206	211	225
Paszowa	-6-	10.00	567	470	487	516	490	469
Perehinsko		100	_	-	25	135	151	111
Polana			87	2	75	523	248	215

Locality.	1919.	1920.	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.
Popiele Rajskie Rojenka Rosochv Rozpucie Rypue Schodnica Sloboda dub Starzawa Strzelbice Tustanowice Urycz Wankowa	2,647 	7,614 22,942 378 -1,649 245,415 10,500 17,030	84 239 2,327 27 7,851 23,711 360 1— 1,462 225,383 11,956 15,393	36 103 2,242 17 	277 116 2,188 25 12 9,557 30,892 497 2 2,047 253,191 7,702 17,231	56 112 2,230 59 4 11,332 30,123 598 7 2,670 248,227 7,899 16,734
Total	758,834	690,783	630,440	630,357	649,295.2	673,177

An analysis of these tables will show that the production of oil in many localities varies little from year to year; this applies particularly to wells existing for 20 years or longer, where oil is found at a depth of 200 to 600 metres. In deeper wells, such as those of Boryslaw, Tustanowice and Mraznica, considerable fluctuations in the output of oil may be observed. In such wells, explosive oil is produced first and is subsequently pumped or sucked. But, since the establishment of Polish administration, even these wells have entered into a period of steady production, and the number of explosive oil wells has diminished considerably. The districts of Boryslaw, Tustanowice and Mraznica produce 78 per cent. of the total output of Polish oilfields.

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Amongst the recently exploited fields, where the production is steadily increasing, the oilfields of Bitkow (District of Stanislawow) and those of Rypno (District of Drohobycz) are noteworthy; it is probable that in these districts new fields will be discovered shortly; this will considerably increase the total output.

Petroleum found in the District of Boryslaw, known as the "Standard" brand, contains 10 per cent. of petrol, 34 per cent. of naphtha, 14-17 per cent. of gasoline, 15-18 per cent. of lubricating oils, and 5-6 per cent. of parafin. Other brands vary considerably as regards their chemical composition. The oil of Bitkow is composed of 36 per cent. of petrol, 35 per cent. of naphtha and small quantities of lubricating oils; the Potok brand has 15 per cent. of petrol, 40 per cent. of naphtha, and the remainder is constituted by gasoline and lubricants. Oils produced in other districts, such as Harklow, contain only a few per cent. of petrol, 20 per cent. of naphtha and a large percentage of thick oils. A particular variety of crude oil produced in Galicia is especially suitable for the manufacture of vaseline. This brand is transparent, of a cherry colour and is found in the District of Kleczany.

THE PETROLEUM INDUSTRY.

Table III. gives the number of wells classified according to the various stages of their development :--

3. Table III.—Number of Oil Wells (December 31, 1919-24).

11 12			Jas	ılo.			Drohobycz.				_	
Wells.	1919.	rgao.	1911.	1912.	19:3.	19 61	1919.	89 70.	1941.	1932.	1923.	1914.
Drilled	42	63	67	59	57	45 5	811	153	183	158	72	84 80
Total drilled	42	63	67	73	63	30	118	153	225	220	186	164
Mechanically equipped With suction apparatus in-	8	6	7	9	4	6.	45	49	69	64	59	42
stalled With pumping apparatus	31	22	26	18	25	20	164	159	170	173	208	209
installed	711	735	700	725	729	718	630	694	706	717	754	757
In preparation	18	15		В	6	- 8	В	33	33	29	47	31
Self-producing Gas-producing wells only	7	7	6	1 12	17	17	10 36	76	3 76	100	108	13
Total	818	849	831	846	848	800	1,011	1,171	1,282	1,311	1,371	1,330

		Sta	nisla) WOW	٧.				Tot	tal.		
Wells.	:616:	19 0.	39all.	3923.	1923.	1914.	1910.	1940.	39.11.	192 .	1913.	189
Drilled Drilled and exploited	7	5	15	18	46	41	167	221	265 42	235	217 81	150* 95
Total drilled	7	5	15	19	49	51	167	221	307	312	298	245
Mechanically equipped With suction apparatus in-	2	2	4	4	4	3	55	57	80	77	67	51"
stalled	7	10	13	12	16	28	202	191	209	203	252	257
installed In preparation	63	67 3 18	82 5	93 9	93 12	87 8	1,404 28 26	1,496 51 26	1,497 52 17	1,535 46	1,576 65 21	471
Self-producing Gas-producing wells only	15	-	5	9	8	10		83	87	121	135	25 141
Total	96	105	136	157	193	198	1,925	2,125	2,249	2,314	2,412	2,328

In addition, one well in Pisarzowa, employing 18 miners, was also being drilled.
 Including 20 wells prepared for pumping.

It is apparent from this Table that the number of oil-producing wells was advancing for some time after the establishment of Polish administration. In 1924, owing to the financial crisis which followed the monetary reforms, the intensity of drilling activities has diminished considerably.

The importance of Polish oil mining will be seen from the appended Table (IV.) giving the numbers of workmen employed in various branches of the Petroleum Industry.

4. Table IV.—Numbers of Workmen employed at the end of the years 1919-24.

District.	1919.	1920.	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.
Jaslo Drobobycz Stanislawów	6,442	2,982 7,461 1,042	2,966 9,227 1,196	3,121 9,101 1,142	2,920 8,579 2,514	2,064 6,457 2,426
Total	9,754	11,485	13,389	13,364	14,013	10,947

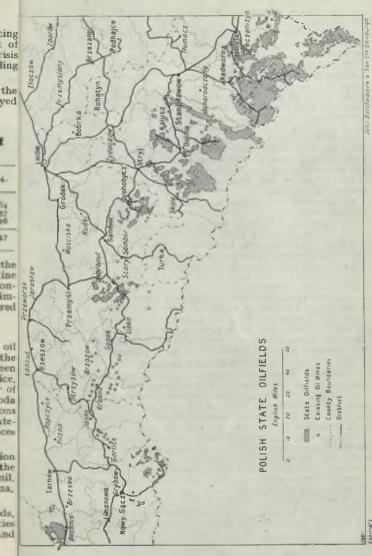
Should the number of drilled wells show no increase during the current and the following years, the production of oil may decline in consequence. There is, however, every prospect of a considerable extension of drilling activities, and, what is more important, these activities are being carried on in newly discovered fields.

5. State-owned Oilfields.

The Polish Government owns 298,371 hectares of land in the oil region. This area is composed of State forests on the slopes of the Garpathians, and the presence of oil in these districts has been proved by geological research. In some localities, e.g., Tustanowice, oil has already been found on State-owned land, and a number of wells have been drilled on such land in Łodynia and Sloboda Rungurska. In Tustanowice alone these wells produce 200,000 tons of petroleum per annum; in Łodynia, near Ustrzyki, an old Stateowned well gives 200 tons, and one in Sloboda Rungurska produces 400 tons.

The appended map of State-owned oilfields and their distribution throughout Galicia shows that these fields are situated mostly in the eastern parts of the country, in the districts of Lisko, Dobromil, Stary Sambor, Drohobycz, Dolina, Kalusz, Stanislawow, Nadworna, Bohorodczany, Kolomyja, Peczenizyn and Kosow.

Realising the importance of boring activities in new fields, the Ministry of Commerce and Industry is granting special facilities to private corporations or individuals leasing State-owned land



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for the purpose of exploitation. Land is leased on the following conditions:—

(1) Each firm negotiating with the Government for a lease of land in the oil-bearing districts may select an area of 2,000 ha. for the purpose of preliminary geological research. An additional 2,000 hectares may be granted by the Government, but in this case the area must be selected by Government experts.

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(2) The preliminary geological research must be completed within 12 to 18 months. After the expiration of this period, the company must decide on units of land selected for exploitation.

(3) During the second year, the drilling of at least two wells

must be commenced on the area selected.

(4) Within a maximum period of five years from the date of the lease the area leased must be divided into plots of from 50 to 100 hectares each; one half of these plots becomes then the property of the Government and the other—that of the lessee.

(5) Within the two years following, at least one well must be

erected on each plot.

(6) Government royalties amount to 10-16 per cent. according to locality and output

(7) Leases are granted for 25 years, with an option for an

additional period of 15 years.

About 10,000 hectares have already been leased on these conditions, and negotiations are proceeding for leases of further land. During the current year preliminary drillings have already been commenced in oilfields thus leased, in addition to drilling activities

carried on on private land.

Experts express the opinion that only 7 per cent. of the existing supplies of oil are being exploited; the total supply is estimated at 100 to 160 million tons. Taking into consideration that only 26 million tons have been produced since the beginning of oilmining in Poland, it is obvious that the Polish Petroleum Industry has excellent prospects for its future development.

7. Oil-Refining Industry.

Unlike the oil-mining industry, oil-refining was not concentrated exclusively in the former Polish provinces of the Austria-Hungarian Monarchy. Numerous refineries were erected in Hungary, Bohemia, and Lower Austria, although the transportation of crude

oil over long distances was naturally uneconomical.

It is known that, even with the best installation, no less than 12-14 per cent. of crude oil is lost in the process of refining. Considerable losses are also entailed through the transportation of oil, specially during the summer. It is, therefore, essential that refineries should be erected as near the oil-producing fields as possible, since the transportation of 86-88 per cent. of manufactured articles is more economical than the transportation of 100 per cent. of crude oil.

In view of the above, the development of the refining industry in remote parts of the Austro-Hungarian Empire can only be justified by the fact that, when oil-mining in Galicia was not yet developed, these refineries imported and refined Caucasian petroleum. When the importation of this product ceased in 1900, these refineries began to deal exclusively with Galician oil, the output of which was rapidy increasing.

During the Austrian rule, refineries situated in Galicia treated only 60 per cent. of Galician oil; the remaining 40 per cent. were treated in Bohemia, Austria and Hungary. With the decline in production after 1909, the activities of refineries showed a corresponding decrease, and their output was considerably below their

maximum capacity.

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Since the establishment of Polish Administration, the output of oil was smaller even than the capacity of refineries situated in Poland alone. In consequence, Poland is able to treat her total production of crude oil in her own refineries. At the same time, the Seym has prohibited the export of crude oil until such time when the annual production should reach 120,000 wagons, i.e., the total capacity of existing Polish refineries.

There are 34 oil refineries in Poland. The largest of them is the Government Refinery in Drohobycz, which is capable of treating 30,000 wagons of petroleum per annum; at present, however, like other refineries, the Government Factory deals with quantities of

oil much below its maximum capacity.

The number of workmen employed in oil refineries is 6.506, Inasmuch as Polish oil-wells are not always equipped with the latest plant and machinery—the refineries are equipped with up-to-date installations. Many of them have special departments for the manufacture of paraffin, for refining petrol, etc. In consequence, Polish oil products, such as naphtha and petrol of all grades, are renowned for their excellent quality.

The Polish Government owns the greatest Continental oil refinery in Drohobycz, which was built by the former Austrian Government for the purpose of manufacturing oil fuel; in later years this factory has been re-constructed and is now capable of producing all articles of petroleum origin. The refineries of "Nobel Brothers" in Libusza and Ustrzyki were also enlarged and reconstructed since the establishment of Polish administration.

The following Tables VI. (a) VI. (b) VI. (c) and VI. (d) give the figures relating to the output of refineries manufacture, home consumption and exports of petroleum products during the years

1920-1924.

Year.

Table VI. (a)—Crude Oil Refined.

1920	 	 	 000,705
1921	 	 	 626,993
1922	 	 	 370,073
1923	 	 	 653,943
1024			604 08

THE PETROLEUM INDUSTRY.

8. Table VI. (b) Output of Petroleum Products.

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Pi	Products.			1920.	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.
Petrol Naphtha Gasoline Lubricatin Paraffin Candles Vaseline	g Oils		•••	76,903 178,877 99,393 89,860 21,418	61,741 162,966 102,620 95,298 22,477 1,076 12,284	79,840 204,963 111,865 109,701 35,431 1,382 1,009 10,268	83,218 199,557 96,081 99,308 27,097 1,345 311 15,163	91,295 197,290 113,340 119,231 34,012 511 369 7,830
Asphalt Coke Semi-prodi laneous			scel-	141,774	4,674	7,068 95,683	6,305 81,033	9,038 54,694
Greases Total				608,225	957 571,671	658,310	610,335	628,731

9. Table VI. (c) -- Home Consumption of Petroleum Products.

р	rodu	cts.	1920.	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.
Naphtha Gasoline Lubricants Paraffin Candles	cts		 50,830 97,661 44,618 46,674 10,137	20,924 81,584 21,545 33,696 8,450 733 4,113 866 34,861 1,326	20,349 107,477 24,869 55,152 7,479 1,359 727 17,579 2,191 47,919 864	21,015 117,097 29,509 47,389 9,270 1,150 323 5,439 699 59,704 1,034	15,797 99,885 30,249 42,100 7,670 549 308 1,434 1,132 44,082
Total			 328,310	208,098	285,855	292,629	244,181

10. Table VI. (d)—Exports of Petroleum Products.

P	rodu	cts.		1920.	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.
Petrol Naphtha Gasoline Lubricants Paraffin Candles Vaseline Asphalt Coke Semi-produ Greases			• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	22,279 59,226 38,129 35,868 9,334 ———————————————————————————————————	45,638 105,716 78,087 61,667 14,134 723 7,475 3,423 16,465 321	55,335 109,027 94,235 50,447 23,143 236 28 4,326 5,292 18,729	61,689 65,436 66,379 60,482 24,131 297 36 3,918 6,251 26,283	78,304 101,919 83,536 71,523 25,544 51 124 3,553 6,180 34,139
Total				202,559	333,649	361,298	314,941	404,989

It is obvious from the above Table that the exports of Petroleum products from Poland are steadily growing. The home consumption in 1924 has declined owing to the financial crisis experienced in Poland in consequence of the monetary reforms.

THE PETROLEUM INDUSTRY.

Table VII. illustrates the extent of exports to particular countries:—

PPS -	2. 2	2 27	2.5	,
Ta	n	w	ш	

Countr	у.		1924.	1923.	1922.	1921.	1920.
Austria			84,230	86,810	1 68,050	51,300	55,566
Great Britain				860	250	707	1,252
America				100	140	65	2
Belgium			_		_	81	90
Bulgaria			_	_		_	26
Czechoslovakia			38,600	106,100	62,450	102,062	133,677
Denmark			250	_	1,550	710	1,484
France				920	10,400	4,345	5,580
F. C. of Danzig			10,750	-	53,710	37,031	57,652
Greece			_	_	10	34	102
Holland .			_			40	85
Jugoslavia			9,590	_	2,790	1,458	1,130
Memel			ALC: U			43	31
Lithuania			_	_	_		104
Germany			48,160	67,590	129,270	81,139	104,284
Norway						10	12
Palestine			_		400		_
Russia			60	_	940	590	1,416
Rumania			100	730	830	1,903	1,708
Switzerland			4,400	5,420	6,690	14,770	22,586
Sweden			720		620	101	71
Hungary			2,660	_	23,150	18,194	17,227
Italy]	2,150	_	80	357	892
Other countries			790	65,150	-		12
Total			202,460	333,680	361,330	314,940	404,989

Polish petroleum products find capacious markets in Czechoslovakia, Germany, Austria, Hungary and Switzerland. New markets, where Polish products were hitherto unknown, were secured in the Baltic States (Latvia and Estonia), Denmark and partly England and France. This expansion is due primarily to the possibility of reaching these countries through the Port of Danzig and the Baltic Sea. The exports through Danzig are growing steadily and are destined for Finland, Latvia, Estonia, Denmark, also for France and Great Britain.

11. Production of Mineral Gas.

The presence of natural gas in Galicia was established before the existence of oil had been ascertained.

In places where gas appeared, oil wells were subsequently constructed; the appearance of oil is invariably preceded by vapours which, so to speak, announce the proximity of oil strata.

Originally, little attention was paid to mineral gas in Poland; its value as fuel was unknown. Large quantities of gas were even regarded as an obstacle in the exploitation of oil, and were, therefore, allowed to evaporate.

In the Boryslaw-Tustanowice basin great quantities of gas were thus wasted. Only when the quantities diminished and the exploitation of oil became more expensive, the employment of mineral gas as fuel for well stoves was first thought of. This resulted in considerable economies being effected in the exploitation of oil. Mineral gas constitutes an ideal fuel in view of its purity and uniformity of temperature which it produces; the gas flames are smell-less, colourless and soot-less. The calorific value of gas depends on its chemical composition. Thus, one cubic metre of mineral gas, composed of metan CH₄, produces 9,000 calories, whereas the same quantity of coal gas produces but 5,500 calories.

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A considerable progress in the utilisation of mineral gas as a fuel may be observed in Poland since 1911. In that year the largest system of gas pipes was constructed, from Tustanowice to the Refinery "Galicia" in Drohobycz, over a distance of 10 km. 5,000 cubic metres of gas can be pressed into these pipes per hour. Another system of 9-in. pipes was constructed in 1913 over a distance of 13 kms., from Tustanowice to the Government Factory of Mineral Oils in Drohobycz.

At present, the total production of gas in the Boryslaw-Tustanowice basin, amounting to 570 m.³ per minute, is utilised as fuel in the Boryslaw oilfields and in the refineries of Drohobycz.

In that district, mineral gas forms an auxiliary material in the exploitation of oil. There are, however, localities in Poland where the exploitation of gas is carried on systematically. Such is the case in the Districts of Krosno; Kalusz, also, in the vicinity of Daszawa, near the River Stryj. The appearance of gas is not, as a rule, followed by a discovery of oil; it is possible that oil in these localities is present at greater depths than those at which gas is to be found (800—1,000 m.).

In February, 1919, the Belgian Company "Waterkeyn "succeeded in locating a well ("Wulkan II.") where the initial production of gas is estimated at 250 m³, per minute; since then the "gas fields" of Krosno attracted the attention of many oil companies. To-day, there are already 14 gas-producing wells there, and 13 are being drilled. The gas area extends over an area of approximately

6 klm., and over 200 gas wells may be drilled there.

When, in the beginning of 1919, the "Wulkan II." was discovered and produced 250 m³ of gas per minute, it was found difficult to utilise such enormous quantities in the immediate vicinity. The existing pipes conducted the gas to oilfields and refineries, but a considerable surplus still remained and could not be utilised unless new systems of gas pipes were constructed. This task was undertaken by the Government, and, amongst the earliest legislation of the Constituent Diet the statute of May 2nd, 1919, was passed, authorising the Covernment to undertake the construction of new systems of pipes for the purpose of distributing the existing surplus of mineral gas. The necessary sums were voted by the Seym and the construction is now being proceeded with under the supervision of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry.

To-day, the Government owns already a system of 10-in. pipes of a length of 63 klm. from the town of Iwonicz to the railway station of Gorlice. By this means gas is supplied to the larger refineries in Libusza, Jaslo and Krosno, to the oilfields in Potok

THE PETROLEUM INDUSTRY.

and to the towns of Jaslo and Krosno, where all houses are heated with petroleum gas. In addition, new factories were erected along the system and employ petroleum gas for their furnaces.

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In Kalusz, gas was discovered by a mere chance. An experimental well was being built in connection with the exploitation of potassium salts. At a depth of 876 metres a violent explosion occurred and the volume of gas was estimated at 100 m.³ per minute. It is now proposed to exploit this district systematically.

In Daszawa, south-east of the town of Stryj, gas was discovered in an oil-well. In 1921 the "Gazolina" Company constructed another well, producing nearly 20 m. per minute at a depth of 395 metres. This encouraged the Company to continue the drilling and in another shaft 100 m. of gas per minute appeared at a depth of 732 metres.

Mineral gas appears in many other localities. Thus, in Bitkow, the production of three wells totals 300 m. per minute, and it is proposed to build a new system of pipes from there to Lwow, so as to utilise the output. There is every reason to believe that gas exists in many oil-wells parallel with the oil strata, and systematic drillings may develop the gas-producing industry to an importance second only to that of the oil industry.

The following Table (VIII) illustrates the output of Mineral Gas during the years 1920-24.

Table VIII.

(in cubic metres).

	Year.	Jaslo.	Drohobycz.	Stanislawow.	Total.
1920		 99,026,856	1 282,289,075	1 23,657,070	404,973,00I
1921		 100,073,768	274,795,059	25,435,917	400,304,744
1922		 88,959,049	290,332,972	24,024,819	403,316,840
1923		 77,061,963	286,319,711	26,849,752	390,231 426
1924		 65,361,770	208,199,162	74,390,206	437,045,138

Factories of gasoline have now been built in connection with oil-wells in the Boryslaw district; gasoline is manufactured by a process of cooling with simultaneous compression.

The output of gasoline is increasing and amounted to 590 tons in 1920. In 1921 it was 661 tons; in 1922, 922 tons; in 1923, 2,075, and in 1924, approximately, 3,000 tons.

12. Production of Ozokerite.

Ozokerite (mineral wax) appears in Poland in certain oil-wells. It is a very rare product and, apart from Poland, is found only on the island Tscheleken in the Caucasus. Melted and purified ozokerite is known under the name of "ceresine." Its melting point is very high (67-80° C.) and for this reason "ceresine" is used for the manufacture of candles in the Southern countries. In Greece, for instance, all church candles are made of ceresine. In its raw state, ozokerite is used for insulation of electric cables.

The centre of ozokerite production is Boryslaw. Ozokerite was produced in Boryslaw long before the presence of oil was ascertained. The shallow strata of ozokerite are already exhausted; the exploitation of mineral wax from deeper shafts (200–300 m.) is very expensive, especially in view of strict Police Regulations compelling the owners to provide adequate ventilation for shafts, and generally to assure the safety of miners.

In addition to Boryslaw, ozokerite is found in Trsukawiec,

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The following Table (IX.) shows the production of Ozokerite in the years 1920-24:—

Table IX.

Year.		5	Stanislawow.			Grand		
		Dzwi- niacz.	Starunia.	Total.	Bory- slaw.	Truska- wiec.	Total.	Total.
1920		77	1 5 1	82	286	I - I	286	368 302
1921		66	3	69	233		233	302
1922		50	_	50	377	3	233 380	430 720
1923		34	10	44	613	63	676	720
1924		58	17	75	633	16	649	724

GAZOLINA Co. LWÓW LEONA SAPIEHY 3

Delivers from own Factories GASOLINE and BENZINE of all kinds.

Owns the LARGEST MINERAL GAS FIELDS in Poland, connected by about 120 kilometers of pipe lines.

Would accept offers of partnership with adequate capital for the purpose of erecting new factories near Stryj, Galicia, in order to exploit the rich, natural resources of the country for the production of cheap fuel.

III. - MINERAL INDUSTRIES.

1. Brick-Making.

It is very difficult to estimate the number of brick kilns in Poland, for the majority are only small fields which produce bricks for the needs of the immediate neighbourhood. It is estimated that in the former Congress Kingdom there is one brick kiln for every 32,000 inhabitants, and in Galicia one for every 6,000. The corresponding figure for the Western counties is 4,200.

According to the statistics of the Union of Pottery Industries, there are in Poland approximately 400 brick kilns of a permanent character. These are equipped with the latest plant and machinery. The bricks are burned in rotary stoves of the Hoffman type. The productive capacity of these kilns is three milliard bricks per annum, but the actual output does not exceed 1.5 milliard.

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The technical equipment of Polish brick kilns is not uniform throughout the country. In the former German provinces the brick-making industry is entirely mechanised, whereas in the former Congress Kingdom machinery is used only at some stages of the process. This difference has an adverse influence on the further development of the industry, since bricks manufactured by hand are naturally more expensive than those produced by machinery.

The crisis in the building industry has resulted in a decrease in the output of brick kilns. During the current year credits have been granted to builders, and the building and

kindred industries are recommencing work.

The manufacture of tiles is also well developed. productive capacity of all Polish works exceeds 300 million tiles per annum. Only one-third of this number is manufactured at present.

2. The Lime Industry.

Poland possesses abundant quantities of limestone. the Kielce district, stones are found containing 98-99'3 per cent. of lime.

The limited demand for lime in connection with the crisis in the building industry referred to above, is responsible for

MINERAL INDUSTRIES.

the decreased production of this article in Poland. Compared with the pre-war output, the present production amounts to 25 per cent., and very seldom reaches 33 per cent. of the pre-war figure. The exports are insignificant. The following quantities of burnt dolomite and lime were exported:—

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1922	 	 	 61,700 to	ns.
1923	 	 	 18,500	
1924	 	 	 16,235	

The total number of lime-producing works in Poland is 68. At present, owing to the crisis in the industry, the number of active works is considerably smaller. The number of

workmen employed is 10,000.

The technical equipment and the system of exploitation is of a very low standard, especially in the former Congress Kingdom and in Galicia. The shortage of capital makes technical improvements impossible at the present moment.

To illustrate the standard of technical installation in the various lime works, figures are given below in respect of 19 establishments.

Thus, there are in these works:-

17 Shaft Stoves.
2 Hilgers Stoves.
8 Ring Stoves.

2 Hilgers Stoves. 8 Ring Stoves. 3 Schneider Stoves. 11 Gas Stoves.

The productive capacity of all Polish lime works is estimated at 3,000 tons per day, *i.e.*, about 900,000 tons of lime per annum. In order, however, to achieve this figure further capital for technical improvements is necessary.

3. THE GLASS INDUSTRY.

There are eighty-four glass smelting houses in Poland, employing about 15,000 workmen between them. The more important ones are federated in the Union of Glass Manufacturers representing sixty-four glass manufacturing firms. The non-federated houses are, with a few exceptions, primitively equipped and, having no reserve capital, usually work only a few months during the year, and employ a comparatively insignificant number of men.

The majority of Polish glass works are wholly or partly mechanised, and are in a position to produce glass of the highest quality. Machinery necessary for pressing, grinding

and dipping of glass is imported from abroad.

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Before the war, all glass houses were invariably working full capacity, constantly increasing their output and exporting their manufactures to Russia. The war has greatly damaged the glass industry; it is, however, rapidly recovering, and at present no fewer than fifty factories are working full time. All kinds of glass are manufactured in Poland, and the output is sufficient to meet home requirements, leaving a surplus of over 30 per cent. for exports. The only varieties of glass not manufactured in Poland are: "Signalling" glass for railway purposes (one of the factories will shortly commence the manufacture of this), optical glass, plate glass measuring over two square metres, and the larger sized mirror plates. The output during the last three years was as follows:—

1922	 	 	45,090,500 kg
1923	 	 	43,281,000 ,,
1924	 	 	49,300,000

The development of glass industry in Poland is greatly aided by the fact that, apart from coal, there are in Poland sufficient

supplies of the chief ingredients, viz., soda.

This is being produced by the Solvay works from two mines, viz., Matwy, nr. Inowroclaw, and Podgórze, nr. Kraków. Other materials such as fireproof clay, potash, selen, nickel, fusing sand, etc., are imported mostly from Germany and Czecho-Slovakia. The necessity of purchasing these materials abroad greatly increases the cost of production, especially since prices quoted for export to Poland are usually 50 per cent. higher than those quoted for other countries, and makes competition in foreign markets very difficult. Rumania, Austria and Germany are the chief importers of Polish glass.

4. THE CEMENT INDUSTRY.

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The natural conditions of Poland are favourable to the development of the cement industry. The principal ingredients necessary for the manufacture of Portland Cement, viz., limestone and clay are found in Poland to excess. In the South Western part of the country there are rich strata of high grade limestone free from admixtures and forming an excellent material for the manufacture of cement. Coal dust finds a large market in the cement factories, and being the superfluous and consequently cheapest species of coal is freely supplied by the Silesian and Dabrowa Coal Mines.

There are 14 cement factories in Poland, viz.:-

The Lublin Portland Cement Manfacturing Co. "Firley"—in Rejowiec (County of Lublin).

The Goleszów Portland Cement Manufacturing Co. in Goleszów (Silesia).

The "Gorka" Cement Factory in Trzebinia (Kraków). Solway Works (Poland) Ltd. and the Grodziec Cement Factory in Grodziec (Kielce).

The "Klucze" Portland Cement Co., in Klucze (Kielce). The "Lazy" Portland Cement Co., in Lazy (Kielce). The "Ogrodzieniec" Portland Cement Co., in Zawiercie,

Bernard Liban & Co. in Podgórze (Krakow).

"The Rudniki" Portland Cement Manufacturing Co., in Rudniki (Kielce).

The "Szczakowa" Portland Cement Manufacturing Co., in Szczakowa (Kraków).

The "Wejherowo" Portland Cement Manufacturing Co., in Wejherowo (Pomerania).

The "Century" (Wiek) Cement Co., in Zawiercie (Kielce). The Wrzosowa Portland Cement Manufacturing Co., in Czestochowa.

The "Wysoka" Portland Cement Manufacturing Co. Head Office: Mazowiecka 7, Warsaw.

Factories in Lazy (Kielce) and Ros (Białystok).

The centre of the Cement Industry is situated in the Coal Basin. In the County of Kielce there are at present eight cement factories, in the county of Kraków three, and in Silesia one. All these works are situated practically within the same

district. In choosing this locality the manufacturers were actuated by the proximity of coal mines. In fact, the whole cement industry is concentrated within a radius of 100 km. from the coal centre in Katowice. The few remaining factories are spread centrifugally from the coal districts, but usually close to markets convenient for their produce.

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Polish Cement factories are federated in two Industrial Unions, viz.: the Union of Polish Cement Manufacturers in Warsaw, composed of 10 factories in the former Russian provinces; and the Bureau of United Cement Factories in Kraków, federating four establishments in the former Austrian provinces. The only factory in the former German part, viz., the "Wejherowo," does not belong to any of these Unions.

The total maximum capacity of Polish cement factories was estimated in 1924 at 1,200,000 tons of Portland cement per annum, i.e., 120,000 wagons, or 7 million barrels (of 180 kgs.).

Eleven factories are equipped with rotary stoves, one with rotary andirons (grates) of the Gruber type, and the remaining three with the old shaft stoves. The latest technical improvements have been made shortly before the war, so that at present 88 per cent. of the Polish cement factories are equipped with up-to-date plant. The advantages of mechanical production can only be acquired by an increased outlay of capital, and the co-operation of foreign capital in this direction is very desirable.

The total output of all factories, amounting to about 600,000 tons during the period 1911/13, has reached the maximum during the first seven months of 1914 owing to numerous military works undertaken by the Russian, Austrian and German Governments. After a sudden decline since the beginning of the war, the output began to increase in 1921, although even in 1923 it has only reached 83 per cent. of the pre-war standard, i.e., about 500,000 tons.

	Perio	et.		Number of Factories.	Output (in thousand tons).	Percentage of 1911-13 Output.		
1911-1	3			13	612	100		
1919				-12	194	32		
1920			7.	13	231	38		
1921				13	342	56		
1922				13	459	75		
1923				14	505	83		
1924				14	350	57		

THE CEMENT INDUSTRY.

The gradual increase in consumption consequent upon the revival of building activities was suddenly interrupted in the beginning of 1924. This was due to the general economic crisis, which, however, is of a transient character, and it may be expected that with the recommencement of building operations it will cease, so far as the Cement Industry is concerned. With the decreased demand at home the conditions for exportation abroad were none too favourable, even though Polish cement is well received in foreign markets.

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In 1923 cement was exported as follows:--

					Thousand Tons.	Percentage.
To Austria			* *	0.0	9.3	46
Io Germany	1.00		1 v	4.0	4.8	24
I o Czechoslovakia	1	111	-		3.7	18
To other countries	14		. 4		2.3	12
Total					20 · I	100

Thus, the export of Polish cement in 1923 amounted to 20,100 tons, i.e., about 4 per cent. of the total production; in 1924, however, it increased to 32,200 tons, i.e., 7 per cent. of the total output in that year.

5. THE SALT INDUSTRY.

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Poland contains in her subsoil rich deposits of household salt, appearing either in salt rocks containing as much as 98 per cent. of NaCl, or in salt loams with 80 per cent. of pure salt, or else in salt springs producing a saturated solution of salt (usually 25 per cent.).

The belt of salt strata extends along the Carpathians from Krakow to the Rumanian frontier. These strata are found throughout Galicia and are in some places intermixed with layers of potassium salts, such as kainite and sylvinite. Eastern Galicia, in particular, abounds in highly saturated salt springs. Some of the latter are also found in the county of Warsaw. In addition, the county of Poznań contains rich veins of crystalline salt and salt is also found in Silesia in the shape of salt rocks or springs.

It was only natural that in a country with such abundance of salt the salt industry should develop very early. In fact, this industry existed in Eastern Galicia in prehistoric times, a fact which is confirmed by the recent discoveries of stone implements in the ancient mines. In Roman days the industry is said to have been fully developed. Salt mining in the Kraków province began in the eleventh or thirteenth centuries, and about the same time salt works were established in the neighbourhood of Warsaw. The salt industry in the county of Poznań was not established until the end of the nineteenth century.

Domestic Consumption.

The total yearly consumption of salt in Poland amounts approximately to 400,000 tons, or 14·3 kg. per head of population. It is estimated that 10 kg. per head is used for household needs and the remaining 4·3 kg. for industrial and agricultural purposes.

The demand for salt is wholly met by the output of Polish salt works, and in addition considerable quantities of this commodity are exported yearly to Czecho-Slovakia, Yugo-slavia, the Baltic States and Denmark.

The average yearly production of salt totals 415,000 tons; of these 400,000 tons are solid salt and the remaining

As a consequence of the war the economic life of Poland suffered enormous losses. The metal industry was especially affected. Almost the whole territory of former Russian Poland and a greater part of former Austrian Poland were the scenes of continuous battles which in many cases brought about the entire destruction of industrial establishments and in other cases stopped all production.

Upon being forced to retreat before the German armies the Russian Government ordered a compulsory transference into the interior of Russia of many metal works, especially those of importance for the war industries. In cases when evacuation was deemed impossible, orders were given for destruction of the works. As an example we may mention the large works owned by "Orthwein, Karasinski & Co." in Warsaw, which were completely destroyed, as was the case with many others.

ASSESS TORBUSE DESCRIPTION OF CO.

During the German occupation the authorities, with the assistance of the highly organised "Maschinenbeschlagnahmen Kommission" (Commission for the sequestration of machinery) transferred to Germany any of the remaining machinery and apparatus which might be of some use to the war industry. In the first instance, all machine tools were taken from Poland. The transference to Germany of all raw materials, such as pig iron, copper, even in the form of kitchen utensils, copper parts, etc., was also a grievous blow to the metal industry.

It is evident that, with the advent of independent Poland, the metal industry had to start from the beginning. Its reconstruction and mobilisation has been made possible only by substantial assistance from the Government in the shape of extensive orders and credits.

During recent years considerable progress can be noted in the metal industry. Eloquent are the figures showing the development of establishments belonging to the Union of Metal Manufacturers of Poland, which embraces the greater part of establishments of the "medium" industry and all those of the "big" industry. The following table shows the number of united establishments according to their

THE METAL INDUSTRY.

individual groups, and the number of operatives employed:--

			of 1921.		of 1922.		of 1923. o. of	End of 1924. No. of	
	Groups.	Establish- ments.	Operations.	Establish- ments.	Opera	Establish- ments.	Opera- tives.	Establish- ments.	Opera tives
I	Machinery	56	7,151	58	10,429	59	21,788	77	12,337
2	Agricultural machinery	45	3,658	58	7,627	60	9,469	61	7,846
3	Electrical	. 10	293	12	862	12	1,068	14	1,330
4	Weights and measure	s 18	776	20	1,006	23	1,372	21	1,160
5	Foundries	. 79	6,552	17	9,090	54	7,822	51	6,888
6	Boiler works	. 22	2,030	15	2,166	12	2,303	12	1,200
7	Sanitary	. 2	95	5	272	5	418	5	551
8	Hardware	. 17	2,642	31	6,004	34	5,262	31	8,524
9	Metal ware	. 18	1,628	27	3,073	20	4,071	21	3,277
10	Armaments*	. r	1,350	3	3,319	2	4,062	1	5,014
11	Wire and nails .	. 16	1,373	15	1,734	20	3,129	15	2,070
	Total	. 281	27,548	315	45,582	301	51,764	319	56,197

Only private establishments are here included. Armament works are a Government enterprise.

As can be seen from the above table the number of operatives employed shows a steady increase.

An important effect of the war has been the creation of a number of various industries which in pre-war times were inaccessible to Poland, principally on grounds of political nature.

In the first place the creation of the Polish State brought with it the establishment of extensive war industries such as munition works, arms and rifle works, etc. In pre-war times there were no locomotive works on Polish territories. After the war large works such as the "Warsaw Company

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of Locomotive Construction" and the "First Locomotive Works in Poland" at Chrzanów (former Galicia) were founded, and the important firm of "H. Cegielski and Co." of Poznań are preparing for the construction of locomotives at their works in conjunction with the well-known Belgian firm of "John Cocquerill."

The existing waggon works have greatly increased their output and two new factories have been erected to cope with the increased demand of the railways.

Similarly, existing industrial establishments are introducing the manufacture of machinery not made in the country before the war. The firm of "Ursus" specialises in the manufacture of **Diesel motors** which they now make on a large scale. Considerable progress may also be noted in the manufacture of **machine tools**.

Special notice is due to the fact that the manufacture of aeroplanes and automobiles has been inaugurated since the war. Aeroplanes are made in two establishments, one of which is State-owned, the other a private undertaking. New works are being established at Okęcie for the production of motor-cars, while several existing firms are opening motor-car departments. Of these, for example, the firm of "Ursus" are completing the construction of special works situated near Warsaw and calculated to give an annual output of 500 commercial cars.

Conditions in Poland are very favourable for the manufacture of motor-cars, as the country possesses in Upper Silesia numerous steel works, which for many years have specialised in the manufacture of high grade steel as well as of forged and pressed parts for the construction of motor-cars.

Amongst the different groups of the metal industry, agricultural machinery shows special development. Before the war agricultural machinery works exported the greater part of their output to Russia. When export to that country virtually ceased after the war, the output of agricultural machinery greatly diminished and was practically limited to meeting the demands of the home market, only an insignificant quantity being exported to the East and to the

Balkans. Poland manufactures nearly every kind of agricultural machinery, such as steam ploughs, tractors, threshing machines, chaff-cutters, sewing machines, ploughs, etc. Import is limited mainly to harvesting machines, some makes of tractors and machines for land cultivating, although it must be remarked that since the war the manufacture of the latter, especially of tractors, has been introduced.

One of the most important factors which led to the speedy development of the metal industry was the inflation policy which first of all rendered investment possible and then created favourable conditions for the metal industry. The factories found no difficulty in disposing of their output in the home market, and the low rate of exchange of the mark facilitated the export of goods abroad, where they easily competed with foreign goods.

In the year 1924 the position of the metal industry, which was already greatly affected by the economic crisis, became even worse. Government orders, which usually play a principal part in the metal industry, were considerably decreased, for, owing to the necessity of balancing the budget, all expenditure on investments was greatly reduced. This state of affairs especially affected the waggon and iron construction works. The situation of agricultural machinery at the beginning of the year was very unsatisfactory as the low price of corn had diminished the purchasing power of the agricultural community. Although the price of corn rose at the end of the year the partial failure of crops in Poland in 1924 made it impossible to take full advantage of the temporary revival of this branch of production.

A certain improvement was noted at the end of the year in enamelled ware and plate goods as well as in the foundries manufacturing kitchen parts and kitchen utensils and other cast goods, with the exception of castings for the building industry. Lack of capital and dear credit made it impossible for the Polish metal factories to produce goods for stock, which brought about the necessity of shortening the working day during certain periods. Thus the productive capacity of factories not having full play, the cost of production rose to a great height.

THE METAL INDUSTRY.

The decrease of exports in the year 1924 has been acutely felt by the metal industry. The introduction of a stable currency caused a considerable rise in the cost of materials and labour, which in turn destroyed the competitive power of Polish goods abroad.

Notwithstanding the considerable progress which has characterised the metal industry in the post-war period, it cannot be said that the existing industry is capable of meeting the full demands of the home market. Lack of capital, especially during the post-inflation period, rendered it difficult to make new investments or to instal new and improved machinery. In consequence the Polish metal industry is obliged to import a considerable quantity of machines which are not manufactured in Poland, and for which important customs facilities are granted. According to statistical data compiled at the Ministry of Industry and Trade, the total amount of machinery covered by permits entitling to these facilities was in the year 1924 not less than 17,200 tons of kinds not manufactured in Poland.

This total of 17,200 tons of machinery imported in 1924 can be classified as follows:—

classified as follows:—		
	Per	cent.
Driving machinery, mainly Diesel motors	and	
tractors		18.3
Machine tools of all kinds for metal work		16.7
Mining machinery		12.3
Machinery for the paper making and paper indus	stry	9.6
Machinery for the foodstuff industry		6·1
Machinery for the textile industry		6.1
Machinery for the chemical industry		2.5
Printing machinery		4.8
Woodworking machinery		. 2 . 3
Machinery for tanneries and leather works		1.7
Machinery for the mineral industry		1.1
Agricultural machinery		0.8

The comparatively great demand for machinery and plant not manufactured in Poland proves, in the first instance, that, in spite of the general economic crisis, a certain activity as regards investments existed in the year 1924.

THE METAL INDUSTRY.

The present year raises certain hopes of, at least, some improvement in the position of the metal industry. The building season and work on construction of several railway lines are included in the program. The budget of the present year also forecasts an increase of Government contracts. The good condition of this year's crops in comparison with last year gives reason to expect an increase of home requirements. A favourable factor is also the recently inaugurated export to the Eastern markets of considerable quantities of goods, mainly agricultural machinery, enamelled goods, etc.

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(ii) THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY.

Historical Outline.

The textile industry in Poland is of very long standing. As far back as the Middle Ages weaving occupied a prominent part amongst the industries of the country, and Polish textile goods were much sought after. In the beginning of the 19th century weavers, especially those of foreign origin, enjoyed many privileges granted by the then Polish Government. In consequence, foreign artisans play even to-day an important

part in the development of the industry.

Under the agreement concluded on March 30, 1821, between the then Polish Government and representatives of German and Czech industrialists and artisans, the latter were entitled to special facilities as regards financial assistance and the importation of textile machinery into Poland. In addition, foreigners were often granted building sites and the necessary building materials; high import duties protected their industry. In consequence of such liberal policy of the Government the textile industries soon developed and became of great importance.

The textile industry is concentrated in Lodz and its environs, such as Pabianice, Ozorków, Zduńska Wola, Tomaszów,

Zgierz, and Zyrardów.

After 1835 mechanical equipment was gradually introduced in Polish textile works. In that year the still existing house of "Ludwik Geyer" imported from England the first steam

engine and boilers for use in their factory.

In 1850 there were in the former Congress Poland 2,524 small factories producing cotton and woollen materials. Ten years later this number increased to 3,857. Although the competition of large foreign factories was very keen, Polish textile industries were able to develop satisfactorily and, in many cases, to produce goods considerably better than those of foreign origin.

An important factor in the history of the Polish weaving industry was the establishment of the Bank of Poland in 1828. The political collapse of the country had no adverse

influence on the progress of the industry.

After the abolition of Customs frontiers between Poland and Russia and after the development of railways, the Łódź

industries were confronted with new and capacious markets for their produce. The Russian protective import duties of 1877 safeguarded efficiently their further development. of

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The bulk of exports being destined for Russia, Polish manufacturers had to adapt their production to the demands of their Russian customers. In consequence, the factories of Łódź produced almost exclusively thick materials and neglected entirely the manufacture of fine fabrics, which were in great demand in the West European markets. Even the home demand for these fabrics had to be met by imports from foreign countries. This applies particularly to linen and percale.

With the loss of the Russian market the situation has altered entirely. It has even compelled the Łódź industries to reorganise completely their system of production, so as to be able to satisfy the home demand, in the first place, and also to export their goods to Western Europe. This reorganisation is almost complete by now; new fine-weaving looms have been introduced, and thinner yarn than heretofore is being woven everywhere.

1. Cotton.

When considering this industry we must bear in mind that the entire supply of the necessary raw material has to be imported. Before the war cotton was imported partly from Russia and partly from America; to-day America supplies the bulk, although considerable quantities are also imported from Egypt.

The consumption of cotton in the Łódź factories before the war amounted to 71,632,000 kg. per annum; 45 per cent. was imported from Russia, and the remainder from America. In order to protect the cotton-growing industry in Turkestan, the Russian Government imposed a duty of 0.25 ruble per kg. on cotton of foreign origin. Thus, the Łódź industries were handicapped in their competition with countries where no duty on raw cotton existed. The Polish Government has abolished all duties on raw materials employed in the textile industry, such as cotton, wool, jute, raw silk, etc.

Cotton Yarn.

The manufacture of yarn and fabrics from cotton waste is well known in Łódź. The cheapness and excellent appearance

of these products made them eagerly sought after in the outlying provinces of Russia.

The characteristic feature of the Łódź textile industry is its concentration. Every factory has its spinning, weaving,

dyeing, and finishing department.

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The annual value of raw material used in the manufacture of cotton fabrics amounted to 267,000,000 zlotys in 1912. The value of yarn imported from Russia was 27,000,000 zlotys, and that from Western European countries, 13,500,000 zlotys. It is noteworthy that the exports of the former Congress Kingdom to Russia also amounted to 27,000,000 zlotys, i.e., balanced entirely the imports of yarn from Russia.

2. Wool.

The former Congress Kingdom produced but insignificant quantities of wool. Prior to the war the bulk of this raw material was imported from Russia, and from the West European countries. Foreign wool was subject to a Russian

import duty of o.18 ruble per kg.

The approximate value of woollen yarns produced in 1912 was 194,400,000 zlotys. Both thick and thin yarns were produced in Poland. Combed yarns are produced up to No. 80/2. Fifty per cent. of woollen yarn manufactured in Łódź was exported to Russia. Only higher qualities of woollen yarns were imported from foreign countries.

Woollen and Cotton Fabrics.

The approximate value of cotton fabrics manufactured in Poland in 1912 is about 405 million zlotys. As has been mentioned above, mainly thick cloth was manufactured to meet the demand of the Russian markets. About 25 per cent. of the production of cotton fabrics was formed by linen, sheetings, napery, etc. Better and thinner qualities of cloth were imported from the West of Europe and from Russia.

The value of woollen goods manufactured in the same year is estimated at 472,500,000 zlotys. Mainly medium quality goods were manufactured, although the manufacture of high

grade woollen cloth has also considerably developed.

The war caused tremendous damages to the Łódź industry. The Russians fleeing from the oncoming German armies evacuated or even destroyed all factory equipments. The work of destruction was completed by the German authorities of occupation. All machinery, installation and raw materials

were requisitioned and paid for by worthless receipts which were never settled. In addition, all debts due to subjects of the Central Powers were compulsorily collected. In spite, however, of these hardships the Łódź industry was able to recommence its activities soon after the conclusion of the war.

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After the War. 3. The Łódź Industry.

One of the greatest difficulties with which the Łódź industries were confronted after the war was the necessity of settling outstanding pre-war obligations for raw materials, cotton and wool, which were imported mainly from England. In view of the immense damages caused by the authorities of occupation the immediate settlement of these debts was practically impossible. However, an agreement was entered into between the Łódź manufacturers and their regular English purveyors, whereby these obligations are to be settled by instalments at a small rate of interest.

Immediately after the retreat of the German military authorities the work of reconstruction was taken up systematically. In 1919 only 15 per cent. of all factories were active, whereas in 1921 already 65 per cent. of all existing establishments were functioning. In the year following the proportion increased to 120 per cent. in the cotton and to 60 per cent. in the woollen industry. The appended table illustrates the development of the work of reconstruction.

During that period there was a great demand for Łódź manufactures not only in Poland but also in many foreign countries. In consequence the cotton and, in many cases, the woollen industry was employing regularly three shifts of workmen.

In addition to the recognised centre of Polish textile industries, i.e., £6dź, the woollen industry is also flourishing in Bielsk (Teshen Silesia), and in Białystok.

4. The Bielsk Industries.

As far back as the Middle Ages textile industries were developed in the district of Bielsko-Biała. In the 15th century there were many guilds of weavers in that district who sold their wares to foreign merchants. With the introduction of mechanical power, the hand-weaving industry was replaced by well-equipped factories. The Bielsk industry was confronted

with the keen competition of the Austro-Hungarian textile centres, but was able to maintain its position on account of the special qualities of its manufactures. Thus, cheviot, billiard cloth, and Eastern coloured cloth are of world-wide renown, and are sought after in such outlying countries like Turkey, Syria, Persia, Egypt, Morocco, and the Far East. Considerable quantities are also exported to the United States and to Great Britain. Whereas the Łódź-Białystok industries were practically ruined by the war, the Bielsk factories were flourishing and were able to meet the home demand soon after the conclusion of peace.

About 100 textile works are situated in this district. The total of workmen employed is about 12,000. The jute industry is also well developed. Ropes, etc., manufactured in Bielsk are exported via Hamburg and Bremen to America, Great Britain

and Portugal.

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Transmission belts of camel hair are also manufactured in Bielsk, as well as hand-made Oriental carpets. There is, however, only one cotton factory, with 22,000 spindles and 300 looms.

5. Białystok Industries.

The third centre of Polish textile industries is situated in Białystok, with its 290 textile factories. The district has suffered great damage during the German occupation, although to a lesser extent than the £\ddz industries. In consequence of these damages two of the largest and best-equipped factories have ceased to exist. In 1924 7.5 million kg. of wool were treated in the remaining factories of that district. Białystok factories specialise in the manufacture of thick cloth suitable for overcoats, also of blankets, bed-covers, etc. In addition, there is a large factory of silk fabrics, especially plush and velvet. The characteristic feature of the Białystok industry is the manufacture of so-called combined cloth: this is produced from wool, cotton and rags.

Prior to the war the Białystok industries employed 12,000 workmen. Their manufactures were destined mainly for Russia, East China and Japan; thus nearly 90 per cent. of the output was exported. During the period of currency inflation (1919–1923) the industry was developing favourably and 80 per cent. of all factories existing prior to the war were fully employed. At that time goods were exported mainly to Rumania, Austria, Hungary, China and Japan. The latter

countries purchase quantities of Białystok blankets, which

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The financial reforms, the stabilisation of currency and the resulting financial crisis affected severely the Białystok industries. In 1924 the industries were practically moribund, having no markets for their produce, the shortage of credits making

competition with foreign countries impossible.

Factory warehouses are being filled with goods which find no markets either at home or abroad. In addition to unfavourable financial conditions there are still other difficulties. Thus, Rumania and Japan have introduced high import duties on goods usually purchased in Białystok; political unrest in China makes any regular commercial dealings with that country impossible. Factories are gradually decreasing their production and their staffs.

6. Flax, Hemp, Jute and Silk Industries.

Flax.

The yearly crop of flax in the former Congress Kingdom amounted to 21,000,000 kg. in 1911. This is treated mainly in the very small factories and often by the peasants in their homes. The only large factory in the Congress Kingdom treated only 1 per cent. of Polish flax; the remainder being imported from Russia. In the re-established Republic the industry is developing very favourably and flax yarn is being produced not only to meet the demands of home factories but also for export abroad.

Hemp.

In 1911 410,000 kg. of hemp were gathered in the former Congress Kingdom. Like flax, hemp is being treated in small factories and often in peasants' homes. There are only three larger factories producing manufactures of hemp.

Jute.

The jute industry is concentrated in Częstochowa, which possesses four factorics; two factories are situated in Bielsk. In 1912 the four Częstochowa factories treated 18,000,000 kg. of jute, producing a total of 17,000,000 kg. of jute yarn, valued at 20,790,000 zlotys. The total capacity of all jute factories exceeds 25,000 tons per annum. In 1924 only 12,000 were manufactured and it is doubtful whether this figure will be maintained in 1925.

Like woollen and cotton goods, jute manufactures were exported to Russia to the extent of 75 per cent. of the total production.

Jute imported into Poland was liable to a Russian duty of 0.07 ruble per kg. This duty was imposed in order to protect the Russian sack-making industry, which could not otherwise have competed with the cheaper jute article. At present no duty on jute is levied in Poland.

The main articles of jute manufactured in Poland are sacks and various materials for packing purposes. The

technical equipment of the factories is excellent.

The jute factories in Częstochowa have also suffered great damages during the war, mainly owing to German requisitions. The raw material is imported from England for the last 50 years; in view of the excellent trade relations existing between Polish jute manufacturers and their English suppliers it was possible to re-commence work soon after the war. Yet, in spite of the long-term credits granted by English merchants, the financial crisis of the country makes any further progress in this industry very difficult.

Silk Industry.

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The silk-producing factories are spread over various localities throughout the Republic, viz., Łódź, Warsaw, Kalisz, Białystok, Tomaszow, Myszkow, etc. The most important centre is Łódź.

Prior to the war the silk industry employed about 6,000 workmen. At present only about 40-45 per cent. of them

are occupied.

All raw materials are imported from foreign countries; artificial silk is manufactured in three factories, of which only one is working at present.

The Polish silk-producing industry can be divided into three

groups, viz. :-

- (1) The manufacture of fine silk fabrics, carried on by six factories, of which only four are working at present. All these factories are situated in Łódź. In addition there are seven large factories producing silk ribbons, etc.
- (2) The manufacture of plush (imitations of seal fur) and velvet. This industry is represented by six factories.
- (3) The artificial silk industry is represented by about 12 large and 30 smaller factories.

A separate branch of the silk industry is formed by factories which produce the raw materials for those enumerated above. Some of them produce artificial silk and others spin silk yarn and thread from real and artificial silk waste.

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The silk industry in Poland is working only to the extent of 50 per cent. of its pre-war production. In addition to the general economic crisis the industry is confronted with high import duties on silk yarn, both natural and artificial. There are no mills for spinning and dyeing natural silk, and in consequence this has to be sent abroad, mainly to Switzerland. The process of metallic dyeing naturally increases the weight of the yarn (from 20 to 100 per cent.) and, in consequence, Polish manufacturers have to pay increased import duties when the yarn is sent back to Poland. All technical installation and materials necessary for the silk industry have to be imported from foreign countries, which, especially at present, form an additional obstacle to the development of the Polish silk industry.

On the other hand, however, the demand for silk manufactures is advancing steadily and the total output of the industry finds a ready market at home. During the period of currency inflation 50-60 per cent. of the output was exported abroad.

It must also be mentioned that only very few establishments in West European countries are able to compete with Polish silk manufactures as regards quality. This applies particularly to silk plush.

In 1911 107,000 kg. of raw (natural) silk were imported into the former Congress Kingdom. In the same year 16,000 kg. of twisted silk yarn and 176,000 kg. of silk waste were also imported. Silk yarn was imported from Russia to the value of 1,350,000 zlotys per annum, and from other European countries to the value of approximately 386,100 zlotys.

The production of artificial silk in 1912 amounted to 40,000 kg., to the value of 783,000 zlotys.

The average value of silk fabrics manufactured in Poland amounted to about 16,200,000 zlotys per annum. About 80 per cent. of the total output was exported to Russia. Silk fabrics to the value of 15,660,000 zlotys were imported annually into the former Congress Kingdom.

7. Embroidery.

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This industry is concentrated in Kalisz, where it was established some 35 years ago. Originally everything was produced by hand, but with the development of the industry machinery was introduced throughout. At the time of the outbreak of the war 20,000 workmen were employed in this industry.

Russia formed the natural market for Polish embroideries. The export of these articles to Western European countries was impossible in view of the very high duties imposed by Russia on all yarns used in the manufacture of embroideries.

In consequence of this irrational policy of the former Russian Government the industry was able to produce embroideries of medium and lower quality only; other qualities being imported from foreign countries. At present, however, embroideries of best qualities are produced in Poland, and the Polish industry competes successfully with the produce of such centres as Plauen in Saxony and St. Gallen in Switzerland.

Only 60-70 per cent. of the factories existing before the war are active at present. Prior to the war the industry was working day and night—so intense was the demand for its produce; to-day most factories employ only one shift of workmen. Thus the output has diminished considerably and forms but 20 per cent. of the pre-war production.

The approximate value of the annual output of embroideries, lace, gauze, etc. amounted to 70 million francs.

The value of installations and plant in the embroidering industry is estimated as follows:—

			zlotys.
Embroidering r	nachinery		6,000,000
Engines, auxi	liary plant	and	
buildings			15,000,000
Total			21,000,000

The war which has practically destroyed the town of Kalisz, has, fortunately, caused but little damage to the embroidering industry of the place.

Concluding Remarks.

The Polish textile industry is not altogether sufficiently developed to meet entirely the home demand for its produce.

THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY.

In 1923 the output of cotton manufactures amounted to 78,740 tons, and that of woollen to 27,300 tons. The maximum production of all Polish textile works would not exceed 34,200 tons of woollen materials per annum.

The demand for textile manfactures, such as it existed before the war, can be estimated as follows:—

The present crisis in the textile industry is due primarily to the general impoverishment of the country, which is not able to buy even such articles which, under normal conditions, would fall under the heading of necessaries. Furthermore, costs of production are exceedingly high. In 1924, in spite of various protective duties, textile goods were imported into Poland to the value of 165,203,000 zlotys. Apart from this, raw wool and cotton was imported for 285,773,000 zlotys.

The high cost of production makes competition in foreign markets practically impossible.

In spite of all these difficulties, which have come as the natural results of financial reforms, there are hopes for the revival of the industry. There are in Poland highly skilled workmen specialised in the textile industry and the standard of technical development is very high. In addition there is an abundance of coal in the country, and there is no doubt that capital will soon be forthcoming and will enable the Polish textile industry to attain that importance which it rightly deserves.

8. Position of the Textile Industry.

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all n	1.1.192	1,881,06	96.978 33,772 57,820	35		30,722	3,265	7,690	23,823		ľ	5,320	104,749
Vorking is	1.1.1924.	2,370,002	140,156 48,341 84,368	344,088	9,232	35,616	1,031	14,832 715 1,959	21,682	7,800		5,843	133,183
Factories W	1.1.1923.	1,179,927	125,527 42,464 76,569	330,118	9,950	35,253	1,844	10,256 454 1,692	19,783 802 3,969	404		5,006	124,835
Number of Factories Working in all three Shifts.	1914. 1.10.1922. 1.1.1923. 1.1.1924. 1.1.1925.	306,211 1049,501 1,091,184 1,204,118 1,167,349 1,559,629 2,054,380 2,179,927 2,370,002 1,881,066	113,707 41,545 72,599	287,920	9,161	34,391	814 1,671	8,840 399 1,258	19,044 770 3,518	313	260	4,794	118,625
Na	1914.	629,629	141,085 39,083 66,163	552,122	2,250	51,502	1,892 5,084	21,700	34,386 1,260 5,778	21,000	1	6,385	140,196
	I.I.1925.	1,167,349	24,370	274,553	4,292		11	3,845	12,226	111	1	-	:
orking.	I.I.1924.	1,204,128	74,354	320,622	763		917	7,416	13,429	7,260	1_	1	:
Actual Number Working,	I.I.1923.	1,091,184	67,731 28,042	244,474 332,888	612		945	355	13,251	304	1	1	;
Actual N	.10.1922.	1,049,50T	26,985	320,178	0,529		814	5,984	13,314	4,00L	1	1	
	In 1914. 1.10.1922. 1.1.1923. 1.1.1924. 1.1.1925.	1,206,211	90,384	370,615	2,146	1	1,817	21,700	17,413	21,000	1	1	;
No. of Factories Included	Statis- tics.	1	129		240	-) or .	H	4	14	1	29	;
Industry.	A.	Fine weaving spindles Spindles working waste	and vigogne Mechanical looms Workmen employed	Carders	Hand looms	Hostery,	Hosiery looms Operatives employed	Spindles Loams Operatives employed	Spindles Looms Operatives employed	Spindles Looms Operatives employed	DYRING FACTORIES	Operatives	Total Operatives
Š		н	**			643	4	w	, ,		₹ 00		

Position of the Textile Industry in the District of Bistystok.

	Total Number of Factories Active and Inactive.		19	24.	1923.		
		Normal Number of Opera- tives.	Number of Factories Active.	Actual Number Opera- tives Em- ployed.	Number of Factories Active.	Actual Number Opera- tives Em- ployed.	
Wool Spinning Weaving Finishing	292	9,800	265	6,300	290	8,050	
Dyeing Cotton Cotton wool factories	2	120	2	71	2	80	
Silk Spinning Weaving	I	500	ı	205	I	196	
RIBBOYS AND TAPES HATS, hard and soft	1	120 700	I	95 50	1 1	90	
	297	11,240	270	6,721	295	8,506	

CZESTOCHOWA TEXTILE WORKS "STRADOM" COMPANY

WARSAW-

- STO-KRZYSKA 25

Phone 204-91, 296-68.

JUTE TEXTILES:

Sugar, Salt, Corn, Cement, etc., Sacks, Packing Cloths, Bed Sacking, Bed Tick, Filtration Material, Hessian, etc., Wrappers, Jute Yarn.

LINEN GOODS:

Yarn, Pitched Thread, Thread, Raw Textiles, Filtration Material, etc.

HEMP GOODS:

Yarn, Thread for Nets, Ordinary Packthread and Italian Hemp Packthread of every thickness, Tissues, Filtration Material, Tarpaulin, etc.

(iii) THE TANNING INDUSTRY.

The tanning industry in Poland must be divided into two unequal groups. The first comprises about 15 large factories producing nearly 900 thousand hides for sole leather and five factories producing upper leather and buckskin. The second group consists of a large number of small workshops scattered all over Poland, producing by oak bark tanning about 200,000 dry hides, especially of the light kinds, and also a considerable

quantity of Russian leather, bag hides, etc.

The different economic conditions prevailing before the war in the different parts of the present-day Republic of Poland brought influences to bear upon the development of the tanning industry. In former Austrian Poland the industry did not exist at all, as it was not possible to compete with the other parts of the Austrian Empire, where the tanning industry had attained a high standard of development. In former Russian Poland the tanneries worked almost exclusively for export to Russia, which country consumed a large quantity of goods. Owing to this fact the tanning industry flourished best in this part of Poland.

Superior kinds of leather, such as japanned and chrome leather, are not at present produced on a large scale and thus

Poland imports large quantities of these goods.

The following table shows the production and consumption of leather in Poland in 1924:—

Dressed Hides.	Normal annual con- sumption in 1924.	Tanning capacity in Poland.	Output in Poland in 1924.	Imported into Poland in 1923.
Japanned leather Cattle hides, uppers of Russian leather, buckskin, etc. Calf skins for uppers . Goatskins, sheep skins or uppers and fancy goods . Sole leather (whole and in butts)	Pieces. 2,000,000 1,500,000 2,600,000 750,000 Kgs. 28,000,000 Pieces.	Pieces. 200,000 1.600,000 2,600,000 750,000 Kgs. 30,000,000 Pieces.	Pieces. 200,000 1,400,000 1,500,000 450,000 Kgs. 10,000,000 Pieces.	Pieces. 1,800,000 40,000 1,300,000 300,000 Kgs. 6,494,600 Pieces.
Horse hides	100,000	100,000	100,000	The rest in boots and shoes.

THE TANNING INDUSTRY.

As can be seen from the above, the import into Poland of dressed hides is very considerable, especially japanned hides and uppers of calfskin. In 1924 the consumption of superior hides decreased, but that is only a temporary state of affairs owing to the decline of the purchasing capacity of the agricultural population of Poland.

In 1924 the tanning industry was in a critical condition owing to the lack of credit, which is of especial importance for the industry obliged to import large quantities of raw hides

from foreign countries.

The raw hides imported into Poland

in 1923 amounted to 7,487 tons, ,, 1924 ,, 13,988 ,,

The imports of tanned goods also show an enormous increase in 1924:—

In 1923 10,007 tons.

At present dressed hides are only exported in small quantities, Russia being the principal recipient.

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(iv) THE PAPER-MAKING INDUSTRY.

In spite of very favourable conditions, the paper-making industry is not as yet sufficiently developed. This is due mainly to the policy of the former German and Austrian Empires, which were anxious to dispose of their surplus in the Polish provinces under their rule. Thus, in the former Prussian provinces of Poland with their three million inhabitants there were no paper-mills and no factories of cellulose prior to the re-establishment of the Republic. The first paper-mills in that part of Poland were opened in 1920 in Bydgoszcz.

In Galicia and Teshen Silesia there were four paper-mills, of which two were destroyed by fire during the war, and two are active at the present moment. Their produce was mostly exported and the local demand was met by the production of

other Austro-Hungarian mills.

The conditions of the paper industry in the provinces formerly Russian were comparatively better. There were no fewer than 11 mills and one factory of cellulose in that part of Poland. The annual output of these mills was 62,000 tons of paper and 27,000 tons of cellulose. The consumption of Congress Poland amounted to 53,000 tons only, and the surplus was exported to Russia. Practically every kind of paper was manufactured in Congress Poland; 90 per cent. of the production of tissue paper was exported to Russia in addition to other qualities. Higher grade papers were imported from Western Europe, and Finland supplied printing paper.

The provinces formerly Prussian imported their paper from

Germany

After the union of all Polish provinces there were within Polish territory 18 paper-mills, one factory of sulphate cellulose and one of sulphur cellulose.

The following figures show the annual production of

paper :--

The decreased production during the first years after the war was due to the damages caused by the war. The output

is gradually increasing, but it is doubtful if the industry will be able to meet the entire home demand in the near future.

During the last few months a new paper factory has been constructed which is capable of producing about 250 tons of printing paper daily. Two more mills are to be opened very soon with a joint output of 250 tons per day. Thus, the total output will be increased by about 15,000 tons per annum, and may reach 65,000 tons. The pre-war consumption of paper in Poland amounted to about 113,000 tons, so the balance will still have to be imported from foreign countries.

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The natural conditions of the country are most favourable for the development of the paper-making industry. There is an abundance of raw material, *i.e.*, fir trees and coal. In addition, labour is cheap and there are many specially trained

workmen.

The imports of paper are shown by the following table:-

1920 .. . 19,042 tons. 1923 25,305 tons. 1921 30,033 ., 1924 11,426 ., 1922 22,770 .,

These figures are somewhat misleading, since the returns for 1920 and 1921 include cardboard; in the remaining years cardboard formed a separate item in the returns prepared by

the Central Bureau of Statistics.

Nevertheless, it is clear that the imports of paper are decreasing partly owing to the general financial crisis. In 1924 only the necessary quantities were imported, whereas in the preceding years supplies were made in advance and ready money often invested in goods (including paper) which were regarded as investment securities during the period of currency inflation.

In spite of the decrease in imports, the home consumption in 1924 showed a considerable advance, since many publications were enlarged and their circulation increased. In consequence, the demand had to be satisfied by the supplies stored during

the preceding years, and these were soon exhausted.

The general industrial crisis experienced in Poland at present has little or no influence on the paper industry. On the contrary, paper is in great demand and orders are booked three or four months in advance. Paper is sold for cash, whereas other goods may be bought on more favourable terms.

The exports of paper are insignificant. In 1922 they amounted to 370 wagons, in 1923 to 489 wagons, and in 1924

to 278 wagons. Cardboard and cigarette papers are exported to Rumania, Turkey and Russia. Attempts are being made to export cigarette papers to England, so far with excellent results. It is hoped that larger quantities will be sent in the near future.

The necessary technical installation for paper-mills is imported almost exclusively from Germany. Steam engines, boilers, transmission belts and pumps are, however, manufactured in Poland.

Sieves and felt necessary for the manufacture of paper are

also imported from Germany and Austria.

Prior to the incorporation of Upper Silesia, Poland possessed but one factory of cellulose, viz., that in Wiocławek. Its annual output was as follows:—

1913		27,000	tons.	1922	44	17,500	tons
IQIQ		6,900		1923	110	23,821	
1920	- 4	8,400		1924		24,295	
1021		15,600		,		-41-30	,,

Two Silesian factories, of sulphur and sulphate cellulose respectively, produced the following quantities:—

			Sulphur Cellulose	. Sulphate Cellulose.
1921	0.0		4,716	6,039 tons.
1922	0.0		5,393	8,640 ,,
1923	0 =	- 4	6,175	5,145 ,,
1924	+ 0	- 4	5,498	5,894 ,,

The demand for sulphate cellulose in Poland is very small. This article is made into brown parcel paper, and the surplus

is exported.

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on ed ib, ile A shortage of cellulose was experienced in 1921 and 1922, the consumption amounting to 27,950 tons (in 1922), whereas only 23,498 tons were produced in Poland. Through the increased output in 1923 and 1924 the local factories were able to satisfy the entire demand in those years. It must be noted, however, that the establishment of two new factories, referred to above, will again increase the demand and cause a shortage of cellulose. A new factory of this article will have to be constructed in the near future.

(V) THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY.

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The chemical industry, like the entire Polish economic life, has been severely affected by the consequences of the industrial and financial crisis of 1924. The shortage of capital, the diminished demand for manufactured goods, and other well-known circumstances has had an adverse influence on the development of the Chemical Industry.

The crisis experienced in this branch of industry had a somewhat different character from that which took place in others. The Polish economic organism was created by a merely technical union of three economic entities. In consequence, the productive apparatus was found insufficient to meet the demands of the united country. This anomaly was bound to hinder the rational development of the chemical industry.

During the period of currency inflation all industries became overdeveloped out of all proportion to the capacity of the market. The demand for manufactured goods was stimulated artificially; goods were regarded as a safe investment for capital which would otherwise have been destroyed by currency depreciation. Thus, production greatly exceeded the real requirements of the markets, and the already abnormal situation became still worse.

With the stabilisation of currency the demand for goods for investment purposes ceased, and the industry was confronted with the problem of adapting its production to the true capacity of the market. There is no doubt that this artificial overproduction became the main cause of the protracted economic crisis.

As regards the chemical industry, it must be remembered that, owing to the hostile policy of the former Russian, German and Austrian Governments, its development before the War was neglected. At the time of the declaration of Polish Independence there were only some 10 or 12 chemical works throughout the country. During the six years following

the conclusion of the Great War the development of the industry was immense; many branches of chemical production are, however, still unexploited, and the products have to be imported from foreign countries so as to meet the demands of the home markets. Thus, it can be said that in the chemical industry, unlike in others, there was no overproduction, i.e., the output did not exceed the capacity of the Polish markets.

The temporary difficulties in marketing the products of chemical works can be explained by the general industrial crisis. Most of the products are manufactured from raw materials for other industries, and only few articles are intended for direct consumption. There is practically no industry which does not utilise a smaller or larger amount of chemicals in the course of manufacture. In consequence of the crisis all industries were compelled to reduce their output, which naturally resulted in a decreased demand for chemical raw materials and by-products. A considerable improvement in the situation was observed at the end of 1924 and in the beginning of the current year.

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The demand for agricultural chemicals was, however, maintained. The following figures show the quantities of potassium salts produced during the last five years, as compared with the pre-war output:—

1913	 		 	2,350	tons.
1920	 	• •	 	10,300	,,
1921	 		 	15,600	,,
1922	 		 	46,000	.,
1923	 		 	61,500	9.1
1924	 		 	84,000	,,

Even this last figure is not equal to the demands of Polish agriculture. The consumption of potassium salts in Poland is estimated at 200,000 tons; the deficiency has to be imported from Germany. It is, however, hoped that the progress made in the production of these fertilisers and the proposed construction of concentration works will enable Polish agriculture to rely entirely on the output of Polish chemical works.

The market conditions for other kinds of artificial manure were less favourable. Landowners affected by the shortage

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of investment capital were compelled to cancel their orders. Approximately 150,000 tons of superphosphates, 60,000 tons is of nitrogen fertilisers, and 20,000 tons of sulphate of ammonia for were produced; only about 50 per cent. of this output was sold. The surplus could not be exported partly because of high freight charges and partly because of the customs policy of the neighbouring States which prohibited the importation of fertiliers from Poland. A revision of the railways tariff and of the general commercial policy will enable the industry to develop its production up to its maximum capacity, i.e., approximately 500,000 tons of superphosphates and 180,000 tons of nitrogen fertilisers. It is to be noted that the Polish output of the latter amounts to 7.5 per cent. of the world production.

The manufacture of sulphuric acid was also confronted with difficulties. The demand for sulphuric acid declined owing to ar the limited production of superphosphates and also to the by prohibitive import duties imposed by Czechoslovakia. Sul te phuric acid is at present exported exclusively to Germany. In consequence, the production of 50 per cent. bi-sulphuric acid in 1924 amounted to only 150,000 tons compared with 11 230,000 tons manufactured in the preceding year. The 1924 in exports did not exceed 35,000 tons, although in 1923 double that quantity was exported.

In spite of the stringent conditions prevailing in the Ti hydrogen and carbide industries, the manufacture of synthetia ammoniac and synthetic nitrogen acid was commenced by the Chorzów works. It is noteworthy that, whereas the lowest price of nitrogen acid in Germany is quoted at 34 zlotys pel price of nitrogen acid in Germany is quoted at 34 zlotys pe al 100 kg., Polish acid can be obtained at only 27 zlotys pe de 100 kg.

The production of chemicals from salts was severely handicapped by the high prices of salt. The price of Polis table salt is considerably higher than that of salt exploited abroad, so that the Polish salt industry has had grea difficulties in competing with foreign producers even in th Polish markets. The production of soda in 1924 amounte to 60,000 tons, and that of muriatic acid to 800 tons. The latter is being manufactured in Poland without arsenian so that the demand for this article can be satisfied without ye the necessity of importation from foreign countries. There is an overproduction of *glauber salt*, which cannot be exported for reasons referred to above.

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The output of coal tar products in 1923 was as follows:

Coal Tar (raw)		 77,000	tons
,, (treated)	 	 13,000	. , ,
Cobbler's Wax	 	 3,000	3.2
Tar Oils	 	 22,000	2.1
Benzole	 	 15,000	21
,, distilled	 	 8,000	,,
Naphthaline	 	 4,000	2.3
Toluol, Phenol, etc.	 	 1,000	,,,
Dyes	 	 2,000	,,

rith In 1924 a decline of 25 per cent. in the production of these to articles was seen. The manufacture of dyes has decreased the by as much as 50 per cent. in consequence of the crisis in the bultextile and tannery trades.

Yet, in spite of all difficulties new departments of production have been established even in this branch of the chemical industry. The manufacture of sulpho-amino-nitric combinations has considerably progressed. Only a year ago these products were imported; at present the output of Polish factories is able to meet over 40 per cent. of the demand the The production of bensodine and beta-naphthol has very favourable prospects of future development.

Factories producing chemical fats, oils and rubber goods were affected severely by the crisis. The pharmaceutical trade pe alone was practically unaffected by the general economic pe depression.

The output of the latter industry in 1924 was as follows :-

Chemico-technical products	 100,000 kg.
Disinfectants	 50,000 ,,
Galenic preparations and medicines	 200,000

The joint production of three factories of salvarsan amounted Th to 950 kg., of which 300 kg. were exported.

By the end of 1924 and at the commencement of the current hot year the situation of the chemical industry was somewhat

relieved. Government loans were granted to farmers and landowners, and, in consequence, there arose a great demand for artificial manure. The stocks of nitrogen fertilisers and of superphosphates were soon exhausted. In connection with the improved conditions in the textile trade, the manufacture of dyestuffs has also advanced. There are reasons to believe that the current year will prove more favourable for the chemical trade.

The proposed revision of the Customs tariff will also benefit the industry; the new tariff will protect many branches of chemical production against foreign competition. This applies particularly to rubber goods, artificial silh, synthetic dyes, organic half-products, etc. On the other hand, articles such as superphosphates, eatable fats, etc., are still inadequately protected. Generally speaking, the new tariff is more advantageous to the chemical industry than the preceding one.

As regards freight charges, many important reductions benefiting the trade have been made. This applies to the transportation of glycerine, carbide, ultramarine, potassium salts, glue, gelatin, etc. Furthermore, reductions have been obtained in railway charges on raw materials imported into Poland; these apply to pyrites, phosphorites and iron ores.

Many important commercial treaties were concluded in 1924, and many others were revised. The revised treaty with France embodies many advantages for the chemical industry. The treaty with Czechoslovakia will enable the trade to export its surplus of carbide and nitrogen fertilisers.

The proposed commercial treaty with Germany is, however, the most important problem of the moment. It is in the interests of the chemical trade that the present protective duties should be maintained, since German competition may prove dangerous to the Polish industry in view of the higher technical development and better financial conditions prevailing in Germany. The exports to Germany will include carbide, nitrogen combinations, products of dry distillation of coal, etc.

All these general changes in the economic policy of the country must, sooner or later, have a beneficial effect on the development of the chemical trade, although the consequences of the present financial crisis will, no doubt, be felt for yet a considerable time.

23

THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY.

It must be mentioned that the chemical industry has already introduced many new branches of chemical production in Poland. In addition to those referred to above, a modern factory of glycerine has been established, and a refinery of chemical fats is being constructed.

vi. NITRATE FERTILIZERS.

As regards artificial manure, the most important components in its manufacture are the various nitrogen combinations which are also used in connection with the manufacture of explosives, and of the synthetic organic products. Concentrated ammonia, liquid ammonia, and sulphate of ammonia appear as by-products in the manufacture of gas. The total production of these computed into sulphate of ammonia amounts to 25–30,000 tons per annum. The demand for nitrogen combinations exceeds, however, these figures.

Nitrogen combinations are also produced in Poland by two factories, viz., the "Azot" Manufacturing Company in Bory, nr. Jaworzno, and the Government Factory of Nitrate Combinations in Chorzów.

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The former was established in 1918 for the purpose of manufacturing nitric acid and saltpetre, by combining nitrogen with oxygen in a vibrating electric arc, according to the method of Professor Mościcki. This method has proved uneconomic, especially in view of the increase in the price of coal dust. In consequence, the Bory factory is at present producing ferro-cyanides by the thermo-electric method; part of the production is being exported.

The Chorzów works were established during the War. After the occupation of that part of Silesia by Poland the German technical and engineering staff deserted the works, but thanks to the efforts of the Polish administration, they were soon re-opened. The factory produces at present cyano-calcite containing 82·2 per cent. of nitrogen. The factory is capable of producing 120,000 tons of nitrate products.

By the end of 1923, a new department of the factory's activities has been opened, viz., the manufacture of nitrate

from cyanamide, and at the end of 1924 a further addition was made, viz., the installation of plant for the catalytic oxygenation of ammoniac into nitric acid.

The management of the factory is also preparing plans for the manufacture of various nitrate combinations for agricultural purposes.

THE STATE FACTORY

NITRIC PRODUCTS IN CHORZÓW (POLISH SILESIA)

DELIVERS

Calcium Cyanamide Liquid Ammonia Carbide Nitric Acid

Ammonia Water 25% Soda & Ammonia Nitrates

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vii. POTASSIUM SALTS.

The exploitation of Potassium Salts in Poland is progressing very favourably. Not so long ago the small town of Kalusz in the county of Stanisławów was the only locality where potassium salts, viz.: kainite and sylvinite, were found. In the summer of 1923 kainite and polyhalite were exploited from the Stebnik saline near Drohobycz. Large strata of potassium salts are also found in Turka Wielka, Morszyn and Truskawiec and they have been traced in Tustanowice and Rosolna. these potassium fields are spread over a stretch of land 76 kms. long and about 3 or 4 kms. wide. At each end of this stretch. viz., in Kalusz and Stebnik, potassium mines of the Potassium Exploitation Company are situated. The south-eastern extremity ends just outside Kalusz in Babin, where it lies close to a much older geological formation, viz., chalk. The south-western extremity appears to end at Stebnik, since no potassium is found beyond this locality. Thus, it is correct to refer to the Kałusz-Stebnik Potassium Belt, although it is quite possible that there are Potassium strata in the Saline Districts along the base of the Carpathians.

Potassium salts in the Kałusz-Stebnik Belt appear in grey miocene loams as nests or strata of varying thickness, from 1.5 to 18 metres in Kałusz, and up to 10 metres in Stebnik. These strata stretch over varying distances, from 300 to 500 metres in Kałusz, and from 50 to 300 metres in Stebnik.

Assuming that only 1th of the Potassium strata in the Kalusz-Stebnik Belt is suitable for mining exploitation, and assuming that one kilometre contains not more than 4,000,000 tons of Potassium loams, we can estimate the total quantity of Potassium in the Kalusz-Stebnik Belt at approximately 70,000,000 tons, containing about 8,000,000 tons of K₂O.

The exploitation of Potassium salts does not present any special difficulties. The galleries and shafts created by mining operations require no support for a width of 15 metres. The salts are loaded in trolleys and brought to the surface, whence they go direct into the mills placed close by the mouth of the pit. The loam is then passed through sieves and finally milled into powder.

POTASSIUM SALTS.

The average chemical composition of Potassium salts is as follows:—

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	ксі.	K₃SO₄.	MgSO ₄ .	MgCI ₄ .	NaCl.	CaSO ₄ .	Н.О.	Undis- solvable in water.	
Kainite	22.6	_	19 4	_	34.6	1.7	20 9	0.8	12.4
Sylvinite	26 3	1.5	2 0 4	2.6	56.7	2.8	4.5	3 2	12.4

The production of Potassium salts is steadily increasing; it has already by far exceeded the pre-war output. Thus—

Year.				Kainite.	Sylvinite.	Total.
						Tons.
1913			 	2,350	-	2,350
1920			 	2,300	8,000	10,300
1921			 	200	15,400	15,600
1922			 	2,500	43,500	46,000
1923]	22,100	39,400	61,500
1924			 		_	84,000
	first a	uarter)	 		_	47,297

The demand for Potassium Salts, especially for cultivating sugar beet, is very great and is still in excess of production. It must be added that farmers, particularly in the western part of the country, are accustomed to use concentrated Potassium salts. For this reason it is intended to establish concentrating works in the Kalusz district. A factory of this kind will probably be erected in the nearest future, which will enable the manufacture of artificial manure containing up to 25 per cent. of K_2O , and will also utilise the various Soda and Magnesium Salts which are at present treated as waste products.

viii. SUPERPHOSPHATES.

The following firms are federated in the Union fo Superphosphate Manufacturers:—

- 1. Chemical Manufacturing Company "Roman May" in Poznań.
- 2. Chemical and Glass Manufacturing Company "Kiejewski, Scholtze and Co." in Warsaw.
 - Chemical Manufacturing Company "Liban" in Kraków.
 "Strzemieszyce Industrial Company" in Warsaw.
- 5. Chemical Manufacturing Company "Redziny" in Rudniki-Redziny nr. Czestochowa.
- 6. "Galician Chemical Manufacturing Company" in Lwów-
- 7. "Artificial Manure and Chemical Manufacturing Company of Kielce" in Kielce.
- 8. "Chemische Fabrik A. G. vorm. Carl Scharff & Co." in Bogucice.
- 9. "Ceres" Aktiengesellschaft für Chemische Produkte, Ratibor O/S and one other factory not federated in the Union.

The productive capacity of these factories is estimated at 500,000 tons per annum.

The development of the Superphosphate Industry in Poland is entirely dependent upon the development of land cultivation, and the resultant demand for superphosphates. During the first years after the conclusion of the war this demand was minimal; at present, however, it is rapidly increasing and approaching the pre-war consumption. Thus, the sales of superphosphates during the current Spring season showed an increase of 100 per cent. over the value of transactions effected during the corresponding season of the preceding year.

The total output of the 10 factories amounted to 150,000 tons in 1924; this year's production is estimated

at 200,000 tons.

Superphosphates are exported as yet only to Germany and only from two Polish factories in Upper Silesia in accordance with the Polish-German Upper Silesian Convention. This export amounts to about 4,000 wagons per annum. Apart from this, no superphosphates are exported to other neighbouring countries. In Czecho-Slovakia and Germany special regulations are in force which make the import from Poland impossible. Normal commercial relations have as yet not

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been established with Russia and Lithuania, nor commercial treaties concluded between these countries and Poland. In Rumania, owing to the agrarian reform, the demand for superphosphates has decreased to a minimum. The export to Austria and Hungary is meeting with difficulties in view of the excessive transit tariffs imposed by the Czecho-Slovak Railways. As regards the Baltic States, the competition with Dutch and Swedish manufacture is impracticable since the former products are sent to Riga by sea, i.e., by a much cheaper route than that by which Polish goods would have

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The quantities of raw materials, i.e., of phosphorites and pirites which will be required by Polish Superphosphate Factories during the current year are estimated as follows: 120,000 tons of African and American (high grade 77-78 per cent. and low grade 63-68 per cent.) phosphorites will have to be imported. As regards pirites, the total demand, including the requirements of some cellulose factories and that of the Sulphuric Acid works in Gorlice, amounts to 50,000 tons per annum. The low grade phosphorites are usually purchased by the manufacturers direct from the mines in Algiers, Tunis and Morocco. The high-grade phos- ur phorites are purchased direct from American mines or from in their representatives. Purchases are also made from Austra- Th lasian mines (Ocean, Nauru, and other brands).

Pirites are purchased mostly in London from the "Tharsis" Company and the Rio Tinto Association. These are of Fi Spanish origin, although not infrequently Norwegian and im

Italian pirites are also used.

It must be added that the presence of phosphorites has Co been discovered in the basin of the Polish river Dniester, orc and these are already exploited by one of the Superphosphate im Factories in South Eastern Poland. A great yield of phose fac

phonites from this source is expected in future.

The other raw material necessary for the manufacture of fac superphosphates, viz., Sulphuric Acid is produced in Poland per to the extent of 25,000 tons of 50° Be.Acid. The largest quantities of acid are produced as waste products during the list process of tin ore smelting. Some factories also use pirite deimported from Spain, Norway, etc., for the manufacture of the Sulphuric Acid; others utilise markasite which is found it Sta fairly abundant strata in the immediate vicinity of Polis pol ma coalfields.

ix. THE MATCH MONOPOLY.

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A draft project of the match monopoly has been voted by the Seym on July 13th, 1925, and is now being discussed by the Senate.

A Bill dealing with the same matter has been submitted to the Seym by the Government on December 17th, 1924; amendments were introduced by the Finance Committee of the Seym, and the project was ultimately passed as amended by the committee. Whilst the proposed Statute is still on the Table of the Senate, the Government has already entered into negotiations with the International Match Company of America for the exploitation of the monopoly in Poland. When submitting the original project for parliamentary approval, the Government has made it clear that they did not wish to exploit the monopoly themselves, but intended to grant a 25 years' concession to the Swedish-American Company.

An agreement has now been concluded with the company, ios- under which the latter is to lease the monopoly for 20 years om in consideration of a rent of 5,000,000 zlotys per annum. tra- The company further undertook to export, whenever possible,

at least 25 per cent. of their annual output.

is " The Statute referred to above authorises the Minister of of Finance to fix the prices of matches, to issue permits for the and importation of foreign matches, and to control their manufacture in Poland. Imported matches are liable to a special has Consumption Duty, which is to be levied in addition to the ter, ordinary Customs dues. Furthermore, a special tax was nate imposed on mechanical lighters, whether imported or manuhos factured at home. The tax amounts to I zloty on a pocket lighter and 5 zlotys on the larger varieties. Lighters manue of factured for exportation abroad and those imported for and personal use are exempted from the tax.

gest The Match Monopoly Act is modelled on the Statute estabthe lishing a State monopoly of tobacco. Its introductory part rite deals with the general principles of the monopoly, and with e of the powers of the Minister of Finance in execution of the d if Statute. Other articles vest certain legal rights in the Monoolist poly, which is regarded as a legal persona. All matches manufactured under the Monopoly must be plainly marked,

and only matches so marked can be sold within the territory of the Republic or exported therefrom. Mechanical lighters must also bear the Excise stamp, and cannot be sold or purchased unless so stamped.

Part III. of the Statute contains enactments which are to be enforced during the provisional period, i.e., from the date of the Statute until the establishment of the Monopoly. All match manufacturers must register full particulars of their establishments with the Treasury authorities, and give an estimate of their actual value. The manufacture of matches in private factories is allowed during a period of 12 months. Furthermore, the Statute imposes an implicit duty on the Monopoly to purchase all plant, machinery and installation, as well as stocks of raw materials, at a price agreed upon or at valuation. This duty is extended even to factories temporarily closed. Disputes between the Monopoly and the manufacturers are to be submitted to the Courts of Justice.

The Statute, as amended by the Finance Committee, provides that the rent for the lease of the Monopoly cannot be less than 5 million zlotys per annum, and that, commencing with the second year, the Monopoly should export at least 33 per cent. of its output in addition to meeting fully the requirements of home consumption. The agreement with the Swedish-American Company deviates slightly from these principles.

The Statute contains penalty clauses for contravention of its provisions. The fines vary from 5 to 1,000 zlotys. The Statute is to come into force at a date to be fixed by the Minister of Finance. This provision was made in order to enable the Government to complete their negotiations with the Swedish-American Match Company.

In connection with the newly-introduced match monopoly it may not be out of place to give here a few details relating to the development of the Polish match industry during the last few years. It must be noted that the industry had excellent conditions for its development. Match wood and chlorate of potassium—the two most important materials in the manufacture of matches—are found in abundance throughout the territory of the Republic.

The exports of matches in 1923 amounted to 21,526 cases containing 5,000 boxes each, with 60 matches in each box. The total production of all Polish match factories in that year

THE MATCH MONOPOLY.

amounted to 170,000 cases, and the Treasury revenue from Excise duties on matches represented an equivalent of 2,219,956 zlotys. The exports ceased in the second half of 1923, and in December of that year many factories were closing down and selling out their plant, machinery, installation and stocks to the Swedish-American Match Corporation.

At the height of its development the match industry employed about 3,500 workmen. It is estimated by the Ministry of Finance that the present number of employees

does not exceed 2,500.

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The concession granted to the company will, no doubt, develop the match industry and its kindred trades (timber, potassium salts, etc.). The development, although benefiting directly foreign manufacturers, will ultimately benefit the country, for there is no reason why the monopoly should not be granted to Polish capitalists after the expiration of the present lease.

* WATER POWERS OF POLAND.

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The total hydraulic power of Polish rivers calculated on the basis of average annual height of water level (i.e., average of the total volume of water which flows through the rivers in a year) amounts to 3,652,000 H.P. This hydraulic power is distributed as follows:—

River System.		al Average of raulic Power. H.P.
The Vistula from the source to the mouth	of th	е
San		
The Vistula from the mouth of the San	to th	e
mouth of the Bug		. 615,000
The Vistula below the mouth of the Bug .		. 860,000
		2,055,000
REDA		. 3,000
ODER		. 153,000
DANUBE (PRUT)		. 286,000
		. 760,000
DNIEPER (Volhynian tributaries of Prypec)		. 145,000
and the second s		. 27,000
NIEMEN		. 223,000

The above figures as regards the possibilities of utilisation and economical solution of the problem of construction and exploitation of the available power may be divided into three categories, viz.:—

					TT.L.
ist C	ategor	y with a	total of	 	 1,522,000
2nd		"	,,,	 	 717,000
3rd	17	21	>>	 	 1,413,000

The first category embraces the rivers with over 100 H.P. of hydraulic power available for each kilometre of its length and with a gradient exceeding .5 per cent. There are 89 such rivers of which 50 fulfil these conditions throughout their whole length, the remaining 39 fulfilling these conditions only partly.

The second category comprises the rivers which also have a gradient exceeding 0.5 per cent., but with less than 100 H.P. of available hydraulic power per kilometre. They form the greatest number (mostly tributaries of larger rivers), viz., 508, of which 426 are suitable for exploitation over their whole length, the remaining 82 only partly.

To the third category finally belong the rivers of distinctly lowland character with a gradient under .5 per cent. Included among these are all the navigable rivers, the total number of which is 89 (32 over whole length and 57 partly).

The above data plainly indicate that Poland possesses valuable sources of hydraulic power which could be utilised gradually by commencing first with enterprises offering the greatest financial advantages. Up till now 61 schemes of hydraulic power plants have been worked out with the aggregate power installed amounting to 452,000 H.P. In the course of construction are two power plants with 18,000 H.P.

Pre-war statistics show that on the territory of the Polish Republic the total of 120,000 H.P. has been utilised by 9,000 hydraulic power plants which represent 3.3 per cent. of the power available and 7.9 per cent. of that in the 1st category. The total hydraulic power utilised at present, not including plants devastated by the war, amounts to about 80,000 H.P., of which about 16,500 H.P. are generated by 46 plants of over 100 H.P. each.

The absorption of hydraulic energy by the industry, agriculture, communications, lighting, etc., is unquestionably fully assured, the electrification of the country being of vast

importance to its economic life.

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The construction of hydroelectric power plants in Poland offers to foreign capital an absolutely safe investment, quick return, and a high rate of interest.

xi. ELECTRIFICATION IN POLAND.

Poland belongs to those countries of Western Europe in which electrification has made least progress, as is seen from the following table of the consumption of electric power in kws. per head of population in*:—

Switzerland		 		 700
Norway		 		 493
Sweden		 	0 %	 365
Germany		 		 149
France		 		 147
Great Britai	n	 		 139
Italy		 		 83
Poland		 		 22

The consumption of power shows considerable variation according to the industrialisation of the various districts of the country. In the Silesian basin (the centre of the mining and iron industry of Poland) there are many large industrial electric power stations, as, for example, the electric power station at Chorzów, with a capacity of 81,000 kws. and a production amounting in 1921 to 303,556,000 kws. In this district the consumption of power per head of population amounts to about 83 kws. per annum, approximately that of Italy. In the counties of Poznania and Pomerania the consumption of power amounts to some 20 kws. per annum, while in former Austrian Poland it amounts to 13 kws., and in former Russian Poland it does not exceed 10 kws.

The majority of Polish electric power stations are of the public utility type. Their number, according to the statistics of the Ministry of Public Works for 1922, amounted, leaving out Upper Silesia, to 258, with an aggregate installed power of 121,936 kws. The distribution of electric power stations and kws. according to various counties are as follows:—

			Per 100 S	Per 100 Sq. Kms.		
Counti		Number of Power Stations.	Kws.	Kws.		
County of Lodz			 2.6	577	745	
Warsaw			 2.4	178	247	
,, Pomerania			 1.3	737	1,286	
" Poznan			 I · 2	753	1,014	
,, Kielce			 1.1	459	466	
" Lublin			 0.6	21	32	
,, Krakow			 0.5	936	816	
Lwow			 0 4	386	384	
,, Tarnopol			 0.4	49	55	
" Bialystok			 0.3	130	325	
Stanislawow		2.0	 0.1	5	6	

* See Elektrotechnik und Maschinenbau.

The above table shows clearly the enormous task which awaits Poland in the field of electrification. The natural sources of power possessed by Poland are fairly considerable, as, for example, coal deposits are computed at nearly 60 milliard tons, unexploited water power at about 1 million kws.; while there is also to be found in Poland crude oil, mineral

gas, timber, brown coal, etc.

It should be noted that the question of electrification of the country is an object of particular anxiety on the part of the Polish Government. On the 21st March, 1922, the Electrification Law was published giving a new legal basis to this industry and opening up before it wide prospects. The law has done away with the hitherto somewhat casual treatment of electric enterprises, and has given electrification the character of a State problem. On the strength of this law and after receipt of a report from the administrative bodies interested, concessions for the erection of electric power stations are granted by the Minister of Public Works. The general rules for concessionnaires are as follows:—The period of a concession for steam-driven electric power stations—up to 40 years; for hydro-electric power stations—up to 60 years. The State fixes maximum tariffs and retains the right of technical inspection. The concessionnaire may avail himself of the simplified system of expropriation of land for laying down cables and for erecting the necessary buildings.

The Minister of Public Works has as his consulting body the State Electric Board composed of representatives of science and of economic and technical organisations interested in the

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The economic crisis through which Poland has been passing since 1924, and the lack of capital available for investments, has had a detrimental effect on the electrification of the country, as the carrying out of new installations naturally meets with great difficulties. Nevertheless, several occurrences show a revival of electrification. For example, a concession was signed on the 17th June, 1924, for the erection of a large district electric power station at Pruszków near Warsaw, financed by British capital. This was the first step towards the realisation of the above-mentioned Electrification Law. Similarly, a concession has been granted to the Sub-Carpathian Electric Company which has as its aim the electrification of the oil fields. Finally, a concession has been obtained by the concern "Electric Network" for carrying

ELECTRIFICATION IN POLAND.

out the scheme of transporting electric power produced in the coal basin to other industrial centres. This company has begun the construction of a long distance cable between Sosnowiec and Częstochowa. Work has also been commenced on the project of supplying electricity to the Polish coal basin, where about 80 per cent. of the total electric power of Poland is being generated. Finally, during the same year a movement in the direction of co-operative electrification has been inaugurated, and the construction of several small electric power stations and of transforming stations is due to commence in suburban districts and in small towns.

A separate branch of electrification is represented by the tramways. Electric tramways in Poland are to be found in 11 towns, of which the larger tramway enterprises are in Warsaw, Lwow, Krakow, Lodz and Poznan. The total length of single tracks amounts to 547.5 kms., 53 per cent. of which belong to communal enterprises, the remaining 47 per cent.

being the property of private concerns.

Polish tramways travelled in 1924 an aggregate of 47,600,000 car-kilometres, and carried 315·1 million passengers. The number of passengers carried shows a steady increase. During the first two months of 1925 the number of passengers has shown in some towns an increase of over 100 per cent. in comparison with the same period of the previous year.

		Passengers Carried in the Year				
Town.		1924.		1925.		
		January.	February.	January.	February.	
Warsaw Lwow Lodz Torun		9,337,777 962,509 1,742,677 117,910	9,803,157 1,750,526 1,788,708 121,644	17,318,124 1,928,554 3,533,474 251,682	16,381,403 2,772,911 3,406,501 257,029	

The number of passengers in 1924 varied from 5.2 to 8.2 per car-kilometer, while in January, 1925, it reached 9.4. This figure is considerably in excess of the normal number, which should be 4 to 5 passengers per car-kilometer. This proves that the tramway undertakings existing in Poland are in need of considerable development. Apart from this a number of towns, such as Wilno, Białystok, Radom, Często-

howa, Lublin, Kalisz, Sosnowiec and others, are awaiting an installation of electric tramways.

The electric narrow gauge railways only exist in Łódź and in Upper Silesia, while the capital of Poland-Warsaw-is entirely devoid of them. Only in recent years has work been commenced on a system of suburban electric railways which will connect Warsaw with the suburbs. The main obstacle to the development of electric railways was primarily the lack of capital.

"Sila i Swiatlo" (Power and Light) Joint Stock Company.

Warsaw, ul. Marszałkowska 94.

The "Sila and Swiatlo" Joint Stock Company commenced its activities in 1918. Purpose of the Company: Electrification of the country, construction, exploitation and

financing of district electric power stations and electric railways.

During the first five years of its existence the "Sila and Swiatlo" have acquired the majority of shares in a number of the most important electric enterprises in Poland, and

majority of shares in a number of the most important electric enterprises in Poland, and finance, control and direct the development of the same.

In this manner the largest electric concern in Poland has been formed and consists of:

1. The Dabrowa District Electric Power Station Joint Stock Company established in 1914 which is one of the largest and most up-to-date stations in Poland and supplies the Dabrowa coal industry. The electric generator of 10,000 KWH. has been increased to 22,000 KWH. The yearly production is about 24,000,000 KWH.

2. The Pruszkow District Electric Power Joint Stock Company established in 1924 supplies current to the suburbs of Warsaw and districts. The electric generator of 8,500 KWH has been increased to 16 for KWH

has been increased to 16,500 KWH.

3. The Siersza Wodna District Electric Power Joint Stock Company established in 1912 supplies the industrial district of the Chrzanow-Cracow Basin. The generator of 9,000 KWH.

has been increased to r8.000 KWH. Yearly production about 24,000,000 KWH.

4. The Electric Suburban Railways Joint Stock Company carrying out the construction of the electric railway line from Warsaw to Zyrardow.

5. The Dabrowa Electric Transways Joint Stock Company carrying out the construction of

the electric tramway lines connecting the towns of Dabrowa, Sosnowiec, Bedzin and Czeladz.
6. The "Warsaw—Mlociny— Modlin" Electric Railways Joint Stock Company,
7. The "Kabel Polski," (Polish Cable") Joint Stock Company at Bydgoszcz, established
in 1923, which is the largest factory of electric cables and conductors in Poland. This Company

employs about 400 operatives.

In addition the "Sila and Swiatlo" elaborates and executes new schemes for electric power stations and railways. Two years ago the "Sila and Swiatlo" acquired credit in England to the amount of £1,250,000 for 18 years for the development of enterprises belonging

to the concern.

The authorities of the above Company are as follows: General Council: Dr. A. Biedermann, Messieurs W. Gerlicz, M.P., H. Grohman, M. Hofman, Dr. H. Kaden, Messieurs S. Karlowski, K. Kozlowski, S. Landau, J. Regulski, T. Sulowski, E. Tempel, A. Wierzbocki; Board of Directors: Msr. T. Sulowski (Chairman), J. Regulski (Financial Director), K. Gayczak, (Technical Director).

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VI TRADE AND COMMERCE

COMMERCIAL POLICY OF POLAND.

1. Introduction.

Poland's commercial policy is shaped by the Legislature and the Government: it is also influenced by public opinion. The influence of Parliament is limited at present to general legislation only: this is due to the overwhelming task of introducing uniform law throughout the country with which Legislature has to cope. Two principal Statutes defining the powers of the Government as regards its Tariff Policy have been passed. One, in August, 1919, empowered the Government to introduce a uniform Customs Tariff, to supersede the various Tariffs of the former Empires. This Statute also contained certain principles on which the Government's Tariff policy was subsequently based. Thus, the Government was authorised to impose almost prohibitive duties on the importation of articles of luxury, and to aid the restoration of Polish industries devastated by the war, by means of protective Customs. Free importation of corn and exemption from import duties on plant and machinery were also recommended. These fundamental recommendations became the basis of subsequent enactments which initiated the Government's Customs policy on the lines set out in the

The other Statute regulating **Customs Tariffs** was passed in 1924, and defined the powers of the Government in this respect. These powers are very wide and include almost every means whereby State interference can be exercised. The Government is authorised to impose anti-dumping duties, to refund duties on raw materials when articles manufactured from these are exported, to reduce the duties on necessaries, and on various articles which are not manufactured in Poland. On the other hand, the Government cannot introduce any changes into the Tariff thus enacted. The Statute does not, like the previous one, contain any recommendations as regards the main outlines of policy to be adopted, but its chief merit lies in the legislative regulation of

Customs conditions and of the powers of the Government in respect thereof.

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A more active participation of Parliament in the moulding of the State's trade policy can be observed in connection with the regulation of in- and outgoing trade by means of direct embargoes on certain articles. The system of direct prohibitions has been developed during and since the War, and has almost superseded the old method of regulating trade by means of prohibitive or protective duties. The system has achieved great popularity in Southern, Central and Eastern Europe; it is still in existence in Germany and Czechoslovakia. Poland, abandoned comparatively soon the policy of prohibitions through a systematic evolution, in which Parliament played the decisive part. The Statute of 1920 dealing with Foreign Trade, established an entire apparatus of control based on the principle of co-operation of the public with the responsible authorities. Prior to this Statute, a list of articles was issued, the importation of which required, in each case, the sanction of Government authorities. Special departments were established for this purpose; the co-operation of the commercial community was invited in order to advise the officials on the desirability, or otherwise, of importation of a given article.

The Control thus established aimed at (1) the protection of home production by means of prohibitions instead of by Customs duties, which were maintained on their low scale; (2) the regulation of export prices which would prevent the efflux of Polish goods at minimum prices owing to the currency inflation; (3) the participation of the State in the enormous profits made by private exporters.

It is plain that for the achievement of these aims at a period of continually fluctuating trade conditions, the flexible policy of direct prohibitions was more suitable than the system of fixed customs duties. Thus, the Seym initiated the idea and apparatus of a "temporary policy" which reached its climax during the year 1920–1921.

About the middle of 1921 this system began to lose its importance. The embargo was lifted off a large number of articles and was replaced by a concise list of goods which could be imported only from those countries which were parties to commercial agreements with Poland, and then

only within the limits of contingents agreed upon. In addition, a further list was published containing goods, the exportation of which was prohibited; this list included raw materials and foodstuffs, but in cases of overproduction of a given article, permissions for export were granted. The Government's measures tending to the introduction of Free Trade divested the Statute of 1920 of its former importance, and it was finally superseded by the Act of 1924 on the Regulation of Customs Duties.

The new Act repealed the Statute of 1920, abolished the special Departments of Control and limited the Government's powers of prohibition of exports only to raw materials used in industry. This provision of the Act aimed at the abolition of all restrictions as regards the exportation of cereals. In conformance with this Act, the restrictions on the exports of foodstuffs were repealed in the latter half of 1924, but export duties on corn were imposed by the end of the year, following the exceptionally bad harvest and the consequent shortage of cereals in the country. These duties are of a purely temporary character.

The evolution of Polish Protection Policy has been dealt with fully because of the fact that this policy has now lost its importance and meaning; also because of the notable participation of the Legislature in this branch of the Government's activities.

As regards Commercial Treaties, the participation of the Legislature was confined, in accordance with the Constitution, to the ratification of international agreements submitted by the Government. In this respect, no serious differences of opinion arose between the latter and the Seym, with one possible exception—in the case of the Treaty with Czechoslovakia of 1921, which has not been ratified by both contracting parties.

The part played by the Government in the stabilisation of Poland's commercial policy has been explained above. It must be noted that, at a period of intense legislative activities, the settlement of current problems, including also Customs regulation, was left almost entirely to the discretion of the Government. The Government based its policy on the recommendations and principles contained in the enactments of the Seym. In many cases, new legislation on this subject

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was submitted to the Legislature by the Government itself, so that it can rightly be said that the "temporary policy" referred to above was the result of a joint action of Parliament, the Executive, and of representatives of economic organisations. It is, therefore, somewhat surprising that this policy has so soon lost importance.

The Seym, too, initiated the abolition of control as regards the exports of corn; this is contained in the Act of 1924, which, otherwise, forms a piece of legislation initiated by the Executive.

The influence of public opinion on Poland's trade policy is exercised mostly in respect of Customs Duties, and is expressed through the advisory committee of experts functioning in connection with the Ministry of Trade and Industry. This organ (now known as the Customs Committee) has not, as yet, initiated any radical changes in the Government's policy, but its advice is most valuable, especially in dealing with applications for reductions of exemptions from import duties on plant and machinery, and other articles not manufactured in the country. In the case of machinery, the reduction amounts to 90 per cent., and it is readily granted if it can be proved that the importation will modernise the technical equipment of Polish factories.

The co-operation of economic organisations was also invited when the new Customs Tariff was drafted in 1919, and subsequently revised in 1924. An advisory body of experts was set up and its decisions were, with few exceptions, incorporated in the Tariff. The exceptions affected articles in respect of which the Government had previously adopted a particular policy, e.g., foodstuffs. In many cases, the duties suggested by the Committee of Experts were considerably reduced. In spite of this, the very fact of the existence and influence of such a body expressed the Government's attitude towards economic organisations and safeguarded the interests of the general public represented by these organisations. influence of public opinion as regards Commercial Treaties cannot be of great importance, for the provisions of these Treaties largely depend on the general foreign policy of the Government. However, even here the opinions of experts are invited, and the Government representatives remain in constant touch with interested organisations throughout the negotiations. The character of advice collected by the Government is perhaps different here, for in the case of treaties the opinions must, of necessity, be of a rather informal character and give the Government the necessary material on

which to base its policy during the negotiations.

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After this introduction, it may be advisable to define in a few short sentences the present trade policy of the Polish Government. It is a policy which has already lost all features of an emergency system. The system of embargoes has been, with a few insignificant exceptions, abolished, and the regulation of foreign trade is conducted almost exclusively by means of Customs duties. The new policy strives to protect and encourage the development of home industries, and to regulate commercial relations with foreign countries by means of Commercial Treaties. The Customs Tariff is rigid and can only be revised en bloc once every few years. By allowing reductions on machinery not manufactured in Poland, the Government gives a further stimulus to the development of Polish industries. Furthermore, the Government refunds import duties on raw materials when the articles manufactured from them are exported from Poland.

We shall now proceed to discuss separately the different

branches of Poland's Commercial Policy.

2. Commercial Treaties.

The first Commercial Treaties were concluded in the latter half of 1921, and came into force in the year following. The parties to these treaties were Rumania, France and Switzerland, respectively. Further treaties, with Italy, Austria, Belgium and the Duchy of Luxemburg, were entered into in 1923, and in 1924, the agreements with Jugoslavia, Denmark, Iceland, Finland, Great Britain and Turkey came into force. In the beginning of the current year the treaties with Japan and Sweden were ratified, and the new agreement with France, signed on December 9, 1924, will shortly be submitted for parliamentary ratification. The Treaty with Great Britain was extended to Palestine. Agreements were also concluded with the United States, Norway, Holland and Persia; negotiations are now proceeding for the conclusion of Treaties with Hungary, Czechoslovakia and Germany. The Polish Government spares no efforts to base its foreign trade on the provisions of Commercial Treaties.

COMMERCIAL POLICY OF POLAND.

In all, before the end of 1924, sixteen treaties were concluded; the following table shows their chronological sequence:—

C		Date of			
Country.	Signing.	Ratification.	Coming into force.		
Roumania	1.7.1921	28.7.1922	30.11.1922		
France	. 6.2.1922	12.5.1922	20.6.1922		
Italy	. 12.5.1922	28.7.1922	30.3.1923		
Switzerland	. 26.6.1922	28.7.1922	20.8.1922		
Austria	. 25.9.1922	26.9.1922	15.1.1923		
Jugoslavia	. 23.10.1922	14.11.1923	20.4.1924		
Japan	. 7.12.1922	1.4.1924	18.1.1925		
Belgium and Luxemburg	30.12.1922	1.6.1923	5.10.1923		
Turkey	. 25.7.1923	5.12.1923	17.4.1924		
Finland	. 10.11.1923	6.5.1924	18.9.1924		
Great Britain	. 26.11.1923	6.5.1924	1.7.1924		
Denmark	. 22.3.1924	25.7.1924	28.8.1924		
Iceland	. 22.3.1924	25.7.1924	28.8.1924		
Holland	. 30.5.1924		_		
Sweden	. 2.12.1924	_	_		
France (renewal) .	9.12.1924		-		

The last three of these treaties are in various stages of parliamentary ratification either by the Seym or by the Senate. The last agreement with France indicates a still further step in the development of Polish commercial relations with foreign countries, for it constitutes a far-reaching revision of

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the previously concluded treaty.

The provisions of the Treaties show a gradual evolution of Polish treaty policy from the "most-favoured nation" principle to systematic Tariff Conventions, which provide for mutual Tariff reductions in addition to the "mostfavoured nation" treatment. Until 1925, all Treaties, with the exception of the agreements with France signed in 1922 and 1924 respectively, were of the former type. In other words, Poland was satisfied with being equally privileged with those countries which were already bound by Tariff Conventions with the country in question. At that time, such arrangements were quite satisfactory, since, during the period of inflation, Polish exports could easily compete in foreign markets without any preferential treatment. At present, however, when there is no inflated currency to give an artificial stimulus to exportation, Poland must seek new outlets for her products across the prohibitive Customs

barriers. For this reason, the new Treaty with France, which is shortly coming into force, contains a lengthy Schedule of articles which will enjoy preferential Customs treatment. The agreement with Czechoslovakia which is now being negotiated will, in all essentials, have the character

of a regular Tariff Convention.

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It must be noted, however, that in negotiating Tariff Conventions, Poland experiences more difficulties than other European States in similar circumstances owing to the peculiar character of Polish exports. Only very few classes of goods are exported from Poland. Coal forms 25 per cent. of all exports, and amongst other articles purchased by foreign countries are sugar, timber, petroleum products, cattle and agricultural produce, zinc, pipes, etc. On the other hand, Polish imports are more or less equally distributed amongst all classes of goods. In consequence there are considerable difficulties in reaching a balance of mutual Tariff reductions. Further, the countries which are neighbours of Poland. Germany, Czechoslovakia, and Soviet Russia, are still enforcing a system of embargoes, which cannot be balanced by a similar system in Poland, since Polish trade has already been freed from embargoes, prohibitions and contingents. Thus, Poland as a contracting party is at a disadvantage.

It is noteworthy that the Tariff reductions embodied in the Franco-Polish Convention and in the draft Convention with Czechoslovakia are reckoned in percentages of the existing duties. This allows the contracting parties to revise the existing duties—a very important concession considering the still fluctuating Polish economic conditions, and the industrial crisis through which Poland is now passing. In the Franco-Polish convention the Polish Government undertakes only in one case to maintain the existing scale of import duties, viz., those imposed on wines. The system described above is peculiarly French, for the latter country never undertakes the maintenance of her duties on one scale. The French Tariff reductions are usually based on the difference beween the maximum and minimum tariffs, or else the minimum tariff is guaranteed to the contracting party, although this

" minimum " is never strictly defined.

The Treaty with Czechoslovakia will, however, contain several provisions prohibiting the increase of certain duties and maintaining them on a fixed scale agreed upon by the contracting parties. By way of reciprocity, the Czechoslovakian import duties on petroleum products are to be maintained on an unvarying scale. In this respect, there is a difference of opinion between producers supplying the home P market and those exporting the greater part of their output. A The latter would naturally have the foreign import duties d maintained on a fixed basis, which, of course, has to be su reciprocated by a corresponding undertaking on the part of go the Polish Government.

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Other provisions of Polish Commercial Treaties secure the freedom of action for the contracting parties' capitals. corporations and individuals in accordance with the generally recognised principles. Equality before the law and as regards taxation is mutually guaranteed, with a few exceptions affecting Banking and Insurance Corporations, also as regards undertakings of public utility, where the activities of foreign corporations may be limited by special conditions imposed by local legislation. The treaties provide specifically for complete freedom of circulation of capitals, both principal and interest.

In view of the peculiar geographical position of Poland, some limitations as regards the rights of nationals of the other contracting party to become domiciled in Poland are introduced in certain Commercial Treaties. This, however, has no bearing on the proper commercial, industrial, and financial relations between Poland and foreign countries.

Generally speaking, the Commercial Treaties of Poland may be regarded as a compromise between the principle of self-sufficiency and that of economic expansion.

The latter idea is becoming more and more popular, for it answers the actual economic conditions in Poland. On one hand, we have to deal with an almost natural overproduction of coal, petroleum products, agricultural produce, cattle and zinc: on the other, Polish industries depend almost entirely on foreign raw materials (wool and cotton) and to a large extent on the supply of foreign plant and machinery. The surplus must be exported, the needs must be satisfied by imported articles which are paid for with monies received from abroad, for the Polish financial system is based on a satisfactory Trade Balance. These circumstances necessitate economic expansion which, as has been explained, is vital not only for those industries which export their output, but ci also for those which supply the home markets.

3. Prohibitions of Imports and Exports.

The powers of Government in respect of prohibitions of ne Polish imports and exports are defined by the Statute of 1924. ut. As regards imports, the Statute leaves the matter to the ies discretion of Government, which is also empowered to lift be such prohibitions off particular consignments of prohibited of goods. As regards exports, however, the Government cannot impose prohibitions on any goods except on raw materials used in industry. Thus it cannot, for instance, ban the exportation of agricultural produce which was possible under the previous Statutes. This restriction of the powers of the executive was advocated in the Seym by representatives of agriculture and farming, defending vigorously their constituents' interests. ons

The prohibitions of exports can also be temporarily suspended at the option of the Government. In such cases export duties ed are payable in respect of every permit issued by the Depart-

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The powers of the Government described above have in no way altered its policy in respect of the regulation of imports. Prohibition of importation applies only to the following articles :-

(1) Pies and pastries.

(2) Sweets, fruit preserves, fruit cheese, jellies and powder, fruit preserved in liquors, rum and brandy, chocolate and cocoa containing sugar, marmalades and jams, fruit syrups containing alcohol.

(3) Rum, arrack, brandy, and other spirits; liquors of

all kinds.

(4) Grape and fruit wines.

(5) All fine cheeses packed in boxes, tins, etc.

(6) Ovsters, crabs, lobsters, prawns, snails, etc., fresh, pickled or otherwise.

(7) Artificial sweetening products of a strength greater than that of cane sugar, such as sulphimide and its salts,

saccharine, sugarine, etc.

(8) Cosmetics and scents, including powder, rouge, hair dyes, pastils, pomades and all non-alcoholic cosmetics, perfumery and scent containing alcohol, hair tonics, Eau de Cologne, etc.

Permission for the importation of these articles is granted only to citizens of those countries which are parties to commercial treaties with Poland. The contingent thus allowed depends on the state of production of the article in the country of its origin; firms which have been granted permission to import a given article are allowed to import it, until the contingent allowed for their country is exhausted.

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Permits are granted by the Trade Department of the Ministry of Industry and Commerce. In some cases they may also be issued by Commercial Attaches at Polish Legations

abroad.

It is difficult to foresee the future policy of the Government in respect of prohibitions of imports from abroad; it is also questionable if the list of banned articles will for long remain intact, especially as it does not include all articles de luxe. It is, however, doubtful if the prohibitions will be extended to other articles, although Poland's neighbours seem to extend the embargo on certain classes of goods indefinitely. Poland, however, has reached the present stage by way of evolution, and only unforeseen economic circumstances could make her alter this policy. An adverse trade balance in connection with the present economic crisis might result in new prohibitions. But it must be remembered that, considering the provisions of existing commercial treaties, it would be extremely difficult to apply the embargo to other classes of goods. France, for instance, is entitled to free imports of such goods on which prohibition had been imposed, the contingent to be decided by representatives of both countries. This reservation, included in the commercial treaty with France, applies to manufactures in which French industries are particularly interested, such as silk fabrics, etc. Similar reservations may be demanded by other countries entering into commercial agreements with Poland, and a wholesale refusal of these may result in a failure to conclude the Treaty.

In respect of exports, Polish policy has already been modified, and allows a great freedom in exportation of goods. Corn, cattle, pigs, sugar and flour can now be freely exported. It must be noted that the prohibitions existing prior to 1924 were intended to lower the prices of these commodities in Poland, and not merely to prevent their export. As soon as the new Statute limited the Government's right of embargo on raw materials only, all prohibitions were abandoned and the special department of control was liquidated. Export duties were imposed on corn at the end of 1924 as a result of the exceptionally bad harvest in that year. At present, only the exportation of crude oil is prohibited by virtue of a special

statute; this statute is intended to maintain a sufficient supply of the raw material for Polish oil refineries.

4. Tariff Policy.

(a) Depreciation of Currency and Customs Policy.

The regulation of foreign trade by means of Customs duties was begun in Poland in the latter half of 1921, when the system of prohibitions was replaced by a system of tariffs. The previous tariff of January, 1920, was never enforced, since it was based on a stable currency, and could be of little use during the period of inflation. The duties had to be modified so as to form an efficient weapon in the Government's struggle against depreciation and high cost of living. The protection of Polish industries by means of Customs barriers was not of vital necessity, for the depreciation alone was an efficient check on the importation of goods manufactured in countries with stable currencies.

When, in the latter half of 1921, the system of prohibitions was abolished, Customs tariffs were adapted to their intended task of protecting the home industries against foreign competition. The tariff of that period was based on a coefficient representing the extent of currency devaluation at the time. These coefficients were increased correspondingly with the

decline of the currency.

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By the end of 1923 the collapse of the mark was imminent, and prices were calculated in stable currencies in accordance with the world standard. At the same time a scheme of financial reforms was then being prepared. These circumstances compelled the Government to stabilise all Customs duties on the basis of a firm and unvarying currency, i.e., the gold franc. Duties fixed in gold francs were then calculated in Polish marks at a rate based on each day's quotation of gold on the London Stock Exchange. Lastly, since July 1, 1924, all Customs duties are paid in the new zloty currency. The introduction of this currency automatically abolished all measures tending to protect the Treasury against the effects of depreciation.

5. The Customs Tariff of 1924.

The Tariff now applied in Poland was passed by the Seym on June 26, 1924, and published in the "Official Journal of Laws" (No. 54). The present tariff forms a revised edition of that of 1919, and although the duties have been fixed in a stable

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currency and accordingly regulated, the principal features and classification of dutiable articles remains unaltered.

The tariff can be modified by the Government by virtue of Commercial Treaties (Treaty Concessions). Relief may also be granted in certain cases specified in the Statute of July 31, 1924 ("Journal of Laws," No. 80, 1924). This autonomous relief must be distinguished from Treaty Concessions and is dealt with below.

An order of November 22, 1924 ("Journal of Laws," No. 102, 1924) established also **Maximum Duties** which are 100 per cent. higher than those specified in the tariff of June 26, 1924. The same Order also provides for the imposition of maximum import duties on goods which are free of duty under the tariff. These impositions are levied on goods originating from countries which are not parties to Commercial Treaties with Poland, provided—

(1) the importation of Polish goods to such countries is subject to restrictions which do not apply to imports from other countries; and

(2) the exports from such countries to Poland are encouraged by means of open or secret premiums.

The maximum import duties have so far had no application, and remain as a reserve weapon against possible restrictions on Polish imports and against the continuation of commercial relations not regulated by Commercial Agreements. The Government is also empowered to impose so-called antidumping duties on goods which are deliberately dumped into Poland.

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The Polish Customs Tariff of 1924 is divided into 11 principal groups:—

Foodstuffs and animals				Nos. 1-40
	ereof			,, 41-57
				,, 58-64
Building materials and earthenware				,, 65-78
Fuel, tar, pitch and manufactures thereof				,, 79-88
Chemicals				,, 89-137
				,, 138-175
Paper, paper articles and printing				,, 176-178
Textile manufactures				,, 179-208
Wearing apparel, fancy goods, stationery				
Explosives				" 217 SS.
	Products of animal origin and manufactures the Timber and articles of wood Building materials and earthenware. Fuel, tar, pitch and manufactures thereof Chemicals	Products of animal origin and manufactures thereof Timber and articles of wood Building materials and earthenware Fuel, tar, pitch and manufactures thereof Chemicals Ores, metals and metal articles Paper, paper articles and printing Textile manufactures Wearing apparel, fancy goods, stationery	Products of animal origin and manufactures thereof Timber and articles of wood Building materials and earthenware Fuel, tar, pitch and manufactures thereof Chemicals Ores, metals and metal articles Paper, paper articles and printing Textile manufactures Wearing apparel, fancy goods, stationery	Products of animal origin and manufactures thereof Timber and articles of wood Building materials and earthenware Fuel, tar, pitch and manufactures thereof Chemicals Ores, metals and metal articles Paper, paper articles and printing Textile manufactures Wearing apparel, fancy goods, stationery

This classification is somewhat out of date, being based on the Russian Tariff of 1903; a revision of this system is being proceeded with.

An analysis of the Tariff will show that it is intended primarily to protect Polish industries in view of the higher costs

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on ing imests of production as compared with those of foreign competitors. The most important of the latter is Germany. German industries, ever aiming at penetration into foreign markets, have long since based their system of production on specialisation, and are thus able to reduce the cost of manufacture to an absolute minimum. German manufacturers are naturally anxious to retain their former markets in the now Polish provinces, like Poznań, Pomerania, Upper Silesia and Danzig, similarly to the Austrian and Czechoslovakian industries, which still see in Galicia a convenient market for their output. In these provinces Polish industries have been gradually built up, but, owing to the shortage of capital, are as yet unable to meet the demand. Thus, we can realise that the young and undeveloped industries are confronted with extremely high costs of production, and have to be protected by an efficient Customs Tariff. These costs are still further increased by an insufficient organisation of banking, lack of transport facilities and especially of waterways, and the need for protection of Polish industries at the present moment is great.

In addition to safeguarding of industries, the Customs Tariff forms an important source of revenue. This is evident especially from the figures in respect of Excise duties on tea, coffee, cocoa, pepper, etc. On the other hand, raw materials are in most cases free of duty. No duties are levied on corn, and, amongst cattle, only bulls imported for breeding purposes

are subject to duty.

The following list gives an idea of the extent of duties imposed on particular goods. The duty is expressed in per-

centages of the approximate market value. Tariff reductions and Treaty concessions are not taken into consideration:—

	P	er cent.			Pe	er cent.
Iron manufactures	(average)	45	Flour			20
Metal industry		30-50	Sugar			35
Mechanical industry		30-40	Dressed hides			20-25
Electric apparatus		55	Organic dyes	1		20-40
Agricultural machinery		20-30	Nitric acid	2 12.1		40
Cotton yarn		10-18	Concentrated sulph			15
Cotton fabrics		20-30	Sulphuric acid (oleu	m)	1 . 1	50
Artificial cotton fabrics		40-50	Soda	7.1		30
Woollen yarn		10-15	Seed oils			30-40
Woollen cloth		30	Cellulose			15
Silk fabrics		10-30	News print		10.0	25
Artificial silk fabrics	and em-		Paper (other)			35
broideries		50	Kerosene, petrol			
Artificial silk		40	Footwear			15-20
Cement		40	Wearing apparel			15-20
Superphosphates		15	the second of the second			4568

In order to regulate the application of this Tariff, and to conform it to the actual needs of economic life, the Government is authorised to grant special reductions, especially as regards the importation of machinery, raw materials, and commodities.

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6. Relief from Customs Duties.

In execution of the powers referred to above, the Government issues from time to time a list of articles, in respect of which only reduced Customs duties are payable. Every issue

cancels automatically all previous reductions.

This procedure was first adopted in 1920, and was intended primarily to facilitate the progressing reconstruction of agriculture and industry, damaged by the war. In the course of time the term "reconstruction" was interpreted to mean the development of industry in general, and finally the Regulation of Customs Statutes authorised the Government to adopt the system of Customs reductions as part of its tariff policy.

These Customs reductions may be divided into three groups, viz.: (1) those on necessaries; (2) on machinery, technical equipment and transport stock; and (3) on raw or semi-manu-

factured materials.

The relief in respect of the importation of necessaries was the direct result of the general policy of the Government tending to combat the exorbitant prices of these articles in Poland. Necessaries include footwear, wearing apparel, linen, flour, rice, and newspaper. In consequence of the reductions allowed, importation of these articles en masse from Germany and Austria followed; this prompted the Government to withdraw footwear, wearing apparel, linen and paper from the list of privileged articles.

The reductions in respect of groups (2) and (3) are of a more permanent character, since they apply primarily to articles which, for the time being, are not manufactured in Poland. In special cases relief is granted even in respect of articles

produced in Poland, e.g., pipes and ropes.

Formally, all reductions of import duties are divided into those which are applied automatically at the Customs, and those allowed by special permission of the Ministry of Finance. Import duties in respect of steam and combustion engines and electric meters are reduced automatically, for none of these articles are manufactured in Poland. Duties are reduced by the Ministry of Finance when it appears that only certain

types of the machinery in question are not manufactured in Poland. In such cases, the opinion of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry must be taken, and the permission or refusal of the Ministry of Finance is based on that opinion.

All reductions are expressed in percentage of the existing duties. Thus, for instance, reduced import duties on machinery form usually 10 or 20 per cent. of the duty specified in the Tariff; the reduction, therefore, amounts to 90,

respectively 80 per cent.

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The lists of articles in respect of which Customs relief may be granted contain a stereotyped statement, that the importation of a complete plant of machinery, which has been used abroad, may be subject to a 90 per cent. reduction of import duties, provided the importation is justified by reasons of economic importance.

Regulations in respect of temporary importation of goods.

The reductions described above were intended to enable Polish industries to obtain such means of production as are not themselves manufactured in Poland. Special measures, intended to facilitate Polish exports and to increase the competitive capacity of Polish exporters are contained in the so-called regulations concerning the temporary importation of certain goods for the purpose of manufacture and re-exporta-

tion in their new shape.

The purpose of these regulations is to relieve articles manufactured in Poland and subsequently exported from duties on the ingredients of such goods which were imported into the country. Thus, a manufacturer may receive permission to import free of duty raw materials or semi-manufactured articles on condition that he will export all articles manufactured of such materials within a prescribed period. Should the manufacturer fail to export the consignment within the prescribed period, he is liable to pay such duty as would be payable on the importation of raw materials, etc., under ordinary circumstances. In most cases the Ministry of Finance requires a cash deposit as security for the payment of these duties.

It must be remembered that the relief in respect of temporary importation is distinctive from subsidies granted for the encouragement of exports, for the relief is strictly limited to a refund of import duties on raw materials contained in finished

articles exported from Poland.

7. Export Duties.

After the enactment of the "Regulation of Customs Duties" Statute of June, 1924, all existing prohibitions on exports have been abolished and there has been substituted a system of export duties. In consequence the application of these duties is considerably wider than it would be under normal conditions. In Germany, Czechoslovakia, and Austria, the exportation of certain raw materials is prohibited, and the demand for these materials is directed to Poland. Thus, Poland has to protect its own markets from a complete shortage of such articles by means of prohibitive export duties.

This applies primarily to hare and rabbit skins.

The difference in terms of payment in Poland and abroad constitutes another important reason for the imposition of export duties. Owing to the unprecedented shortage of capital, Polish purchasers are unable to compete with foreign exporters, who often pay in advance for the entire crop or stock of a given raw material. Thus, Polish producers are nearly always outbidden by their foreign competitors, who are in a position to offer better prices and better terms of payment. The Government is, therefore, compelled to redress these disadvantages by means of high export duties. These duties are of a provisional character, and must be distinguished from those which are more or less permanent. The latter include duties on scrap iron, slags, raw bones, and metal-containing ash, whereas the former are levied on the exportation of such articles as corn, flour, certain horses of the military type, timber, hides, bran and oil cake. Most of these duties were imposed in consequence of the crop failure of 1924. There is no doubt that, should the harvest prove satisfactory this year, and financial conditions in the country show signs of improvement, most of these duties will be abolished.

The Government has no powers to apply individual exemptions of existing export duties; it can only cancel the duties in respect of a given article. The corresponding legislation on this subject will be found in the "Journal of Laws," Nos. 83,

87, 99, 112 (1924) and Nos. 2, 9 and 15 (1925).

8. Customs Legislation and the Free City of Danzig.

In accordance with the Treaty of Versailles, the Free City of Danzig forms part of the Polish Customs area, and is therefore subject to Polish Customs regulations. No Customs frontier

can be established between the territory of the Free City and

that of the Republic of Poland.

In order to enable the Free City to adapt its economic conditions to Polish Customs requirements, the Polish Government allowed the Free City one year of grace during which reductions and exemptions on certain goods necessary for the economic welfare of the City were granted. After the expiration of this period the territory of Danzig became subject to the Tariff policy of the Polish Government. The interests of the Free City are safeguarded by the presence of Danzig experts on various advisory bodies established in connection with the general administration of Customs.

9. Customs Regulations.

These are contained in the "Customs Tariff" Statute of June 11, 1920 ("Journal of Laws," No. 51, 1920) and in the Order of December 13, 1920, regulating the procedure to be adopted in the imposition and levy of Customs Duties.

The "Regulation of Tariffs" Act of 1924 confirmed all these enactments, which are, therefore, in force at the present

moment.

A detailed statement of Customs procedure does not come within the sphere of the general commercial policy of the country. We will, however, dwell on a particular feature of these regulations which has a special bearing on the subject matter of the present article, viz., the necessity of supplying certificates of origin in respect of imported goods. The regulations on this subject are not contained in the various enactments referred to above, but will be found in the various circulars sent to Polish Consular authorities abroad and to the Customs offices. The importation of goods from foreign countries may be subject to Treaty Concessions only if a certificate of origin of such goods is issued by authoritative foreign institutions, usually Chambers of Commerce, and vise by Polish Consular authorities. Thus, certificates of origin are recognised by Polish Customs authorities only if issued in the manner prescribed above, and provided the goods in question contain at least 50 per cent. of materials originating in the country where the certificate was issued. Thus, an article will be considered to be French if it contains at least 50 per cent. of French raw material, or if at least 50 per cent. of labour employed in its manufacture is French. In order, however, to benefit from the provisions of the Franco-Polish Commercial

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Treaties, it must also be transported direct from France to Poland, or at least sold by a French to a Polish firm. Thus, the transaction must be made directly between subjects of the two States and must relate to an article manufactured in one of them. Agency of another State is permitted only in one case, i.e., when that State is also bound by a Commercial Treaty with Poland and imports the goods in question for the purpose of further manufacture. In such cases, the finished article may be re-exported, either to the country of origin of the raw materials, or to another contracting State, and still enjoy the benefits of Treaty Concessions. On the other hand, should the raw material become treated, to however small an extent, in a State which is not a party to a Commercial Treaty with either of the State of origin or the State to which the goods are ultimately destined—no concessions are allowed.

Such policy is warranted by the fact that certain countries have so far not entered into Commercial Agreements with Poland, and also because a large percentage of Polish foreign trade is transacted with her neighbours, e.g., Germany and

Austria.

Conclusion.

The Tariff Policy of Poland cannot be regarded as a rigid system applicable under all conditions. Having had but a short existence, it is necessarily undeveloped, and is still in a state of flexibility. The general outlines of this policy at the present moment are as follows: Protection of home production and maintenance of low prices in the home markets. As regards goods not manufactured in Poland, the tariff is modified by temporary reductions. The adverse influence of import duties on the volume of exports is corrected by the relief granted in respect of temporary importation of raw or semi-manufactured materials. Lastly, the export duties on agricultural produce and on certain raw materials are intended to relieve the agricultural and industrial crisis.

The tariff policy affords an efficient control of the foreign trade of the country. The active side of the general commercial policy is represented by commercial treaties which constitute an expression and proof of Polish economic expansion.

II.-FOREIGN TRADE.

The difficult economic situation in which Poland found herself during the War and untiring efforts to bring about economic rehabilitation were the main factors in the shaping of Poland's commercial relations with foreign countries.

Immediately after the War, when the country was not able to satisfy the home demand for agricultural produce, corn, flour and foodstuffs were imported into Poland in large quantities. At the same time, none of the Polish industries could export any of their products, since they could only with difficulty meet the home demand.

During that period, Poland adopted a commercial policy tending to regulate its foreign trade under stress of the

economic crisis which followed the War.

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This Tariff policy, adopted in the early stages of Poland's economic development, affected adversely the country's foreign trade relations. It resulted in an artificial limitation of Poland's exporting capacity; it reduced also the capacity of Polish markets for the reception of foreign goods.

The gradual abolition of these prohibitions began in 1922, and the following year may be regarded as the first year in which free trade was introduced in Poland. The exportation of corn was still prohibited, but even this prohibition was

repealed in the latter part of 1924.

A strict comparison of trade relations in 1924 with those of previous years is impossible owing to the Prohibition Policy of the Government, and also to the difficulties experienced in

connection with State organisation prior to 1924.

The character of Polish foreign trade is also influenced by the geographical position of the country. The proximity of Germany, which prior to the War ruled over one part of the present Polish territory, is chiefly responsible for the fact that Germany is at present Poland's largest customer and importer. It can even be said that, since the commencement of Poland's independent existence, Germany has monopolised Polish foreign trade either directly, or as an intermediary.

The considerable decline of Germany's share in Polish foreign trade during the year 1924 is, therefore, a most desirable feature. It is the direct result of Poland's commercial policy which aims at establishing direct trade connections with all foreign countries, and at developing such relations by means of, and in accordance with, the respective commercial treaties. Practically all countries interested in Polish trade

have signed commercial agreements with Poland. Two notable exceptions are Germany and Russia; there are many obstacles of a political nature in the way of concluding commercial treaties with these countries.

Foreign Trade of Poland during 1923-1924 classified according to the international nomenclature of the Brussels Conference.

Value in thousands zlotys.

	1		19:	23.			19.	24.	
_	1	Impor	ts.	Expor	ts.	Impor	rts.	Exports.	
		Zlotys.	% of Total.	Zlotys.	% of Total.	Zlotys.	% of Total.	Zlotys.	% of Total.
Live animals Articles of cor	11-	1,737	0.5	1,521	0.1	7,474	0.2	46,876	3.7
sumption Raw materials an semi - manufac	ıd	157,410	14.1	107,526	9.0	252,184	17 0	292,664	23·I
tured goods Manufactures		441,285 515,996 52	46.2	653,793 432,670 77	36-2	472.860 745,680	50.5	283,555 342,750 2	27·I
Total		1,116,482	100.0	1,195,587	100 0	1,478,631	100.0	1,265,862	100.0

It may be observed from the above, that considerable changes took place in the turnover of foreign trade in 1924 as against 1923. The increase in exports of live animals is welcome. The value of these exports in 1923 represented only o'I per cent. of the total value of exports, while in 1924 the value of exported animals amounted to 3'7 per cent.

On the other hand, the exports of raw materials and semimanufactured goods decreased considerably, i.e., from 54'7

per cent. in 1923 to 46 per cent. in 1924.

The general economic crisis brought about a decrease in the imports of raw materials and semi-manufactured goods. The value of the two classes of imports during 1923 represented 39.5 per cent. of the total value of imports, against 32 per cent. only in 1924. Even more marked is this decline if the comparison is made by weight: during 1923, imports amounted to 2,563,393 tons, while during 1924 imports declined to 1,674,628 tons.

Foreign Trade of Poland.

The following table shows the total turnover of the foreign trade of Poland during 1922-24.

2. Foreign Trade of Poland during 1922 1924 grouped according to International Classification.

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Weight in tons.

				1					 _
1		fa.	% of Total.	1	0.9	9.06	4.6	0.0	100 0
	1924.	Exports.	Tons.	930,240	946,589	93.2 1,674,628 69.3 14,263,067	530,172	4	15,739,829
	49	ts,	% of Total.		16.2	6.69	14 5	0.0	100.0
		Imports.	Tons.	101,242	2.4 388,603 I6.2	1,674,628	350,275 I4 5	13	2,416,508
		ui.	% of Total.	1	7.4		4	0 0	100 0
	4943.	Exports.	Tons.	213,063	425,476	80.2 16,449,959	772,254	69	17,647,758
,	51	ts,	% of Total.	1	1.1	80.2	12.1	0 0	D.001
		Imports.	Tons. 7% of	9,800	246,209	2,562,393	385,558	47	3,194,207
		ts.	o of Total.	1	44	89.4	7 9	0-0	100 0
2	19661	Exports.	Tons,	181,322	387,357	8,172,288	7.2 581,873	78	9,141,597
2	,	.j	% of Total.	1	3.6	87.1	7.2	0.03	100.0
1		Imports	Tons.	4,192	232,819	3,593,467	299,541	94	4,125,922
		1		Live animals	Articles of con-	Rawmaterials and 3,593,467 87 1 8,172,288 89 4 2,562,393	fured goods.	Various	Total 4,125,922 100 0 9,141,597 100 0 3,194,207 100 0 17,647,758 100 0 2,416,508 100 0 15,739,829 100 0

The export of manufactured goods declined considerably during 1923, the value of exported manufactures amounted to 36.2 per cent. of total exports, against 27.1 per cent. in 1924. Imports of manufactured goods increased simultaneously from 46.2 per cent. in 1923 to 50.5 per cent. in 1924.

The development of foreign trade during 1924 and during the first nine months of 1925 is illustrated in the following statement:—

-			Exports.	Imports.	Balance.
			In Thousand Zlotys.	In Thousand Zlotys.	In Thousand Zlotys.
Monthly aver	age in 1922		54,600	70,400	- 15,800
11 1	Y000		99,600	93,000	+ 6,600
23)	7024		105,500	123,200	- 17,600
	1924.				
Ianuary			96,800	80,700	+ 16,100
February			112,600	107,100	+ 5,500
March			113,200	123,400	- 10,200
April			121,400	141,500	- 20,100
May			125,000	148,100	- 23,100
lune			89,500	112,100	- 22,600
July			80,600	96,900	- 16,300
August			63,400	81,300	- 17,000
September			95,700	112,700	- 17,000
October		4.0	109,000	151,000	- 42,000
November			123,000	145,000	- 22,000
December			135,600	178,600	- 43,000
	1925.				
January			107,500	168,900	- 65,100
February			103,000	151,100	- 48,100
March			120,400	190,100	- 69,700
April			89,607	182,734	- 93,127
May			105,898	185,648	- 79,750
Tune			103,619	169,404	- 65,785
July			86,734	173,257	- 86,523
August			104,369	116,285	- 11,016
September (a	pproximate		108,800	72,800	+ 36,000

The surplus of imports over exports shows a steady tendency to increase, particularly since June 1924. The unfavourable balance of trade during 1924 amounted to 234'2 million zlotys, while during 1923 the surplus of exports over imports amounted to 79'2 thousand zlotys. This decline has its cause in the general economic crisis through which Poland is passing, consequent upon the introduction of a stable currency, and upon the balancing of the budget by means of a drastic increase of taxation.

The introduction of a stable currency was accompanied by a rise of the real wholesale and retail prices, which, together

with an unprecedented dearth of credit (24 per cent. per annum was the minimum charged by private banks) and acute lack of working capital, caused a considerable increase of the cost of production.

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The immediate consequence of this state of affairs was a decline in exports of manufactured goods during 1924—in the first instance the textile and metal industries were affected—as compared with 1923, when inflation facilitated the competition of Polish industrial products on the world's markets.

The increase in imports was caused mainly by the failure of the 1924-25 harvest as against the harvest of 1923-24. Thus the imports of flour and other articles of consumption during 1924-25 were several times larger than the imports of these articles in the previous year.

Simultaneously, the export of cereals, which naturally form one of the principal articles of Polish exports, were only insignificant.

3. Direction of Foreign Trade.

The following tables show the individual share (°/o) of foreign countries in the Foreign Trade of Poland during 1922-24:—

Countr	71		IMPORTS.	1-1	Exports.			
Count	у-	1922.	1923.	1924.	1922.	1923.	1924.	
Great Britain		 7.0	8.1	7:5	4 1	5.8	10 5	
Austria		 10.3	8.7	IIO	11.0	9.3	10-1	
Belgium		 4.0	1.4	2 0	0 9	0.7	1.7	
Czechoslovakia		 6.5	4.8	5.8	4.8	4.8	7.9	
Denmark .		 0.5	0.5	1.0	1.7	2 0	1.6	
France		 4.3	3 9	4.0	1.8	2-1	4.2	
Holland		 1.7	1.6	1.7	1-1	1.1	3 1	
Latvia		 0.0	0.2	0.5	1.7	2 0	3.1	
Germany		 37 0	43.6	34.3	49 5	50.6	42.4	
Russia		 0.3	0.4	0 3	3.2	1.0	0 0	
Rumania .		 0.7	0.5	1.4	III	11.4	6.2	
United States		 15 6	15:3	12 4	0.8	0.6	0.6	
switzerland		 1.3	1.1	1.6	0 4	0-8	0.4	
Sweden .		0.3	0.5	0.8	0.2	0.4	1.0	
Hungary		 0-8	0.6	10	2.8	1.6	I G	
Italy		 1.8	2 0	50	0 3	0.6	0.5	
Other countries		8.4	6.8	8.2	4 6	4.3	4 9	

Table showing proportion of imports and exports to and from individual countries during 1922-24 (in zlotys).

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Country.		IMPORTS.	Exports.	Percentage of the Value Exports in Proportion T Imports.		
		(In Thous	and Zlotys.)	1924.	1923.	1922.
Great Britain		110,271	133,035	120.6	77°4 114°5	45 0 84 0
Belgium		29,861	22,190	74 3	52.7	17.4
Czechoslovakia Denmark	• •	84,684	99,551 20,365	117.6	107 I 451:5	263.0
France		72,639	52,869	72.8	57.4	32.5
Holland		24,771	39,673	160.3	75.3	48.6
atvia		6,794	26,271	386-7	1,075 1	2,983 8
Germany		506,269	536,128	231.5	124·I 461·8	233.4
Cussia		4,932	78,610	381 3	2,300.0	2,074 · 2
Inited States		183,949	7,142	3.9	4-0	4.3
witzerland		23,045	5,624	24.4	76-8	24 · I
Sweden		12,344	13,313	107.8	76.3	69.4
lungary		13,970	23,637	169.3	303.1	274 5
taly	• •	74,532	6,679	9 0	31.3	14.8
Other countries	• •	121,812	61,650	50.6	68.3	42.4
Total	-1	1,478,558	1,265,873	85.6	107 · 1	77-5

As will be seen, Germany occupies the dominant position in Poland's foreign trade; during 1924 goods to the value of 536 million zlotys were exported into Germany, which constitutes 42.4 per cent. of the total value of exports.

The imports from Germany represent a considerably smaller percentage of the total imports—34·3 per cent. or 506 million zlotys. Thus the balance of trade with Germany is favourable. It is noteworthy that during 1924, Germany's dominant position in Poland's foreign trade showed a marked decline as compared with the previous year. In 1923 imports from Germany represented 43·6 per cent. of the total value of imports, while in 1924 only 34·3 per cent.; exports in 1923 50·6 per cent., while in 1924 only 42·4 per cent.

A considerable increase of trade with Great Britain could be observed in 1924. Exports to the United Kingdom represented in 1922 4.1 per cent. of the total value of exports; in 1923 the share of England increased to 5.8 per cent., while in 1924 England's share in Polish exports increased to as much as 10.5 per cent. of the total value of exports.

Below is appended a detailed analysis of Polish imports and exports:—

4. Imports.

Foodstuffs.

The importation of these articles in 1924 was necessitated by

the partial crop failure in the year 1924-25.
Wheat flour formed the chief item in the list of imported

Wheat flour formed the chief item in the list of imported foodstuffs. Thus, the imports of flour at various periods were as follows:—

						Tons.		1,000 zlotys.
In 1923	11					49,934	_	15,158
In 1924	9.0					116,268	1000	42,850
1923 import	is in p	ercenta,	ges of	the 1924	ones	400	 232.8	-
In January-	-April	, 1924			20	14,386	1000	5,364
In January	-April	, 1925	* * 1			99,002	_	48,987

The striking feature of this table is the 700 per cent. increase of imports during January-April, 1925, as compared with the corresponding period of the preceding year; it is expected that still further imports of wheat flour will be necessary during the first half of the current year. The prospects for the year 1925–26 are, however, very favourable, and it is hoped that the exports of grain will increase considerably, whilst the importation of flour will be reduced to a minimum.

The imports of eatable fats are represented by the following figures:—

		1923.	3. 1924.			
		Tons.	Tons.	1,000 zlotys.		
Lard Suet and eatable tallow	2 10	116	4,699 15,155	7,800 23,476		
Margarine, etc Animal fats		14,775	965	1,182		
Total		14,775	20,819	32,658		

The importation of fats was balanced by the exports of pigs; 410,347 heads were exported for 30,694,000 zlotys.

On the other hand, the imports of fish have declined as compared with 1923. The imports in that year amounted to 74,107 tons, whereas in 1924 only 60,943 tons were imported into Poland.

Raw Materials.

A decrease in imports was also observed here; this was due to the prolonged crisis experienced in most industries.

The chief raw materials used in industry were imported in the following quantities during the years 1923 and 1924, respectively:—

	1923.				
	Tons.	Tons.	1,000 zlotys		
Cotton	57,568	42,847	152,554		
Cotton varn	2,101	2,461	12,484		
Wool (including waste and combed					
wool)	20,843	18,004	123,073		
Woollen varn	1,790	971	17,486		
Iron ores	668,475	259,197	4,138		
Raw iron	93,867	19,622	5,342		
Scrap iron, etc.	299,722	152,157	7,003		
Zinc ores	72,396	48,921	4,742		
Animal greases	10,073	11,278	10,450		
Rags and waste paper	23,581	10,929	2,056		
Tobacco	11,913	13,458	27,906		

The decrease in the importation of raw materials employed in the textile industry is strictly connected with the decline in the exports of textile manufactures which took place in 1924. The expected recovery of the Polish textile industry will, no doubt, result in increased production, and consequently in increased imports of raw materials. The United States supply the bulk of cotton, and exported in 1924 27,583 tons to the value of 98,185,000 zlotys.

Cloth and Fabrics.

The extent of the imports of these articles is illustrated by the following figures:—

			1923.		1924.
			Tons.	Tons.	1,000 zlotys
Woollen cloth	 	1	 436 3,065	935	22,742
Cotton cloth	 0.0	0.0	 3,065	4.941	61,327
Silk fabrics	 		 IOI	172	25,435

The considerable advance in the importation of these articles is explained by the extremely unfavourable conditions of production prevailing in Poland as compared with foreign countries. Harsh credit terms and the shortage of capital in Poland enable foreign manufacturers to compete successfully even in Polish markets. Foreign firms were in a position to grant terms of credit-payment with which Polish manufacturers could not possibly compete. The reduction of Customs duties in order to combat high prices has also caused an increased importation.

Hides, Leather and Footwear.

The following figures represent the imports of these articles:—

	-	1923.	1	924.	
		T	Tons.	Tons.	1,000 zlotys.
Hides (raw)		 	7,487	13,988	18,621
Purs ,,		 	963	957	2,716
hides (dressed)		 	9,164	7,481	55,127
Fannings		 	10,007	15,197	5,696
Leather footwear		 	1,055	1,263	35,005

The increase of the imports of raw hides and the corresponding decrease in the importation of leather is a desirable feature of Polish foreign trade.

The importation of ready-made footwear to the value of 35,005,000 zlotys, and a similar increase in the imports of linen and wearing apparel, was due to the reduction of Customs duties. It has, in consequence, caused a severe crisis in the boot-making industry in Poland, which is now less able to compete with foreign manufacturers.

Metals and Metal Goods.

Raw metals and metal manufactures form an important item of Polish foreign trade:—

					1924.		
_	_			Імрог	RTS.	Percentage of	
				1,000 zlotys.	Tons.	all Imports.	
Ores, metals and m	etal wa	re	44	116,751	586,323	1 7.9	
Machinery and apparatus				93,983	49,562	6.4	
Electric installation	n, app	aratus	and				
instruments				22,277	10,128	1.5	
Rolling Stock				38,785	33,305	2.6	
Watches, etc				2,598	153	0.3	
Precious metals				2,902	-	0.2	
Total				277,296		18.8	

The importation of machinery and technical apparatus to the value of 93,983,000 zlotys shows a considerable increase over the preceding year. This must, under the circumstances, be regarded as a desirable feature. The exports of machinery

were negligible.

Machinery not manufactured in Poland enjoys a reduction of, or even exemption from, import duties; this privilege is subject, however, to the decision of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. The corresponding figures show that in 1924 certificates entitling to these reductions were issued in respect of 17,200 tons of machinery not manufactured in Poland. In the preceding year similar certificates were issued in respect of 12,000 tons. The total of 17,200 tons of machinery imported in 1924 is composed of the following items:—

Motors, especially					les	 	18.3 per	cent.
Modelling machine	s for met	als of	all kin	ds		 	16.7	10
Mining machinery	and appa	aratus				 	12'3	160
Paper making mad	hines		4.	434		 	9.6	32
Baking, etc.,	21					 	6.1	33
Weaving	99			44		 	6-1	17
Printing	19			4.6	1.4	 	4-8	9.3
Chemical apparati	15					 	2.5	100
Machinery for the	manufac	ture of	leath	er		 	1.7	21.
21	mineral i	ndustr	У	444	4.1	 	I.I	27
Agricultural mach	inery	40	-14	++		 	0.8	24

The comparatively great demand for machinery and installation, not manufactured in Poland, shows that technical improvement of Polish industrial undertakings is being carried

on in spite of the economic crisis.

In view of the necessity of equipping Polish industrial establishments in accordance with the technical standard of highly industrialised countries in the West of Europe, it is improbable that the importation of machinery and plant will show any decrease during the current year.

The turnover of chemicals in 1924 is represented by the following figures, compiled by the Central Bureau of

Statistics :-

	Imports in 1,000 Zlotys.	Percentage of all Imports.	Exports in 1,000 Zlotys.	Percentage of all Exports.
Chemicals (inorganic)	 26,990	i-8	10,948	0-9
,, (organic)	 49,390	3 3	7,404	0.6
Dyes, paint, varnish	 8,010	0.5	4,762	0.4
Miscellaneous	 12,158	o-8	2,855	0.3
Total	 96,458	6 4	25,969	2-3

The trade in chemicals, similarly to that in metal manufactures, shows a clear deficit. The exports of these articles

in 1924 formed but 26.8 per cent. of the imports during the same period.

It is noteworthy that the chemical industry in Poland has made excellent progress during the last few years. This makes Poland partially independent of foreign markets, and especially of Germany.

5. Exports.

Coal.

Coal is the chief item of Polish exports; the value of coal exports in 1924 amounted to 20'4 per cent. of all exports in that year. The following countries were the chief purchasers of Polish coal in 1923 and 1924, respectively:—

		19:	23.	1924.		
		1,000 Tons.	Percentage of Total.	1,000 Tons.	Percentage of Total.	
Germany Austria Czechoslovakia Hungary	1	8,043 2,790 742	64·0 22·0 5 9	6,775 2,845 545	58·9 24·8 4·8	
F.C. of Danzig Rumania Switzerland		375 240 121 154	3 0 1 0 1 0	664 337 136 62	5·8 2·9 1·2 0·5	
Jugoslavia Latvia Denmark Italy		3 18 6	0.14	64 14 9	0.6	
Sweden . Bulgaria .		25	0.5	13 0.4 1.4		
Total		12,560	100	11,465.8	100	

The decline in the total exportation of coal in 1924 by II per cent. as compared with the preceding year was due primarily to the stringent conditions prevailing in the world coal markets during that year.

Germany alone, being the chief purchaser of Polish coal, has reduced the imports of coal by 50 per cent., at the same time increasing her exports by 300 per cent., as compared with the preceding year 1923. In consequence, the decrease of 16 per cent. in the exports of Polish coal cannot be justified solely by the decrease of competitive ability of Polish coal producers.

Further exploitation of existing markets and the finding of new ones is becoming the signal task of the Polish Coal Industry.

Sugar.

The next article of exports, as regards importance, is sugar, which in 1924 amounted to 163,056 thousand zlotys, i.e., 12.9 per cent. of the value of all exports.

Compared with 1923, the increase of sugar exports in 1924 rose to 158.9 per cent., only 95.139 tons having been exported in the former year. This advance diminished considerably

the deficit of Poland's trade balance.

Several circumstances hindered the development of Polish sugar exports in 1924. In the first place, the exportation of sugar from Germany increased from 21,480 tons in 1923 to 413,593 tons in the year following; German (and Czechoslovakian) sugar, being transported by waterways, can compete successfully with the Polish product. Further, the abnormally high bank rate, the cost of railway transport, and the comparatively high cost of production, hinder the development of sugar exports.

Important changes as regards the destination of Polish sugar exports took place in 1924. Thus, the export of sugar to Great Britain in 1923 formed but 15.2 per cent. of the total exports, whereas in 1924 this figure advanced to 38.9 per cent. The quantities of sugar exported to the chief importers in

1923 and 1924 respectively were as follows:-

			19	23.	1924.		
-	_		Tons.	Percentage of Total.	Tons.	Percentage of Total.	
Denmark ,		0 0	 14,499 17,611 21,402 10,214	15·2 18·5 22·5 10·7	95,790 48,662 3,507 7,668	38·9	

Raw Timber and Manufactures of Wood.

The exportation of timber and manufactures of wood in 1924 was carried on under considerably less favourable conditions than in 1923, when the low rate of Polish exchange enabled Polish exporters to compete successfully with foreign merchants. The introduction of a stable currency and the increase in freight charges resulted in a sudden decline of exports, especially as regards raw timber. In the last quarter of 1924 conditions improved somewhat, but the exceptionally

mild winter rendered the transportation of timber from the forests to the railway stations very difficult. At the same time the influx of Russian timber further impeded successful

competition.

All these unfavourable circumstances affected adversely the exports of raw timber, which in 1924 have declined by 54 per cent. as compared with the preceding year. On the other hand, the exportation of semi-products and manufactures of wood advanced considerably. This satisfactory feature proves that, in spite of keen competition,; Polish manufacturers were able not only to retain their old markets, but also to secure new outlets for their wares. The total exports of timber and articles of wood amounted to 2,007,531 tons, valued at 137,106,000 zlotys, forming, therefore, 10 per cent. of the total value of all exports.

The exportation of furniture and basket articles has a great future, although the exports of these articles in 1924 declined by 22 per cent. This drop was due mostly to the high cost of production as compared with other wood-exporting countries. It must also be noted that the expansion of the furnishing trade requires financial aid in the shape of export credits; under the present financial conditions, this is practically impossible. Considerable quantities of Polish furniture reached

the United States, the Argentine, and Italy.

In addition, 202 tons of basket manufactures were exported valued at 401,000 zlotys.

Petroleum Products.

The exports of petroleum products are of great importance to the Polish oil industry; the value of these in 1924 amounted to 35,900 thousand zlotys.

The quantities of oil products exported from Poland to

various countries were as follows :-

Total exports		 	 Tons. 315,700	1924. Tons. 409,510
To:			1923. Tons.	1924. Tons.
Czechoslovaki	a	 	 102,060	123,450
Germany		 	 81,140	123,450
Austria		 	 51,300	51,070
Danzig		 	 38,610	49,730
Switzerland		 	 13,770	26,450
Hungary		 	 18,190	17,060
Great Britain		 	 700	5,330
Rumania		 	 1,900	1,700
Russia		 • •	 590	1,570

Textile Goods.

Prior to the War a greater part of the output of the Polish textile industry was exported, especially to Russia and the Balkans.

At present, exports are destined for Rumania and the Balkans, and for the Baltic States. A considerable decline in the exportation of finished products took place in 1924. Thus the following quantities were exported in 1923 and 1924, respectively:—

	1923.	1924.		
-	Tons.	Tons.	1,000 zlotys.	
Woollen fabrics	2,040 11,758	677 5,259	18,591 60,107	

These figures are composed of the following items:-

	C	OTTON F.	ABRICS.	Woollen Fabrics.			
	1923.	1923. 1924.			1923. 1924.		
	Tons.	Tons.	1,000 Zlotys.	Tons.	Tons.	z,ogo Zlotys	
Rumania	. 8,235	3,918	43,584	1,045	95	2,833	
Austria Latvia	6	335	3,544	122	77 35	2,491	
Germany		266	3,071	196	198	1,978	
Lithuania	770	196	2,296	20	49	1,210	
Hungary :	. 60	-		112	61	1,298	
Finland	. 7I	9	119	_	_	_	
Russia	. 97	22	250	74	20	453	
Czechoslovakia .		-	The state of the s	14	64	644	

The main reason for such a sudden decline in the exports of textile articles from Poland was the extremely keen competition of other manufacturing countries. Most of Poland's competitors can avail themselves of water transport, which is, of course, lower than transport by rail. Competition is also impeded by the dearth of labour in Poland. But the chief obstacle is to be found in the shortage of capital and the enormously high Bank Rate. This circumstance has an

almost paralysing influence on the textile industry of the country. The Polish exporter is unable to grant credits to his foreign customer; business transactions are, therefore, practically impossible.

Iron and Steel Manufactures.

A considerable decline took place in the exports of these articles during 1924. This was due mainly to the unfavourable conditions in Germany, to which country practically all exports of iron and steel manufacture went.

The following quantities were exported during 1923 and 1924 respectively:—

Substance _ and -	То	us.	Percentage of Production.		
	1923.	1924.	1923.	1924.	
Rolled iron and steel manufactures Raw zinc Lead and lead manufactures	320,021 60,543 16,109	105,625 50,307 9,476	41-4 88-0 104-0	22·2 79·5 58·1	

The chief importers of Polish iron and steel manufactures remained the same in 1924 as in the preceding year. Exports were sent mainly to Germany. Thus—

			1924.				
			Total Exports.	Exports to Germany.			
			Tons.	Tons.			
Iron ingots and rails			40,551	39,976			
Other iron manufactures			19,615	18,330			
Iron and steel plate		4.0	25,234	20,994			
Zinc and zinc dust	4		54,907	36,067			
Lead and lead dust			10,519	8,428			

Agricultural Produce.

The exportation of corn and farming produce has so far not played that important part in the Polish Trade Balance to which it is entitled from the predominantly agricultural character of the country. This is due to a series of circumstances, which are dealt with in another article, but primarily to the damages inflicted by the War lasting in Poland from 1914 to 1921.

As soon as the country reaches its pre-War standard of agricultural production, it will be in a position to export the following quantities of corn and farming produce:—

	barley	100.00	***				about	1,000,000	tons.
Eggs	 ***	0.40		4+4	9.00	***	33	70,000	31
Sugar	 		0.011	0-0.0	4.0	- 0.0	2.0	310,000	14
Pigs	 							1,500,000	4.0

The restrictions on corn exports were not abolished until 1924.

In spite of the crop failure in 1923 and 1924, the exports of main articles of agricultural produce were as follows:—

			1923.		1924.		
	-				Tons.	Tons.	In 1,000 zlotys
Rve					83	106,456	16,511
Barley	4				20,001	127,601	21,388
Buckwheat		***	444	***	_	19,167	3,437
Beans		***	***	***	_	28,347	10,391
Peas				440	_	18,465	5,060
Potatoes		***		444	165,143	271,605	11,242
Flax	***			444	5.354	13,479	9,129
Seeds				ala.	11,449	65,141	26,704
Eggs				444	8,849	10,420	16,177
Cattle			I	leads	569	39,287	10,433
Pigs			***	400	1,623	410,347	30,694
Geese	***	***	I	leads	_	453,924	5,130
Potato prod	ucts			0.01	-	43,552	10,900

The advance in the exports of rye and barley is tremendous, this being due to the abolition of restrictions which were in force during the year 1923. Had it not been for the exceptionally bad harvest in 1924, the export figures would, undoubtedly, have shown a still greater increase. Furthermore, the exportation of rye had an adverse influence on the trade balance, since the greater part was exported during a period of low prices, and flour purchased now in order to meet the needs of the country must be paid for at considerably higher rates.

It must be noted that many articles have been exported in 1924 for the first time; this has considerably reduced the trade deficit of 1924.

The exportation of agricultural produce which has increased so largely in 1924 must be developed still further in order to

achieve a satisfactory trade balance at the end of the year. This will, however, depend largely on atmospheric conditions, which play a deciding part in corn production and exports.

The chief market for Polish agricultural produce is found in Germany; cattle is exported mostly to Czechoslovakia and

Austria.

Rye and barley were exported in 1924 to the following countries:—

						Rye. Tons.	Barley. Tons.
Germany		***	***	0	***	23,698	42,506
Sweden	***		***	-	***	14,167	11,660
Denmark	***	***	***		***	19,241	10,763
Austria	***	***	***	***	***	11,268	4,783
Holland	***	***		***	***	10,703	9,905
Belgium		***		Ha n	***	7,215	12,053
Finland	***					5,523	

It is to be noted that the Baltic States formed markets for Polish corn even before the War, and the recapture of these markets is an important task for Polish growers.

The export of cattle went almost exclusively to Czechoslovakia and Austria. Out of the total of 39,287 heads of cattle exported in 1924, 37,045 were sent to Czechoslovakia.

The total number of pigs exported was 410,347, of which 141,259 were sent to Czechoslovakia and 268,291 to Austria.

6. Imports from all Countries during 1924.

Part.	Groups.	Thousand Quintals.	Thousand Zlotys.	Per cent.
I.	Textile materials and manufactures	878	450,976	30.5
II.	Foodstuffs and horned cattle	4,055		
	Plus head	10,493	288,880	19.5
III.	Ores, metals and manufactures thereof,			
	machinery, implements, railway	6,793	274,698	18-6
737	and transport material		150,872	10.3
	Animal products	290	150,072	20 2
٧.	Chemical materials and products (all		96,548	6.4
	kinds)	3,269	82 053	5.5
	Apparel and fancy goods	32	02 053	2.3
VII.	Instruments of precision for measur-			7.17
	ing, etc.	12	19,976	1.1
	Paper and paper goods	328	16,429	
	Building material and ceramic ware	3,169	15,518	I.I
X.	Various	5,309	82,598	5.8
	Total	34,628	1,478,548	100

PART I.

	10.	Total Imports in 1924.		
No.	Article.	Thousand Quintals.	Thousand Zlotys.	
I	Cotton and waste	428.5	152,553	
2	Wool and waste	182	123,825	
3	Linen, percale and other cotton texture	46	50,322	
	Silk and half silk textures, velvet, plush, etc.	2	25,583	
5 6	Woollen yarn	9.7	17,590	
6	Woollen materials	4.5	15,112	
7 8	Cotton yarn	17 6	12,485	
8	Jute and waste	139	9,395	
9	Velvet, plush and ribbons, cotton plush	1.8	7,924	
10	Half silk materials	0.64	4,857	
II	Woollen carpets	2 · I	4,283	
12	Mercerised wool	0.74	4,249	
13	Artificial silk	1.8	3,238	

PART II.

Wheaten flour	 			1,163	42,80
Tobacco and manufac	s thereof			135	29,59
Edible suet, fat, lard	 9.0	1 -	4.	162	23,47
Pickled herrings	 		44	457	22,18
Rice	 40			385	16,9
Coffee	 4.4		+44	61	15,13
Oranges and lemons				308	13,7
Cocoa			90	58	8,1
Edible vegetable fats	 			48	8,0

PART II .- continued.

				Total Impo	orts in 1924.
No.	Article.	Thousand Quintals.	Thousand Zlotys.		
10	Dried plums, apples and pears			126	7,865
11	Lard			50	7,800
12	Nuts, pistaccio and chestnuts			99	7,633
13	Tea			14.5	7,124
14	Spices			21	5,834
15	Grapes and other southern fruit		9.0	56	5,617
16	Fresh-water fish			33	5,066
17	Sea fish and preserved fish			24	3,649
18	Wine			21	3,600
19	Raisins and currants			32	3,462
20	Fresh apples and grapes .			37	3,001
21	Hops			3.5	2,939
22	Condensed milk and dried milk			20.3	2,648
23	Butter and cheese		1.0	10.6	2,645
24	Other kinds of meal			73	2,605
25	Figs and dates			28	2,297
26	Almonds			10.4	1,934
27	Fresh vegetables			86	1,624
28	Smoked and pickled fish, eels, etc.	-		8 9	1,537
29	Groats			37.3	1,495
30	Condiments			6.3	1,212
31	Fresh sea fish	. +		15.4	1,347
32	Margarine and other edible fats			9.7	1,182
33	Arrac, rum, cognac, liqueurs			3.6	1,148
34	Horned cattle		Head	10,493	3,530

PART III.

1	Various machinery and implements	90	17,546
2	Textile machinery	47	15,252
3	Locomotives	108	
	12		14,731
4		27.6	14,020
4 5 6	Goods trucks, turntables, etc.	272	12,638
	Wire, wire goods and nails	68	11,104
7 8	Pipes and pipe joints	123	8,908
	Agricultural machinery and implements	48	8,899
9	Tractors	45	7,891
IO	Ironware	1.523	7,084
II	Conductors and cables	45	6,975
12	Machine tools	29	6,gor
13	Accumulators, transformers and calculators	19	6,683
14	Manufactures of copper, bronze and other		
	bronze alloys	20-5	6,577
15	Electric machinery	19 4	6,360
16	Tinware	36	6,318
17	Iron and steel ware not specifically mentioned	41	6,071
18	Plumber's ware	21	5,954
19	Mechanics' tools	15.4	5,882
20	Pig iron.	196	5,343
21	Saucepans, apparatus for heating and their	290	21343
		46	5,060
22	Copper upre	18-1	
24	Copper ware	10,1	4,769

PART III .- continued.

	1 10 -	Total Imports in 1924.		
No.	Article.	Thousand Quintals.	Thousand Zlotys.	
23	Zinc ore	499	4,742	
24	Iron ore	2.592	4,140	
25	Cutlery	4.8	4,088	
26	Sheet iron and steel	85	4,085	
27 28	Telephone and telegraph apparatus Installation appliances, with the exception	4.9	3,738	
20	of conductors Machinery and apparatus for the machinery	32	3,566	
29		18-6	3,192	
30	of food stuffs	5·I	3,078	
3I		_ ^ ^	2,900	
32	Gilt, silver, and platinum Rails (for railways)	64	2,849	
33	Pumps	12.4	2,820	
34	Pumps	42	2,608	
35	Lead ore	146	2,363	
36	Bicycle parts	514	2,270	
37	Sheet, block and ingot tin	4.2	2,110	
38	Copper, cement, electrolite ware, iron and			
	steel	12.7	2,018	
39	Paper-making machinery	9.5	1,879	
40	Aluminium ware	3 1	1,825	
4 I	Coppersmith's ware	24	1,764	
42	Motor parts	3.2	1,717	
43	Motor cycles and box cycles	57	1,589	
44	Merchant, bar-iron Transmitters	8.1	1,479	
46	Railway cross-bars and switches	10.2	1,403	
47	Scythes, sickles, shovels, knives for chaff-			
. 0	cutting Electric bulbs Forged and rolled goods Universal iron	7 7	1,392	
48	Electric bulbs	18:5	1,315	
49	Forged and rolled goods	39.5	1,152	
50 51	Universal iron	39.5	1,030	
52	Commercial motors	3.8	1,147	
53	Machinery and implements for the timber	3 ~	-1-47	
53	industry	7 0	1,073	
	PART IV.			
ı	Boots and shoes	14 - 2	36,980	
2	Hard sole leather	65	28,566	
3	Raw bides	140	18,626	
4	Ordinary skins	2.6	15,071	
5	Soft, ordinary leather uppers	11.6	14,503	
6	Patent leather, chamois leather, fancy goods	2.2	8,660	
7 8	Kid, chamois, etc.	2.4	6,903	
	Common skins	3.7	4,209	
9	Undressed skins	9 6	2,716	
		0.1	2,686	
II			2,217	
12	Calves' stomachs and offals	17.6	2	

PART V.

		Total Impo	rts in 1924.
No.	Article.	Thousand Quintals.	Thousand Zlotys.
I	Technical vegetable oils	135	14,371
2	Chilian saltpetre Technical animal fat	460	12,261
3	Technical animal fat	88	8,104
4	Various organic raw materials	158	5,914
5	Explosives Synthetic dyes Soap Cosmetics, perfumes	14.9	4,184
6	Synthetic dyes	4.5	4,137
7	Soap	28	3,214
8	Cosmetics, perfumes	2.3	3,092
9	Acids and other organic compounds as partly		
	manufactured goods	20.6	2,922
10	Coal pitch and tar	271	2,628
II	Phosphorites	868	2,554
12	Gum, gum-resin	23.2	2,491
13	Synthetic medicaments, pharmaceutical	,	
	preparations	6.9	2,277
14	Various chemical products not specifically		
15	mentioned	9.5	2,149
16	Rosin and gallipot	339	2,109
17	Inorganic chemical products not specifically	54	1,994
1/	mentioned	10	1,970
18	Thomas slag	374	1,935
10	Nitrate of ammonia	28.4	1,774
22	Thomas slag Nitrate of ammonia Tanning grease, oleine Alkaloids and their salts	14.6	1,494
21	Alkaloids and their salts	0.13	1,301
22	Inorganic paints	9.1	1,115
23	Other mixed paints	4.6	1,246
24	Other mixed paints	32·I	982
25	Celluloid	I.I	852
26	Varnish, polish and lacquer	4.6	793
	PART VI,		
1	Come hate ate		1
2	Caps, hats, etc. Cotton goods	2·1 5·7	12,936
3	Woollen goods	2.3	7,757
4	Cotton underclothing	2.6	7,051
5	Woollen apparel	1.6	8,372
6	Toilet ware and fancy goods, not otherwise		-13/1
	mentioned	4.2	6,814
7	Cotton clothing	1.7	4,298
8	Serviettes, curtains, ribbons, etc	1.7	3.763
9	Rubber clothing	1.1	2,795
10	Buttons and clasps	2 · 2	2,683
11	Silk and half-silk clothing	0-13	2,676
12	Tovs	2.9	1,852
	C:11 41-17 -21-	0 15	1,790
13	Silk and half-silk woven goods	0 13	1,790
13 14 15	Silk and half-silk woven goods Neckties Fur coats	0.11	1,453

PART VII.

		Total Impor	ts in 1924.
No.	Article.	Thousand Quintals.	Thousand Zlotys.
I	Typewriters	1.6	4,334
2	Typewriters	0 4	2,247
3	Measuring apparatus and appliances	1.6	2,243
4	Optical appliances	0.4	2,087
5	Writing materials and requisites	2.9	1,927
6	Surgical, chirurgical, dental and orthopædic		
	instruments	0.8	1,692
7	Photographic films and plates	1.5	1,502
	PART VIII.	1	71 1
I	Printing paper (for books)	44.5	2,828
2	Pasteboard	57-5	2,250
3	Rags and scraps	69	1,374
4	Printing paper (newspaper)	35	1,292
5	Cardboard, etc.	5.9	1,268
6	Sulphite cellulose	44	1,226
	PART IX.		
	Bricks, flagstones, moulds	***	
I		530	4,440
3	Clay, loam, etc.	15.9	2,941
4	Worked-up stone	475	1,024
5	Delf ware	7-7	785
,	2011 4440		703
	Part X.		
I	Books, music, pamphlets, pictures	13.0	11,050
2	Coke	1.639	6,577
3		9.5	5,874
4	Gum and guttapercha goods	5.3	4,850
5	Coal	1.217	4,026
6	Coal	3.1	3,980
7	Various currents miles constant indirects	.0.0	10000
8	manufactures	18.7	3,034
	Gum elastic goods, not otherwise mentioned	7.5	2,909 2,869
9	Watchmakers' goods	1.2	2,598
10	Basket-making materials, bristles	30	2,557
12	Glass utensils	22	2,234
13		8-4	2,021
14	Wegetable and garden seeds		. 1,768
	Briquettes		1,501
15	Briquettes	77.7	TYTE
15 16		W - 1 - 1	7 767
	Polishing and grinding materials	14 4 1	
16	Polishing and grinding materials	5.7	1,135
16	Polishing and grinding materials	14 4 5 · 7 3 · 8	1,135 1,052 1,030

7. Exports into all Countries during 1924.

			Thousand Quintals.	Thousand Zlotys.	Per cent.
1.	Foodstuffs and meat		10,368		-
			thousand head	349,943	27 6
II.	Coal, oil, asphalt and their by-produ	icts	118,217	42,706	27· I
Ш.	Textile materials and manufactures		315	168,442	13 3
IV.	Ores, metals and metal goods	7.0	3,087	157,978	12.5
VI.	Wood manufactures All kinds of seed, osier and ot	 her	20,075	137,106	10.8
	vegetable materials		735	29,491	2.3
VII.	Chemical materials		3,269	25,979	2·I
IX.	Animal products Clothing, confectionery and fand	cv	72	22,944	1.8
2.5	goods		419	11,359	0.8
Х.	Various		1,256	19,925	1.7
	Total	٠.	157,398	965,873	100

PART I.

					Total Expo	rts in 1924.
No.	Articl	Thousand Quintals.	Thousand Zlotys.			
1	Sugar crystals				830	54,606
2	Refined sugar				590	53,008
3	Raw sugar	**			855	41,996
	Total				2,463	163,610
5	Pigs			Head	410,347	30,694
6	Barley				1,277	21,388
7	Rye				1,065	16,511
8	Eggs				104	16,177
9	Fresh, chilled and pickle	ed meat			78	13,188
10	Potators				2,716	11,242
11	Horned cattle			Head	39,287	10,433
12	French beans				283	10,391
13	Potato flour and starch				157	5,405
14	Potato flakes and dried	potato			270	5,117
15					185	5,060
16	Geese				450,619	5,130
17	Industrial residue as foo	ider for a	nima	ls	641	4,652
18	Malt				109	3,895
19	Buckwheat	2.0			192	3,437
20	Hops				2.8	3,379
21	Sait				222	2,543
22	Alcohol			* *	35	2,354
23	Bran	* *			215	1,584
24	Mushrooms		4.0		3.2	1,308

PART II.

						Total Exp	orts in 1924.
No.	Art				Thousand Quintals.	Thousand Zlotys.	
r l	Coal					111,730	257,307
2	Motor spirit				-	748	22,171
3	Lubricating oils		0.0	0.4		971	16,792
	Paraffin		-	4.4		259	15,278
5 6	Naphtha .		0.4			964	11,742
6	Fuel oil		44	11.06.4		859	9,098
7	Coke and briquettes					2,431	7,565

PART III.

Linen, percale and o	other co	tton	0.1		52.4	58,905
Woollen yarn	16.				26.6	47,187
Woollen texture			- 9	0.0	6 0	16,988
Wool and waste					29	15,240
Flax and waste					135	9,120
Cotton yarn					9.3	6,274
Artificial silk			9.0		1.1	2,250
Hemp and waste					29 5	1,584
Cotton and waste					7:3	1,450
Velvet, plush and o	otton ri	bbous			0.5	1,52
Texture and bags			n comi	bings	8.3	1,15

PART IV.

,	Zinc. smelt and zinc dust	549	42,272
2	Zinc manufactures	236	22,234
2	Pipes and joints	206	14,968
3	Merchant, bar and block iron	406	10,853
5	Sheet iron and steel	252	9,275
5 6	Lead : bar, block, waste and dust	105	7,576
	Spare parts and tools	35.4	7,041
7 8	Small-sized iron and coopers' ironware	196	6,353
9	Black and puddled goods	154	4,433
10	Iron and steel ware not specifically mentioned	42	4,380
II	Various machines and apparatus	13.5	3,230
12	Zinc ore.	565	2,765
13	Railway rails	47	1,909
14	Forged and rolled iron and steel ware	19 4	1,842
15	Cast-iron ware	23	1,287
16	Wire, wire goods and nails	6.4	1,202
17	Goods manufactured from lead	13.7	1,207

PART V.

		Total Exports in 1924.		
No.	Article.	Thousand Quintals.	Thousand Zlotys.	
1	Beams, deals and lathes	11,429	79,645	
2	Railway sleepers	2,067	10,955	
3	Blocks and logs	1,881	10,105	
4	Coopers' wood	445	8,355	
5	Railway sleepers Blocks and logs Coopers' wood . Furniture Wood pulp	41 2,297	5,925 5,905	
7 8	Glued veneers and manufactures thereof	71	5,766	
8	Poles and round logs	941	2,913	
9	Pit wood Turnery and cabinetmakers' goods (not	726	1,973	
10	Turnery and cabinetmakers' goods (not			
11	specifically mentioned)	24	1,903	
12	Unglued parquets and veneers	6 3	1,181	
	Designation as a state of the s	0 3	1,091	
5 6 7 8	Vetch and other seeds Flax seed Serradilla seed Okier Lupin seed	67 140 77 80	2,866 2,543 2,060 1,037	
	PART VII.	1		
2	Inorganic colours	36	3,517	
3	Calcium and soda crystals	155 375	2,614	
4		59	2,068	
5	Matches	18	1,318	
6	Turpentine	14	1,314	
	Sulphate of ammonia	45	1,120	
7	Cyanide	54	1,079	
7 8		130	1,031	
9	Superphosphates	7 + 5		
	Synthetic dyes	1.2		
9	Synthetic dyes	86	871	
9	Acids and other organic compounds as partly	86 53		
9 10 11 12 13	Acids and other organic compounds as partly manufactured goods	86	871	
9 10 11	Acids and other organic compounds as partly manufactured goods Various inorganic chemical products (not	86 53 4 I	871 833 718	
9 10 11 12 13	Acids and other organic compounds as partly manufactured goods Various inorganic chemical products (not specifically mentioned)	86 53 4 I 27	871 833 718 705	
9 10 11 12 13	Acids and other organic compounds as partly manufactured goods Various inorganic chemical products (not	86 53 4 I	871 833 718	

PART VIII.

				Total Expo	rts in 1924.
No.	Article.			Thousand Quintals.	Thousand Ziotys.
1	Feathers and down	 		18	8,912
2	Raw hides	 		27	3,600
3	Dressed skins (ordinary)	 		1	3,122
4	Hog bristles	 		4.7	1,434
5	Wool and horsehair	 		5.3	1,243
6	Undressed skins	 		3.2	1,208
7	Calves' stomachs and offal	 		4	761

PART IX.

Serviettes, towels, blanke	is, curio	11125 171	 2.7	4,867
Fancy goods			 0.6	1,903
Woven goods			 0.7	1,836
All kinds of apparel			 0 5	1,831
All kinds of underclothing			 0.3	670

PART X.

-				
1	Sulphite cellulose		145	4,459
2	Books, pamphlets, prints and pictures		3.7	3,001
3	Glassware		23-3	2,088
4	Instruments of precision, measuring	appli-		
	ances, etc		0.6	1,903
5	Paper goods		29	1,875
6	Portland cement		403	1,351
7	Bricks, flagstones and moulds		804	918
8	Arms and ammunition		1-1	676
9	Rags and scraps		33	640
10	Other scraps		98	555
II	Baked dolomite		128	507
12	Unbaked dolomite		1,078	338

8. Imports into Poland of various classes of Goods (in quintals) and the Share (percentage) of Great Britain and Germany therein.

	То	tal in Quin	tale	Percentage of Share of Exports into							
Description.	10	tai iii Quiii	tais.		Great Iritain		Germany.				
	1922	1923	1924	1922	1923	1924	1922	1923	192		
Rice	830,302	161,732	384,886	4	17	II	16	27			
Spices	32,318	21,405	27,092	8	16	15	21	35	32		
Tea	20,001	24,100	14,521	24	36	47	6	II	18		
Cocoa	38,431	43,560	58,360	II	13	8	II	20	28		
Coffee Fish (including berr-	53,607	56,562	60,768	5	6	6	11	19	16		
ings)	582,653	741,072	545,113	26	65	40	16	14	37		
Edible fats	103,779	147,750	208,186	16	19	5	30	32	33		
Raw hides	27,180	74,870	139,876	20	8	10	16	16	18		
Undressed pelts	8,141	9,630	9,550	12	4	15	13	16	16		
Tanning materials	110,229	100,070	158,464	32	14	17	12	22	26		
Leather boots	8,725	10,553	14,160	I	2	-	44	48	52		
Hemp		11,740	10,963		13	4		26	31		
Jute Cotton	90,467	118,997	139,083	4	3	II	10	27	19		
waste	651,881	575,683	428,473	2	2	_	6	3	1 5		
Cotton yarn	14,063	21,011	17,577	1 —	18	23	14	20	26		
Cotton textures	18,480	30,649	56,872	13	9	9	28	48	26		
Wool and woollen waste	285,826	208,430	181,984	20		27		26	١.,		
Woollen yarn	16,703	17,896	9,716	32	29 37	23	II	23	31		
Woollen textures	2,898	4,356	9,362	12	21	9	43	57	42		
Rags and waste	242,206	235,805	86,522	5	4	3	59	65	68		
Resin and gallipot	242,000	-33,3	54,488	1	_	13	29	03	16		
Vegetable and tech-											
_ nical oils			134,686	_		21		_	26		
Technical animal fat	42,689	42,851	11,414	II	15	2	41	60	54		
Coal	21,826,248	83,050	1,521,180	2	31	45	98	61	44		
Lead ores	584,760	938,670	196,358	-	15	-	68	24	1 2		
Medicaments	18,618	22,020	12,454	3	15	23	41	74 60	54		
Tin sheets	90,464	90,303	85,081	18	33	40	17	20	20		
Copper and copper	90,404	3-13-3	-5,000		33	70			-		
ware	7,083	29,124	30,807	30	8	20	59	56	56		
Mechanical tools for									"		
metal manufact-											
urers	34,279	36,686	29,275	4	-	-	70	73	63		
Mechanical tools for		1									
wood manufact-	0.075	71 86.	90.0				6-	1 60	6.		
Textile machinery	9,076	15,864	7,047 46,746	5	4	12	67	69	67		
Agricultural machi-	22,413	37,917	40,740	59	55	1.4	32	34	69		
nery	43,428	40,680	47,986	5	z !	5	47	66	60		
Typewriting machines	73,700	2,290	2,206	2		5	97	69	53		

9. Exports from Poland of various classes of Goods (in quintals) and the Share of Great Britain and Germany therein.

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	To	tal in Quin	tals.	P			of Sh		
Description.				Great Britain		Germany.			
	1922	1923	1924	1922	1923	1924	1922	1923	1924
Rye	263,793 171,669 2,780 2,780 117,110 592,801 50,931 9,275 13,314 	833 200,010 1,260 	1,064,558 1,276,911 60,814 191,674 184,654 283,471 109,264 2,716,053 2,463,012 104,214 2,831 534 9,951 2,296,585 940,733 726,259 1,880,515	18 — 26 5 75 3 2 — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —	15 	2 24 7 12 8 3 5 30 39 15 4 4 4 4 17 14 6 38 7 18	31 80	100 20 100 	12 33 3 20 47 20 23 81 37 77 75 1 52 5 5 1 30 5 3 3 4 5 4 8
Furniture Turnery and cabinet- makers' goods Veneers, unglued Veneers, glued, and m a n u f a c t u res thereof Seeds Glass and glassware Jute texture and bags Cotton and waste Cotton yarn Wool and waste Woollen yarn Cellulose Paper and paper ware Turpentine Matches Lubricating oils Paraffin Iron and enamel ware Zinc Zinc ware	56,006 12,592 51,422 706 4,099 4,316 6,115 9,101 40,896 13,064 708,236	61,098 4,385 	41,385 23,695 22,130 70,798 440,716 23,303 8,269 7,266 9,297 20,120 26,569 145,048 27,942 13,968 17,880 970,641 259,348 3,438 549,069 235,766	5 18 2 2 2 4 14 1 1 33 12 —	7 13 10 33 4 14 6 - 38 - - 9 4	33 5 27 7 3 10 3 3 17 17 18 23 5 24 10 1	50 77 40 55 54 36 67 60 48 26 37 80 8z	15 33 33 66 67 37 66 18 27 70 70	47 62 45 33 61 21 28 47 20 77 63 31 24 10 24 15 26 57

10. Trade Relations with Great Britain.

The following figures, compiled by the Central Bureau of Statistics, represent the value of Polish trade with England during the years 1922-24:—

Year,	Imports,	Exports,	Turnover,	Percentag valu	Exports in Percentages		
10 30	Zlotys.	Zlotys.	Zlotys.	Imports.	Exports.	of Imports.	
1922 1923	59,307 90,529 110,271	26,702 70,042 133,035	86,009 160,571 243,306	7·0 8·1 7·5	4·1 5·8 10·5	45.0 77.4 120.6	

The steady increase of the volume of trade between Poland and Great Britain from 86,009 thousand zlotys in 1922 to 243,306 thousand in 1924 is significant. It is also noteworthy that, with the increase of the turnover, the character of the trade has changed entirely. Thus, in 1922 and 1923 the trade balance was adverse for Poland, but already in 1924 exports from Poland to England exceeded the imports from the latter by 20.6 per cent.

The participation of Great Britain in Polish foreign trade is apparent from the detailed Tables. The volume of trade passing between Poland and her largest customer and importer, Germany, is also given in these tables by way of

comparison.

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Exports to England.—The exportation of sugar is progressing favourably. In 1922 consignments destined for England formed but 5 per cent. of the total exports of Polish sugar, whereas in 1924 no less than 95,790 tons of sugar were exported to England, forming 39 per cent. of the total exported. The co-operation of both countries in this respect is valuable. Credits, guaranteed by the Government, are granted to the sugar industry by English banks.

England is also an important buyer of Polish timber. The exports of semi-manufactured articles, such as beams and boards, have advanced in 1924 to 38 per cent. from 32 per cent. in the preceding year (431,263 tons and 265,247 tons, respectively). Other manufactures of wood and timber were

sent mostly to Germany. The exports of coopery articles in particular have increased considerably from 7,330 tons in 1923 to 21,233 tons in 1924. In that year England absorbed 33 per cent. of the total exports of inlays (veneers) and a similar percentage of exports was purchased by Germany.

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The export of agricultural produce to England in 1924 was insignificant and was probably due to Polish Tariff restrictions, which were not abolished until the end of that year. Potato products find an eager market in England, which absorbed

30 per cent. of the total export of these articles.

Imports from England.—An analysis of figures relating to the importation of articles of British origin, as compared with the imports of German-made goods, leads us to the conclusion that England has but to a small degree mastered the conditions of the Polish market. England's share in the importation of Colonial produce, such as rice, spices, cocoa and coffee is by far smaller than that of Germany. The imports of tea, herrings and fish from Germany are especially large.

A similar state of affairs exists as regards the importation of woollen and cotton fabrics. German-made articles are imported in quantities many times larger than those of goods proceeding from England, which is apparent from the following

table :-

	Year.		Import of Co (in Percentages of	tton Fabrics of total Imports).	Import of Woollen Pabrics (in Percentages of total Imports).				
			From England,	From Germany.	From England.	From Germany.			
1922 1923 1924	0 0 4 b		13 per cent. 9 " 9 "	28 per cent. 48 == 26 ;	12 per cent. 21 ,,	43 per cent. 57 ** 47 **			

The importation of machinery employed in the textile industry has also declined considerably. Thus, the percentage of machinery imported from England and Germany respectively was as follows:—

Such insignificant participation of British trade in the Polish market may be explained by the indifference shown by

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British industrial and commercial circles to the possibilities of trade with Poland, and also by the lack of reliable information concerning Polish markets. Apart from this, the most important reason of German predominance in Polish foreign trade is the policy of German commercial houses of allowing extended credits and most advantageous terms. Taking into consideration the almost complete lack of capital in Poland these terms have an immense importance for Polish trade.

There is a great demand for British made goods in Poland. Apart from articles enumerated above, England will find in Poland a capacious market for machinery and apparatus of all kinds, also for articles connected with electric installations, especially if it will take into consideration the great openings offered by the introduction of up-to-date equipments in all Polish industrial undertakings.

These articles are imported now almost exclusively from Germany, whilst Britain's share in these imports is negligible.

There is no doubt that the development of Anglo-Polish trade relations will be advantageous to both countries. It is in the best interests of England to increase her exports to Poland, especially of those articles which are now supplied by Germany. On the other hand, England will find in Poland the most important corn-producer in Europe, and a supplier of other agricultural produce.

Trade between Poland and England.—I. 11. Imports from England to Poland in 1924.

				Quintals.	Thousands of Zlotys.
Total of Goods Imported	40			1,484,619	110,271
				79,479	51,442
II. Foodstuffs	100			369,743	24,436
III. Organic chemicals and their pro	ducts			119,086	10,062
IV. Metal ores and their products				115,907	5,877
V. Animal products				16,865	4,499
	4-			11,178	2,690
VII. Fuel, asphalt, oil and its produc				707,459	2,193
VIII. Electro-technical plant, conduct				1,649	519
IX. School requisites, instruments of	of pre	cision	and		
measure				171	514
				2,365	506
		* *		244	500
XII. Inorganic chemicals and product				14,583	425
		• •		1,205	362
				1,733	188
XV. Arms and ammunition	4.0	4.4		308	121

								Thousands of
							Quintals.	Zlotys.
	XVI.	Books, writing materials	and pic	ctures			122	92
	XVII.	Books, writing materials Live animals All kinds of vegetables, n Paper and paper goods Various chemical product Minerals, not specified, au Ruilding material and est	* *			Head	172	81
- 2	XAIII.	All kinds of vegetables, r	ot spec	Dedin		* *	318	70
	XIX.	Paper and paper goods	• •		٠.		2,709	64 63
	VVI	Minerals not specified as	is nd man	ufactu	11	thereof	353	61
	YYII	Building material and cer	ramic w	vare	163	thereor	2 155	46
- 3	CXIII.	Building material and cer Glass goods					550	24
- 3	XXIV.	Timber and wood goods					332	19.2
	XXV.	Timber and wood goods Precious metals				Grs.	8,400	67
							1,149,811	104,912.2
		Wool and wool waste						
	1.	Linen percale and other	cotton	textun	es.		1.125	6,046
		Wool warm					2,240	3,701
		Cotton varn					4,185	3,535
		Woollen textures					835	2,801
		Jute and jute waste				* *	15,511	2,801 943 82 78
		Fishing and other nets			* *	* *	94	82
		Raw silk	* *	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *		* *	43	76
		Pages seeds not specific	osming,	etc.			333	76 62
		Wool and wool waste Linen, percale and other Wool yern Cotton yarn Woollen textures Jute and jute waste Fishing and other nets Raw silk Cotton textures, mackint Ropes, cords, not specific Driving belts of cotton, whair	ea rool mi	rture a	nd	camel		02
		Driving belts of cotton, whair Hemp and hemp waste Yarn not specifically mer Linen cords, string Driving belts of flax, etc. Jute and linen bags Woyen materials and ha		A CUIC O		Camer	63	52
		Hemp and hemp waste					403	43
		Yarn not specifically mer	ationed		0.0	0.0	40 76	33
		Linen cords, string			0.0		76	31
		Driving belts of flax, etc.				4.4	54	27
		Jute and linen bags				416-1-3	203	19
		Woven materials and ha	Dergasi	iery or	ar			13
		Other vegetable material		* *		**	172	10
		Woven materials and hal	a berdash	erv of	line	en	172	9
		770702 22200012200 2220 2220						
	II.	Pickled herrings					220,622	10,903
		Tea					6,775 43,033 42,595 10,051	3,286
		Rice					43,033	1,849
		Wheaten flour	* *				42,595	1,560
		Lard, suet and edible fat					10,051	1,357
		Nuts pistaching chestny	its				11.253	965 855
		Spices					3,623	748
		Cocoa					4,802	702
		Edible vegetable fats					2,606	430
		Pickled herrings Tea Rice Wheaten flour Lard, suet and edible fat Coffee Nuts, pistachios, chestnu Spices Cocoa Edible vegetable fats Raisins and currants Figs and dates Dried plums, apples and Margarine, etc., edible fa					3,640	379
		Figs and dates			* *	* *	3,256	
		Dried plums, apples and	pears		* 1		2,501	187
		Margarine, etc., edible ia	its			. mon.	1,153	105
		Dried fruits and berries tioned Meal Condensed milk Almonds Arrac, rum, cognac, etc. Condiments Peas. Malt. Potato meal and starch Millet Vegetables and other fre Locust beans	HOL S	респис	шу	ariett.	1,398	156
		Meal	• •				4,191	0
		Condensed milk					4,191 973 505 242 340 500 280 358 588	132
		Almonds					505	200
		Arrac, rum, cognac, etc.					242	68
		Condiments	* *				340	45
		Peas	4.4	* *			500	16 12
		Potato meel and stand	* 1	* *			258	11
		Millet					588	11
		Vegetables and other fre	sh root	s			503	10
		Locust beans					588 503 99	9
				0				

						Thousands of
					Quintals.	Zlotys.
	Sugar				35	2
	Preserved meat Lobsters, oysters, crabs, etc				16	2
	Wheat			* *	10	I 0-1
	** BCds			* *	5	0.1
III.	Technical animal fat				47,253	4,437
	Vegetable oils Other organic raw material		+ 0		28,572	2,981
	Other organic raw material	S			27,296	1,100
	Gum, gum resin, pitch resin	i, baisan	ns	0.0	2,583	386
	Tanning grease, oleine, oil i Resin, gallipot, brewers' ta	LOTT DOL	les	1.0	3,627 6,893	361 244
	Alkaloids and their salts.	such	as med	icinal	0,093	-94
	Alkaloids and their salts, preparations				9	187
	Other synthetic medicamen	ts and p	harmac	eutical		
	preparations				769	108
	Unrenned ish oil	• •	• •		1,309	94
	Reservay and Chinese way	• •			44 236	67
	Other animal oils				351	43
	Palm oil and stearin				135	18
	Unrefined fish oil Cosmetics and perfumery Beeswax and Chinese wax Other animal oils Palm oil and stearin Spermaceti and sperm oils				9	I
***	Iron and steel sheets Iron ore Precipitated, electrolitics and blocks Mechanical tools Zinc ores Wire, wire manufactures an Aluminium ware Tin ware					
IV.	Iron and steel sheets	* *	• •	• •		1,091
	Precipitated electrolitic em	elted co	nner		44,520 6,276	1,116
	Tin ingots, bars and blocks		ppes		1,518	679
	Mechanical tools	* *			545	375
	Zinc ores				23,998	260
	Wire, wire manufactures an	id nails			76I	215
	Tin ware		* *		369	133
	Brass and himnze ware and	1 other	molten	sube	195	224
	stances Special steel Pipes and joints for pipes Nickel ingots, blocks and ba Merchant iron, bars, blocks				201	8 r
	Special steel				344	78
	Pipes and joints for pipes				1,021	70
	Nickel ingots, blocks and ba	ars		41-4	225	45
	specifically mentioned	iks, exc	epung	that	7 707	20
	Aluminum insofe hare blo	ote prior			1,201	39 36
	Hardware not specifically in	entione	d		73	
	Goods manufactured from h	alf-hard	iron		13	
٧.	Raw hides, fresh, pickled ar	ad dried			13,471	1,793
	Patent leather, chamois	leather	and 1		355	× ×0/2
	leather goods	rv			550 560	1,107
	Undressed hides	.,			1,372	397
	Leather, upper, soft, ordina Undressed hides Other leather goods Dressed hides, opossum,		4.0		226	235
	Dressed hides, opossum,	racco	n, pol	lecat,		
	squirrel, etc			* *	20	177
					787	103
	specifically mentioned	as and	Orners	not	70	38
	Sponges				4	9
	Textile machinery				5,741	1,699
	Agricultural machinery and	impleme			2,328	339
	Other machinery and imple	ments			1,145	301
	Tractors		• •	* *	1,241 438	191 88
	Pumps				126	50
		32	9			L.e

		0.2 . 6	Thousands of
		Quintals.	Zlotys.
	Weighing machines	159	22
	Fuel oil	59	I
	Paraffin oil	2	0.1
3777	Assessed the Assessed State of the Control of the C	413	170
¥ 11.	Accumulators, transformers, numerators, etc Fire, telephone and telegraph apparatus	113	145
	Conductors and cables	862	115
	Materials for plant excepting conductors	261	89
VIII.	Typewriting machines	43	161
	Calculators, cash registers Writing materials and requisites Mineographs and other copying machines	18	155
	Writing materials and requisites	52	100
		40	54
	Photographic films and cliches	11	22
	Surgical, chirurgical, dental, orthopædic instru-	5	15
	Other geometrical instruments and implements		
	other geometricar mattankens and ampressens	-	,
IX.	Texture made from gum elastic for the manu-		
	facture of carding bands	361	233
	Rubber, guttapercha	1,794	177
	Soft gum elastic	163	55
	Gum and guttapercha boots	33	
	Hard gum elastic	14	9
X.	Cotton underclothing	175	348
	Cotton apparel	41	95
	Woven goods	28	57
XI.	Inorganic chemical products not specifically	1 3.4	
	mentioned	941	101
	Bicarbonate of soda and potassium Minerals containing barium	3,831	86
		4,177 3,172	70
	Chilian saltpetre	304	10
	Caustic soda and potassium	460	16
	Heavy spar	1,310	16
	Carbonate of ammonia		15
	Nitrate of soda and potash		2
	Sulphate and soda	106	2
	Chlorate of soda and potash	41	2
XII	Motor cycles and bicycles	243	255
Chai.	Spare parts and tools	902	107
	opaco para tara tora		-
KIII.	Inorganic dyes	1,007	104
	Varnish, polish, lacquer	371	43
	Vegetable dyes	113	30
	Other dyes	33	5
	Clay, potter's clay	209	6
VIV	Ammunition for sporting guns	308	121
AIV.	Attitution for abottong gains	300	***
XV.	Books	56	60
	Industrial and commercial prints and designs	66	32
XVI	Horses Head	172	81
LCT IX	T-14 to	288	- 65
XVII.	Fruit-tree seeds	200	- 05
	Chicory seed	20	4
	Same order of the transfer of		

								Quintals.	Thousands of Zlotys.
XVIII.	Cord, rope Paper imp	regnat	ed wi	th wa	 х, ра	raffin	and	2,719	54
	such like Linen-lined	paper	• •	• •	• •		• •	49 I	9
XIX.	Other chen	 nical p	 roduct	s not	 specifi	cally	men-	89	26
	tioned				4.8			80	17
	Gum							137	13
	Boot cleane				* *		* *	_	-
	Ink Candles			* *				32	5
	Candles	• •		* *			• 6	12	T
XX.	Gelatine		• •	٠.				3	I
XXI.	Asbestos	• •	• •			• •	* *	1,237	61
XXII.	Porcelain w							130	14
	Fireproof re	torts a	and otl	ner fire	proof	vessel	ls	188	11
	Stone vesse							55	10
	Bricks, flags							1,740	10
	Carved and							12	I
	Fireproof k	itchen	utensil	9				21	0.7
XXIII.	Mirror glass							550	24
XXIV.	Exotic wood Wood pulp			• •	• •		::	244 88	0.3
XXV.	Precious me	tals					Grs.	8,400	67

Trade between Poland and England.—II. 12. Exports from Poland to England in 1924

	12. Daports from Loianu		THE	TOTAL THE TS	
Part.	Group.			Ouintala	Thousands of
I ditt.				Quintals.	Zlotys.
	Total of Goods Exported			6,995,862	133,035
	Foodstuffs			1,284,520	72,161
	Timber and wood goods			5,100,401	37,357
			471	122,903	4,865
IV.	Ores, metals and metal manufactures			57,338	
V.	Textile materials and manufactures				3,942
VI.	Paper and paper manufactures			29,971	
VII.	All kinds of vegetable products not sp	pecifi	cally		<i>y</i> ,
	mentioned			22,478	740
VIII.	Organic chemical materials and manufa			19,552	659
	Various chemical products			5,195	468
	Apparel			131.3	
	Animal products			619	244
	Minerals not specifically mentioned an			419	444
	factures thereof			174	707
XIII.	Live animals		Head	208,208	191
	Glassware				70
XV	Machinery and appliances			541 81	68
XVI	Inorganic chemical materials and produ	octe		1,160	29
	Fancy goods				12
YVIII	School appliances and requisites, scient	 	nn li	19	13
22 + 111.	ances, instruments of precision and m			44.9	
YIY	Gum elastic	casu		4·I	11
AIA,	Gunt clastic.,		1 0	7	7
				6,649,076-4	116,502 - 1

Part.		Articl	e.				Quintals.	Thousands of Zlotys.
т	Defined curren		24				224,035	21,896
1.							379,570	18,662
	Raw sugar Crystal sugar						268,895	17,869
	Sugar not specifica	lly me	atione				85,617	6,119
	Sugar not specifica	any me	ntuone	u.			15,550	2,328
	Eggs	4 a wah					45,668	1,565
	Potato flour and s				10.4		21,688	846
	French beans				4.0	0.7	144,566	721
	Potatoes		10.0	4.4	1.0		22,737	644
	Peas			P.00	0.0		26,603	425
	Rye			* *	* 1		14,268	256
	Buckwheat	1.9	* 10	+ +	- 1	4.5		200
	Buckwheat Oats Potato syrup, glu	17				4 *	15,021	409
	Potato syrup, glu	cose	- 0	+ 0				200
	Dextrine	0.4	- 4	1.0	- 0.0		4.544	147
	Malt		* *		* *		3,755	78
	Beans				* *	1.0	3,374	70
	Sweets, coffee, liqueur, arrac a	preserv	res, fr	uit pre	servea	n		
	liqueur, arrac a	ind cog	mae, E	astern o	lelicacie	29	92	51
	Spices, chicory			* *	* *		2,152	39
	Spices, chicory Bran				4.0	1.0	4,681	27
	Dried fruit and	berri	es not	specino	cauy n	ren-	0	
	tioned	4 20			1.1		208	23
	Fresh, chilled and	d salte	d meat			100	107	19
	Vegetables and o	ther fr	esh roo	ts			1,259	14
	Grapes and simila				0.00		94	8
	Extract of malt						-	-
	Caramel						198	7
	Caramel Spices						31	5
	Raw tobacco						17	3
11	Beams, deals, lat Veneers and mar Coopery Furniture Railway sleepers Blocks, trunks Turnery and cab Poles and logs Pit wood Unglued parque Wood pulp Joinery Blocks for bridg	oinetma	kers' s	goods			4,332,820 23,201 83,581 6,047 157,584 113,773 4,103 161,601 101,400 4,556 94,155 3,466 14,114	29,270 1,912 1,739 924 851 619 600 516 273 273 191 102 87
II	I. Paraffin	1.0	9.0	4.6	0.0	+ -	66,185	3,938
	Lubricating oils	2.4				32	43,893	778
	Naphtha		0.1			0.0	11,625	148
	Lignite			0.0	0.0		1,200	I
	* G!14i	. and	duct				53,635	3,979
11	/. Zinc, molten zin	ic and	uusi				2,784	257
	Zincware Tin and enamel				-44		632	122
	Tin and enamei	ware	1400.00	nnor			287	44
	Electrolite copp	er, mo	ren co	pper	44		/	-17
	V. Linen, percale a	and oth	er cott	on mate	erials	20	508	623
							969	543
	Iute material a	nd bag	s, bags	, lmen (compru	gs ++	500	117
	Cotton and cott	on was	ste			++	190	57
	Woollen yarn					44	1,721	2,602

Part.	Ari	icle.				Quintals.	Zlotys.
VI	Sulphite cellulose Packing paper Printing paper for books Albums, biliposting paper Printing paper for newsp Wallpaper and friezes Paper bags					25,000	779
	Packing paper					4,134	
	Printing paper for books	• •				4,434	143 35
	Albums, billnosting nane	r wall	-naner	etc		503 164	12
	Printing paper for newsp	aners	Puper	,		154	6
	Wallpaper and friezes	mpers				15	3
	Paper hage	• •				I	0.1
		••				^	0 1
VII	Vetch and other seed Serradilla					1,881	303
	Vetch and other seed					14,833	245
	Serradilla					3,525	57
	Noot vegetables, loader :	ana or	ners b	ot st	ecinc-		
	Dog's tooth seed					856	53
	Dog's tooth seed Other oleaginous seeds Medical herbs Grass					385 631	38
	Other oleaginous seeds					631	47
	Medical herbs				4 .	40	11
	Grass					43	3
						284	3
SITTE							
V 1111	Pitch and tar	0.7	0.0	- 0		15,615	256
	Acids and other organic	comp	ounds	as	partly	,	
	manufactured goods Turpentine Other organic raw materi Technical animal fats Tellurium, ksylol, phenol,	4.4	4.0			1,096	204
	Other con-	-1-				1,133	107
	Tasksiaslasiaslasia	ais		* *		783	43
	Tellumium keulel mharel	To About	9.0	- 7	19.0	239	22
	Tumenting sitch and oth	anthr	acene		Gaalla.	112	18
	Turpentule, pitch and oth	er pitc	m not s	peci	ucany		
	mentioned		* *			273	5
	Coal pitch and cobbler's v	Wax	• •			301	4
IV	Matches						
124.							325
	Glue	* *					89
	Other chemical goods not	· ·	Gootler :	mani	ionad	143	46
	Other chemical goods not	specii	ilcany .	1116111	loned	76	0
X	Serviettee blankete ourte	ine at				6.	744
46.	Cotton apparel	uus, ei		0.0		42	144
	Serviettes, blankets, curta Cotton apparel Cotton goods (except text	ure on	d habe	o o	hory	4/	97
	Lines clothing	uic an	IG Habe	Luas	nery)	0-3	42
	Linen clothing			* *		0.3	- 2
XI	Hog bristles					350	122
400,	Hog bristles Feathers and down			• •		221	108
	Calves' stomachs and offa	1				48	14
	Calves Stoniacis and Ona	1	* 0	4.0		40	44
XII.	Gas mantles					173	186
						-/3	5
	Jos and months		* '			-	2
XIII.	Horses				Head	208	70
						200	,,,
XIV.	Glass vessels					54I	68
						34-	
XV.	Agricultural machinery an	d imp	lement	S		81	29
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·						-,
XVI.	Toys					IQ	13
	*****					-,	-3
XVII.	Calcium and soda crystals			4.0		458	8
	Inorganic chlorates					702	4
							*
XVIII.	Typewriters				• •	3	9
	Maps, atlases, globes					1	ĭ
	Typewriters Maps, atlases, globes Cinematograph ribbons					0.1	1
XIX.	Gum and guttapercha boo	ts				7	7

III.—THE LAW OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

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1. General Outline of Polish Civil Law.

The reform and codification of the Polish Civil Law requires the most careful study and preparation. The main principles governing the law of inheritance, of mortgages, and of matrimony, cannot be altered frequently without great harm being done to the State's organism and to its economic life. It is well to remember that the codification of law in Germany and Switzerland took many years of arduous work before the respective codes were sanctioned by the legislative bodies of those countries.

In Poland, the work of achieving a complete uniformity of legislation is being proceeded with. The Codification Commission has, for the last few years, carried on its work, and many of its projects have since been passed by the legislature. As regards the main branches of law, complete codes are being prepared by the Commission, and in the meantime, the respective codes enforced in the various parts of Poland prior to the war have been maintained.

Thus, in the former Austrian Poland, the Austrian Civil Code of 1811 and the Commercial Code of 1862 are still in force. All civil legislation existing in Austria prior to 1918 has been provisionally maintained by the Polish Government. Similarly, in former German Poland the German Civil Code of 1900 has still the force of law.

The legislation in former Russian Poland is more complicated. These provinces, formed as regards their legislation two independent entities, viz., the former Congress Kingdom and the present eastern

counties of Poland.

In the former, Books II. and III. of the Napoleonic Code have been, and still are, in force. The code was introduced into Poland in the beginning of the 19th century at the time of the so-called Grand Duchy of Warsaw. For Book I. of the Code Napoleon was substituted, in 1825, Book I. of the Polish Civil Code, which was enacted by the Seym of the so-called Kingdom of Poland. The French marriage statutes were superseded by the Law of Matrimony of 1836, and the law relating to mortgages-by the Mortgage Statutes of 1818 and 1825. These statutes remained in force after the abolition of the autonomy of the kingdom of Poland, although certain less important amendments were introduced by the Russian Government. The Napoleonic Law of Civil Procedure was replaced by the corresponding Russian Statutes. By the end of 1915, the whole territory of the former Congress Kingdom was occupied by the armies of the Central Powers, who also introduced important amendments into the civil legislation of the country.

The Eastern Counties were governed by the primitive Russian Civil Law, which formed part of the Russian Statute Book, the so-called "Svod Zakonov."

The Polish Government maintained all these legislative acts both in the former Congress Kingdom and in the Eastern Counties. Even some enactments of the former authorities of occupation were confirmed by the Polish legislature in 1918.

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Thus, no fewer than five independent systems of law are for the time being binding in Poland. From the re-establishment of the Republic there began an intense legislative activity. The work in this direction takes the shape of revisions of existing Codes, also of new legislative enactments binding throughout the country.

The Mortgage Statutes of the former Congress Kingdom referred to above, have been extended to the Eastern Counties. The latter had no Statutes regulating the Law of Mortgages, and the whole law of real property was in a state of chaos. The introduction of model Polish statutes embodying the Central European principles of mortgage law, confers a true benefit on these counties. The law of inheritance obtaining there, has also been modified; the legal incapacities of women in this respect have been removed.

In the former Congress Kingdom many civil incapacities of married women have been removed, and their rights to property considerably extended.

As regards new Statutes which are now enforced throughout the country, it is sufficient to mention here the Negotiable Instruments Act which came into force on January 1, 1925, and the Patents and Trade Marks Act of February 5, 1924. Other important statutes are those regulating the establishment of, and procedure in, Stock and Produce Exchanges and the Bank Act passed in December, 1924.

An important, though transient, Statute is the one regulating the computation into Polish currency of obligations in rubles, marks and crowns. This statute was passed on May 14, 1925.

2. Principles of the Law relating to Merchants and Trading Companies.

All statutes enforced throughout the territory of the Republic contain the definition of a "merchant" as well as special provisions regulating his legal rights and obligations. Every merchant in the legal sense of the word, which excludes small traders and hawkers, is under an obligation to keep proper books in accordance with the provisions of the statute.

Every merchant must, further, enter his concern in a commercial register provided for this purpose. This obligation extends to merchants throughout the country, although the commercial register was not known in the former Russian provinces, and was introduced there after the Russian retreat. The registers are

administered by justices (registrars) whose decision is subject to appeal. Full particulars concerning the proposed business of the firm, its offices and proprietors, must be recorded in each application. Limited liability companies must also register the amount of share capital and the number of shares taken up by each partner. The register is open to public inspection and particulars contained therein are binding in respect of third persons.

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Powers of attorney granted by the firm must be recorded in the register in order to be valid. Special powers must be registered in order to enable the firm's representative to sell the firm, alienate its real property or incur mortgage obligations on their behalf.

In accordance with the law enforced in the former Russian provinces, the disposal of a trading concern cannot be valid unless recorded in the commercial register. Special formalities are also required in connection with the deeds transferring the ownership in such concerns; these must be deposited with the commercial registrar, and must contain a specification of the firm's assets and liabilities. The purchaser's liability is limited by the assets of the firm, but in cases of mala fides or neglect to comply with statutory formalities, the purchaser may be held responsible severally and jointly with the vendor of the firm.

The statutes binding in Poland recognise many forms of commercial partnership. The predominant type is that of ordinary partnership with joint and several responsibility of all partners for the debts and obligations of the firm. There is also the "sleeping partnership" with a working partner representing the firm outside, and with sleeping partners who bear no personal responsibility for the debts of the firm other than that determined by the deed of

partnership.

Of recent years joint stock and limited liability companies have superseded the ordinary forms of partnership. In the former Russian and Austrian provinces the articles of association of such companies must be approved by the Ministries of Commerce and Industry and of Finance. In the former German provinces the approval of these authorities is not necessary, except for certain

specified types of limited liability companies.

The former Russian legislation in regard to such companies is inadequate. Certain formalities are, however, observed by the authorities sanctioning the formation of new companies; these formalities supplement in many cases the inadequacies of the law. Each joint stock company must have strictly defined capital. The Order of the President of the Republic, dated June 25, 1924, fixed the minimum share capital at 100,000 zlotys; the minimum capital of insurance companies was fixed by the same Order at 250,000 zlotys. The capital of mortgage banks cannot be under 5 million zlotys, and that of ordinary banking establishments not under 1-2.5 million; the latter minimum depends on the town in which the head office of the bank is situated.

All joint stock companies registered prior to June, 1924, whose capital was less than the statutory minimum were compelled to increase it within the periods fixed by the statute. Failing this, such companies must either be re-established as limited liability companies or go into liquidation.

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The minimum nominal value of each share must be 10 zlotys, except shares in banking companies, which must be of a minimum value of 100 zlotys. Shares are issued either to bearer or to Order. In the latter case the shares must be endorsed and their transfer approved in each case by the authorities of the company.

Other provisions as regards joint stock companies are such as are usually applied in most countries of Europe. The Board of directors is elected by the general meeting of shareholders, who also elect a Council, and in some cases also a managing committee. The decisions of the general meeting or of any of the company's authorities may be reversed by the Courts of Justice, if it be proved that they are contrary to the law or to the articles of association of such companies.

In those parts of Poland which are subject to German and Austrian legislation there exists a type of partnership which combines the characteristics of ordinary partnership with those of joint stock companies. In these, some of the partners are responsible personally for the debts of the company, others only to the extent of their share capital.

Limited liability companies were very common before the war in the former Austrian and German parts of Poland. In the territories formerly occupied by Russia this form of partnership was not recognised by either the Code Napoleon or by Russian legislation. Realising the importance of such companies, the Polish Government have introduced these throughout the former Russian provinces by a Decree of February 8, 1919. This Decree was subsequently superseded by the Statute of November 13, 1923. The rules governing limited liability companies are in all essentials identical with those in force in England. The minimum capital of such a company is fixed by statute at 2,000 zlotys, and 20,000 in provinces subject to Austrian and German legislation. capital subscribed may be paid in part, but a partner is always responsible to the extent of his declared capital both as regards his liabilities to the company and to the company's creditors. The transfer of shares in a limited liability company may be prohibited by the articles of association. Certain formalities must be complied with before the transfer of shares in such companies becomes valid. The directors of the company are nominated by the meetings of shareholders, and their names must be recorded in the commercial register. In case of fraudulent dealings the directors may be held personally responsible either by the company or by third persons.

All resolutions of meetings must be carried by a simple majority, with the exception of resolutions affecting the capital of the company which must be carried by a three-fourths majority.

The Polish statutes of 1919 and 1923 embody all modern requirements of economic life and owing to their similarity to the corresponding Austrian and German statutes there is no conflict of laws in this respect. On the other hand, the legislation regarding ordinary joint stock companies leaves much to be desired, and the Government is at present engaged in drafting a uniform Statute for the whole country. This Statute will shortly be submitted to the Sevm and the Senate.

3. Negotiable Instruments.

As has been mentioned before, a uniform Statute dealing with negotiable instruments has been in force since January 1, 1925. The law on this subject is contained in two Acts, passed by the Legislature on November 14, 1924. The Acts deal with Bills of Exchange and Cheques respectively. The former repealed automatically the four different Statutes enforced hitherto in the various parts of the country. The latter removed but the German and Austrian legislation, since in the former Russian provinces cheques were not legally recognised and existed only by mercantile custom.

The Polish Statute dealing with bills of exchange is modelled on the project adopted by the International Hague Conference in 1912. None of the 29 states which were represented at this conference have done anything to adapt their legislation to the requirements of this project. Poland alone adopted the principles of the conference

introducing certain changes allowed by the project.

The Cheque Act has been introduced simultaneously with the Statute dealing with bills of exchange. The general provisions of this Act are similar to the corresponding provisions of the English Law of Negotiable Instruments. Drawers of cheques which are subsequently dishonoured owing to insufficient funds are liable to six weeks' imprisonment or a fine of 5,000 zlotys, if it be proved that they had full knowledge of the fact when drawing the cheque.

4. Legal Protection of Inventions, Designs and Trade Marks.

This branch of the law was regulated by a uniform Statute enforceable throughout Poland (February 5, 1924). The exclusive right of exploiting an invention is granted by palent, the duration of which extends over 15 years. Patents can only be granted in respect of original inventions. Scientific discoveries or principles cannot be patented. Patents cannot be granted in respect of inventions, the application of which would be in conflict with the law or with morality.

Foodstuffs, and medicines produced by chemical process cannot be protected by patent, although the process of manufacturing them can be so protected.

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Patents are issued by the Patent Office of the Republic of Poland. A patent may be applied for by the inventor or by his legal representative. Patent rights can be transferred by will. The transfer of patent rights inter vivos must be registered in the Patent Office before it becomes valid. An infringement of patent rights gives rise to a civil action. If proved, the courts will grant an injunction: in addition the offender is liable to damages and has to refund to the patentee all profits accrued through the unauthorised use of the patented invention. In cases of mala fides or gross negligence, the offenders are liable to a fine not exceeding 50,000 zlotys or imprisonment not exceeding six months. Persons guilty of misleading the public into the belief that their wares are patented when they are not, expose themselves to criminal prosecution. Everyone can register with the Patent Office a complaint respecting the unauthorised use of patented articles. The Statute contains detailed provisions regulating the procedure of granting, and annulling of patents. All disputes in connection with patents as well as criminal prosecution for their infringement, fall within the jurisdiction of ordinary Courts of Justice.

The right of exclusive exploitation of designs or combinations of colours for trade and commercial purposes is derived from the registration of such designs or colours in the Patent Office. Such rights expire after 10 years from the date of registration. Only entirely new designs can be registered. A design is not considered to be new, if prior to, or during, the registration its essential features have already been publicly exhibited anywhere within the territory of the Republic.

Trade Marks are also registered in the Patent Office. The exclusive right of using a particular trade mark applies only to such articles as were originally or subsequently registered with the Patent Office. The formalities to be complied with in connection with the registration of designs and trade marks are similar to those required in respect of patents.

The Statute of February 5, 1924, embodies provisions of International Law as regards patents. The legal position of patentees who have been granted their patents prior to the re-establishment of the Republic is defined. Generally, the law existing in those parts of the country where these patents have been granted is observed. Foreign patents can, under no circumstances, continue to exist in Poland after they have expired or have been annulled in the country in which they have been granted.

The Statute also contains detailed provisions as regards the organisation of the Patent Office, which is supervised by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. Appeals from the decisions

THE LAW OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

of the Patent Office are dealt with by the Appeal Department, which functions under the presidency of a Judge of Appeal. A college of patent experts exists in connection with the offices; applicants may also be represented by barristers-at-Law.

The Polish law of patents and trade marks is based on the modern principles of West European legislation and its enactment forms an important step forward towards the economic reconstruction of

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IV.- LEGAL POSITION OF FOREIGNERS IN POLAND.

The legal status of foreigners in Poland is based on Article 95 of the Constitution. This Article states that all foreigners in Poland enjoy equal rights with Polish citizens on conditions of reciprocity. They are also liable to equal obligations, except

where the Statute provides otherwise.

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In accordance with the practice of nearly all civilised states foreigners are not equal with Polish citizens as regards duties and obligations under Public Law. Thus, foreigners cannot be elected to Parliament, or vote in parliamentary elections; nor can they occupy positions in the Civil Service or in the Army. The legal position of foreigners must, therefore, be discussed in the light of the rights and obligations of Civil Law alone.

As in other branches of the law, the legislation on this subject enforced at present in Poland is not uniform. Under Article 11 of the Polish Civil Code, which is binding in the former Congress Kingdom, foreigners cannot acquire real property, and cannot occupy the positions of guardians or members of Family Councils

over subjects of the Congress Kingdom.

Article 33 of the Austrian Code, which is still in force in former Austrian Poland, provides a complete equality for all foreigners on condition of reciprocity. Under Article 31 of the German Code the Chancellor of the Reich (in Poland the Council of Ministers) can impose restrictions on foreign subjects as a reciprocal measure against similar restrictions imposed on Polish subjects in Germany.

There is no corresponding legislation in the eastern counties. In practice, however, the principles referred to above are applied. In Spisz and Orawa (former Hungarian territory) Article 33 of

the Austrian Civil Code is enforced

The principles enumerated above are of a general character, and they are often repeated in various articles of the respective Codes.

As regards pleadings in the Courts of Justice, foreigners enjoy equal rights with Polish citizens. Their rights in this respect are safeguarded both by the general principles of law and by the particular provisions of Procedure in the different parts of Poland. The respective articles of the German and Austrian Codes contain provisions under which a foreigner, though incapable of appearing before a Court of Justice in his own country, will be regarded as capable in Poland provided the conditions required of Polish citizens are satisfied. In addition, the Law of Procedure throughout Poland allows the benefit of "forum privilegii" to Polish citizens engaged in a legal dispute with foreigners as regards their obligations incurred in Poland or whenever the foreigner's estate is in the country. This, although an exception to the principle

that "actor sequitur forum rei," does not constitute a specific restriction on foreigners' rights and is recognised in the legislations

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of practically every country of the world.

In the matter of procedure, the questions of plaintiffs' deposits as security for costs and damages and of the application of Poor Law provisions must be mentioned. A foreigner is not prima facie equal with a Polish citizen in this respect. Before relief under the Poor Law can be granted to foreigners, it must be proved that similar relief is granted to Polish citizens in the foreigner's country.

It has been mentioned that the legal position of foreigners in Poland is qualified by conditions of **reciprocity**. By this is meant legislative, as opposed to diplomatic, reciprocity, *i.e.*, the respective provisions of the law will be applied whenever it be proved that the law of the country in question contains similar provisions, not necessarily arising out of an international agreement. On the other hand, many of the problems dealt with in this article have been regulated by Treaties to which Poland was a party.

All Commercial Treaties entered into by Poland during recent years contain provisions equalising the rights of citizens of the contracting parties as regards pleading in Courts of Justice and the protection afforded by them. Foreigners can plead through their representatives or lawyers under the same conditions as Polish citizens. The same applies to Corporations, Joint Stock Companies, and other legal persons.

The principle of equality is still further developed in so-called Legal Protection Conventions. So far four Conventions of this kind have been concluded by Poland, with Jugoslavia, Germany, Austria and Czechoslovakia. In many cases, the question has been settled by mere declarations of reciprocity. Such declarations have been exchanged with Italy and Finland in respect of the application of the Poor Law to citizens of the respective countries.

As regards penal liability, a foreigner is subject to the jurisdiction of Polish Courts, and is liable to extradition for offences committed abroad.

The legal position of foreigners trading or pursuing their occupations in Poland requires special note. This question is regulated by internal Polish legislation as well as by International Conventions. Polish legislation adopts the principle of equality, provided of course similar treatment is afforded to Polish citizens in foreign countries. There are, however, some trades and professions which cannot be followed by citizens of foreign States. The more important of these are

r. Legal Defence. 2. Medicine. 3. Dentistry. 4. Midwifery. 5. Nursing. 6. Teaching in Secondary Schools. 7. Manufacture of Explosives. 8. Administration of Wireless.

9. Stock Brokerage. 10. Sale of Tobacco, etc.

Commercial Treaties usually contain provisions in respect of this question. Both contracting parties stipulate an equality for their citizens on the territory of the other party. Special

facilities are also granted to commercial travellers.

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The status of foreign corporations, and especially of Joint Stock Companies, is regulated by separate provisions. It is obvious that all formalities required of Polish Companies (see Article on the Law of Trade and Commerce) apply equally to foreign corporations. In addition, a joint Decree of the Ministers of Trade and Industry and of Finance defines the procedure to be adopted as regards foreign Companies desirous of extending their activities over the territory of the Republic. A foreign company applying for registration in Poland must submit to the Government its Articles of Association, a certificate of Reciprocity, and a Declaration that the Company will conform with the provisions of the Polish Law. Furthermore, after permission has been granted a foreign Company must comply with certain special conditions. Its name must appear jointly with a Polish translation thereof, and its country of origin must be apparent from its name. Books must be kept in Polish; the increase or decrease of Capital of the Polish Branch of the Company, as well as the issue of Shares secured on the Company's property in Poland, require the sanction of Polish authorities.

A separate Decree issued, in 1922, contains a Tariff of Stamp Duties payable by foreign Companies in connection with their registration in Poland. Insurance Companies must deposit some of their Capital with the Government before they can commence operations in Poland.

Branches of foreign banks can be opened subject to the sanction of the Minister of Finance. The capital of the Branch must be declared and cannot be smaller than the following minima:—

(a) Minimum Capital of Branch of Foreign Banks in Warsaw, 2,500,000 zlotys; (b) in Kraków, Lwów, Poznań, Katowice and Łódź, 1,500,000 zlotys; (c) in all other localities, 1,000,000 zlotys. The minimum Capital of the Mortgage Bank is 5,000,000 zlotys, independently of the locality.

Commercial Treaties extend the principle of equality granted to individuals and to legal persons, i.e., Companies of one country extending their operations to the territory of the other. Special agreements were concluded with France and Italy as regards the exploitation of Polish oilfields by concerns of these countries.

It is apparent from the above that as regards proprietary rights foreigners enjoy in most cases equal rights with Polish citizens. An exception to this principle is the acquisition of Real Property. The Statute of 1920 requires the permission of the Minister of Finance in each case where an alien desires to acquire houses or estates in Poland, except in the case of testamentary acquisition.

LEGAL POSITION OF FOREIGNERS IN POLAND.

Foreigners are liable to all taxes and duties imposed on Polish citizens. Diplomatic persons and others privileged by International Law are, of course, exempted.

Death duties are payable on Real property situated in Poland. As regards Personal Property, Death Duties are payable only if the deceased was domiciled in Poland. The property left by Polish citizens abroad is liable to these Duties. An exception to these principles is formed by the Statute of 1925 exempting certain benefits from foreign capitals from taxes and duties in Poland.

Thus, income from Capitals deposited abroad on Current Accounts, or on Deposit in foreign Banks, Credit Institutions or Savings Banks are free from the Polish Tax on Unearned Income, provided the persons or corporations depositing such Capitals are permanently domiciled abroad or have their Registered Offices there. Similarly, Bonds issued by foreign Public authorities or Shares of foreign Banking and Industrial Corporations are tax free.

As regards legislation on matters of social welfare, aliens enjoy equal rights with Polish citizens. This applies to Polish Health, Accident and Unemployment Insurance. The same principle is

also applied in all Emigration Conventions.

The Polish Rent Act confers equal benefits on foreigners, provided reciprocity is observed by the respective countries of origin. Other matters are regulated by International Conventions, such

as the Berne Union, etc.

As regards the entry of foreigners into Polish territory, certain formalities necessitated by the geographical position of the country are still observed. A foreigner intending to enter Poland must have his passport vised by a Polish Consulate abroad. Consular fees must be paid for each visa. On arrival in Poland, foreigners are subject to Police Regulations in respect of Aliens' Registration and Control. The period of validity of the visa must not be exceeded except with the permission of Police Authorities. Foreigners must also conform to all Customs and Passport regulations when entering, or leaving, Polish territory. Special diplomatic immunities and privileges are, of course, observed.

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TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

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I.—THE RAILWAYS IN POLAND.

The Polish Railway system is composed of three different parts, corresponding to the political division of the country as it existed prior to the re-establishment of Polish independence. The railways in these parts differed both as regards their development and equipment, and the services which they supplied were found inadequate to meet the needs of an independent State. It must also be remembered that Polish railways have suffered immensely from the damages caused by the Great War, and the need for their reconstruction is pressing. It is obvious that the further development of existing lines and the reconstruction of those destroyed during the war requires great efforts on the part of the Government.

This exceptional and difficult position must be always borne in mind when the present state of Polish railways is

discussed.

1. The Railway System and the Need of its Development.

The length of all normal railway lines in Poland in 1924 was 16,652 kilometres. Thus, as regards the length of the railway system, Poland occupies the fifth place in Europe after Russia, Germany, France and Great Britain. In addition there are in Poland about 3,500 km. of narrow-gauge railways. All normal railways are administered by the State, as well as 2,300 km. of the narrow gauge railways. The remaining 1,200 km. are owned privately.

The development of the railway system in the three different parts of Poland, as they existed before the war, is

shown by the following Table I.:-

Table I.

	Area in	No. of In-	Length of Railway	Kilometres of Railways per							
Provinces.	· ooo square kilometres.	(1921) in 10,000's.	Lines in 1924.	100 sq. km.	10,000 inhabitants.						
German Austrian Poland Russian	462 795 2,411	3 ⁸ 9 763 1,566	Kin. 4,789 4,522 7,341	10·4 5·7 3·0	12·3 5·9 4·7						
Total	3,668	2,718	16,652	4.2	6·1						

It is evident from this table that the development of the Railway system in the former German provinces corresponds to that of the average West European State. In the Austrian parts the length of railway lines forms but half of those in the German provinces, and in the former Congress Kingdom only one-third. These differences in the development of the railways in the various parts of the country are especially obvious in the former Congress Kingdom, where the density of population is greater than in the other two provinces. Furthermore, this part of Poland forms the centre of Polish industries, and yet the railways are at the lowest stage of

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development.

These abnormal conditions were realised by the responsible authorities from the very moment of the re-establishment of Poland's independent existence. As early as 1919 a project for the development of the railway services was prepared and elaborated by the Minister of Railways. The project provided for the construction of 3,000 km. of railways in the former Russian provinces and 700 km. in Galicia. proposed lines were classified according to their importance to the economic life of the country. Thus, lines leading to and from the coal district were regarded as of primary importance. The Polish coal basins, i.e., Upper Silesia in the former Prussian provinces. Dabrowa in the Russian, and the Kraków basin in the Austrian parts, form a natural entity and must be regarded as a whole. The Upper Silesian district, which supplied coal for Germany and Austria, was served by a system of excellent railways which were fully capable of transporting the entire output of Upper Silesian coal. The railway services in the Kraków basin were also adequate. The position was entirely different in the Dabrowa basin, which remained under Russian administration. The basin was served by only two lines, running in a N.E. direction. Long before the war these lines were unable to cope with the bulk of the Dabrowa coal output. For strategical reasons the Russian Government persistently refused to sanction the construction of new railway lines in this district. Under such conditions the industrial centres, Warsaw and Łódź, had to limit their consumption of coal, and outlying industrial districts were unable to obtain any at all. At present, after the cession of Upper Silesia to Poland, the country is sufficiently well supplied with coal, and its consumption at home can easily be increased by a development of the railway system

which would afford greater transport facilities. It is proposed to build four new lines and these should be sufficient to maintain a regular supply of coal throughout the country.

In connection with the exportation of coal, it will be necessary to develop the railway connections within the Coal Basin. When Upper Silesia was divided between Poland and Germany, the political frontier in many places traversed right through important railway arteries which served primarily for the transportation of coal. To avoid the difficulties which were certain to arise from this state of affairs, it was found necessary to build new junctions in Polish territory. In addition, the Railway lines in the Dabrowa and Kraków basins had to be developed and their connections with Czechoslovakia improved.

Another article requiring considerable transport facilities is Timber, both for home consumption and for exportation. The forests, whence the bulk of the timber is transported, are situated in the Eastern parts of the country. The railways existing there are generally adequate to meet the transport demands, although the need for shorter and more convenient

routes is considerable.

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The Petroleum products originating from the former Austrian provinces require special arrangements for swift and convenient transport. Prior to the war, the bulk of Galician petroleum products were directed to Austria, whereas now this direction is reversed, since the demand for these products is naturally most pressing in the industrialised parts of the country, in the former Congress Kingdom. In consequence, the railway services from Galicia to the former Russian territories will

require considerable development.

Another task with which the Polish Railway Administration is confronted is the establishment of direct services between the capital of the country, Warsaw, and the capitals of the remaining provinces, Kraków, Lwów and Poznań. The latter improvement has already been effected by the construction of a direct line on the Kutno-Strzalkow sector, which has already shortened the distance from Warsaw to Poznań by 80 km. (from 392 to 312). An improvement in the Warsaw-Lwów service will be effected in the nearest future by the construction of a direct line between Lublin and Belzec. The railway distance between Warsaw and Kraków will be shortened when the proposed coal line from the Kraków basin is constructed.

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Ministry of Railways has already completed 270 km.; 140 km. are being completed, and the work over another 260 km. will be commenced next year. In addition, negotiations are proceeding for the construction and exploitation of 1,500 km. of Coal lines by private concerns.

The construction of the Polish Baltic port in Gdynia, which is being carried on for the last few years, will require a further development of railway services leading to and from that harbour. Work in this connection was commenced last year, and a better connection between the Gdynia railways and the remaining railway system will also be constructed.

2. Polish Railways during the War.

The Railway system in the Eastern parts of the country suffered immensely from the ravages of the Great War and also from those of the Russo-Polish war of 1919–1920. Numerous bridges, railway stations and installations were wantonly destroyed. Rolling stock was confiscated by the victorious armies, so that at the end of the war the railway systems of that part of the country were passed over to Poland in a state of absolute ruin. In order to realise the extent of the damage and also the progress of the work of reconstruction, a glance at the appended Table II. will suffice:—

Table II.

Specification.		Destroyed, No.	Reconstructed.	Per cent		
Large bridges		324	141	43		
Small bridges (under 20 m.)		1,828	809	75		
Railway stations		506				
Warehouses		514	305	59		
Pressure towers		441	350	79		
Locomotive works		89	56	63		
Habitable buildings		3,079	1,410	46		

As regards the regular maintenance of railway stock a great deal has already been done. All sleepers have been replaced and are now being changed regularly every year. Station buildings are being reconstructed and new installation and safety devices introduced.

Only someone who has travelled in Poland in 1918 or 1919 over the devastated areas can fully realise the disastrous state of the railway services at that time. Station buildings were

replaced by wooden huts, railway officials were compelled to live in coaches. The trains were seldom heated and had to slow down when passing over temporarily reconstructed bridges. If we add to this the almost unbelievable over-crowding of trains, we have a true picture of Polish railways of that period. To-day all this has disappeared. Most stations have been rebuilt; coaches are well equipped; a regular service of fast trains is maintained on all the more important routes; all trains are punctual and keep with precision to the Time Tables.

It is worth mentioning here that within the territory of the former Congress Kingdom there are about 470 km. of railway lines which were constructed provisionally by the military authorities. These lines, which at present satisfy partly the need for railway services in that part of the country, must be entirely reconstructed and equipped with the usual

plant and installations.

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3. Rolling Stock.

The railway gauge in Poland was not uniform throughout the country. Whereas the railways in the former Austrian and German parts were built on a normal gauge, all railways in the former Russian provinces, with the exception of the Warsaw-Vienna and Warsaw-Łódź lines, had the Russian gauge, which is wider than the normal one. The rolling stock differed accordingly. The Russians, retreating under the pressure of the oncoming German armies, took with them practically the whole rolling stock which was used for services in the Polish provinces. The Germans, marching into Russia gradually re-laid the railway lines on their route, and were subsequently able to use their own stock on Russian railways. However, in autumn 1918, the authorities of occupation, foreseeing the impending disaster, evacuated the bulk of the railway stock, leaving behind them only old type locomotives and coaches. The position was better in the former Austrian provinces, where Poland inherited from Austria a considerable supply of serviceable railway stock and equipment. By virtue of the Treaty of Versailles Poland was granted some rolling stock from Germany, and also from Austria under the Repartition agreement between the Successor States. It is evident from all this that during the first years of Poland's independent existence the condition of the railway stock was disastrous. This position could not be ameliorated by

the execution of the necessary repairs, since most of the repairing works in the former Russian provinces were completely destroyed by the War. Under such circumstances the Polish Government was compelled to purchase considerable quantities of rolling stock abroad, and to establish Locomotive Works in the country. The extent of these purchases is evident from the appended Table III.:—

Table III.

Specification.	1919.	1920.	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.	Total.
Locomolsves-						1	
Purchased abroad	10	198	95	102	130	76	620
in Poland	_			10	13	34	57
Withdrawn from circula-							
tion	-	2	31	60	32	145	270
Passenger coaches—							
Purchased abroad		See .	80	6	21		107
" in Poland	15	30	40	203	25	50	363
Withdrawn from circula-				,			
tion	-	-	47	40	336	89	512
Goods waggons-							
Purchased abroad		4,600	953	100	5,157	3,527	14,427
in Poland	170	26	200	1,927	5,289	3,913	11,534
Withdrawn from circula-						0.17	
tion	-	242	1,029	547	1,297	887	4,002

To-day, there are in Poland three locomotive works and five establishments manufacturing railway coaches. The destroyed repairing works have been, for the most part, reconstructed, and Poland can already repair or replace her rolling stock from her own resources.

The following Table IV. shows the average numbers of rolling stock on Polish railways in the fourth quarter of each of the four last years (1921–1924), i.e., since the settlement of Poland's eastern frontiers. The rolling stock of the Upper Silesian railways is included in the figures of 1923 and 1924. The table also shows the number of locomotives and waggons withdrawn from circulation, whether temporarily or permanently. Figures concerning the rolling stocks of Germany, France, Great Britain and the United States are shown by way of comparison.

The figures in this table show that the strength of rolling stock on Polish railways is steadily increasing, and the number

Table IV

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U.S.A.	1921.	367,618	64,931	3	ı	1	1	1	104,391	700	1	1	1	1	2,344,787	8.69	1	1	1	1	
Great Britain.	1921.	32,420	25,326		1	1	1	1	54,089	16.7	-	1	1		S12,245		1	1		ĭ	
France.	1921-2.	39,170	17,316	t	1	-	1	1	29,768	2.6	1	1	1	1	452,262	115.5		1	1	i	
Germany.	1922.	52,083	30,831	7	1	E	1	1	89,038	17.1	1	-	1	1	~06,244	135 6	ļ	i	1	i	
	1924.	16,792*	5,081		T,373	27-0	3,711	2 . 2]	169'11	2.0	2,356	20-I	9,335	5.36	128,997	26.8	15,669	12.1	113,128	67.3	
Poland.	1923.	16,583	5,079	,	2,031	0.01	3,048	r.84	11,983	7.2	2,880	24.0	9,103	5 .49	124,916	75+3	18,732	I 5 0	106,184	0.49	
Pol	1922.	16,027	4,403		1,686	38.2	2,722	I.70	9,701	6.1	3,173	32.7	6,528	4-07	100,523	62.9	16,334	16.2	84,489	32.7	
	1921.	15,611	4,132		1,710	41.4	2,422	1.55	9,297	0 9	2,318	24.9	6,979	4-47	79,535	91.0	13,963	9 61	65,572	42-0	
Specification.		I. Average length of Railway System	otives	= =	culation	5. Percentage of Total number	6. Locomotives in circulation	7. Per 1 km	Passenger Coaches,	9. ,, per 10 km	circulation	II. Percentage of Total No	12. Passenger Coaches in circulation	13. ,, per 1 km	14. Goods Waggous	rs. ,, per ro km	culation	17. Percentage	18. Goods Coaches in circulation	19. " per 1 km	

Including 140 km, of railways in the free city of Danzig.

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of locomotives and waggons withdrawn from circulation gradually declining. In consequence the numbers have increased as follows: Locomotives—43 per cent., Passenger coaches—24 per cent., and Goods waggons by 61 per cent. Compared with the great European States these figures are very modest, although they exceed the corresponding figures relating to the railways of the United States.

The railway stock as it is at present is sufficient to meet the demands for transport accommodation, and there is no shortage of rolling stock similar to that experienced in the first years of Poland's independent existence.

4. Transports.

The figures concerning the numbers of passengers and goods carried on Polish railways during the last four years are given in the following Table V. A comparison with similar figures relating to Germany, France, Great Britain and the U.S.A. is also appended:—

Table V.

		Po	land.		Ger- many,	France.	Great Britain.	U.S.A.
	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.*	1922.	1921-2.	1921.	1921.
No. of Description								
No. of Passengers millions	122	140	160	148	2,902	635	1,819	1,034
No. of Persons-kilo-								
meters millions	7,269	8,959	9,552	8,436	77.962	-	21,312	_
Persons — kilometers per 1 km	161	473	561	502	1,497 :	_	657	_
Average journey per		V						
person km.	60	64	57	57	27	name.	12	Acce
Goods carried (ooo tons)	27.054	40.210	76 208	81.031	434.220	170.228	230,387	1,907,799
Tons-kilometers	-/1934	101120	7 7,290	01/33	13413	1-791-4-	-39,3-1	-17-111)
(millions)	5,153	8,753	10,520	11,306	68,122	_	21,825	_
Tons-kilometers per			628	Gra	- 008		673	
i km Average journey per	336	549	020	673	1,308		0/3	
I ton km.	182	217	138	138	156		91	-
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^{*} Provisional figures.

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It is evident from this Table that the numbers of passengers and goods carried on Polish railways are steadily increasing. It must, however, be noted that the advance in 1923 as compared with the preceding year was due to the incorporation of Upper Silesian Railways into the Polish Railway system.

The comparison between Polish railway statistics and those of other countries illustrates some very interesting facts. Thus, the average journey per one passenger in Poland is considerably longer than that in Great Britain (500 per cent.), and Germany (200 per cent.). In consequence, the number of "persono-kilometres" per 1 km. in England is only 17 per cent. greater than in Poland, although the number of passengers carried in the former country is nearly 12 times larger than that in Poland.

It may be concluded from these figures that the intensity of transport traffic on Polish railways practically equals that of Great Britain, although it is still considerably smaller than that of Germany. Taking, however, into consideration the present unsatisfactory state of Polish industries, it can be said that the transport activities on Polish railways will grow in intensity in the near future. In this connection, the establishment of trade relations with Russia will have a tremendous influence, since the volume of transit transport will necessarily increase. In view of her geographical position Poland must form the most important link between Western Europe and Russia. According to very detailed calculations, 58 million tons of cargo from Russia passed through Poland on its way to Western Europe before the war and 26 million tons in the reverse direction. To-day the position is quite different, but it is obvious that it cannot remain such. Russia must sooner or later enter into regular trade relations with the countries of Western Europe, and must to a greater or lesser extent use Polish railways for the transportation of goods. The transit transport to-day forms but 6 per cent. of the total volume of transport:-

5. Volume of Traffic.

Detailed figures as regards the volume of traffic and its relation to the rolling stock possessed by the Polish railways are given in the following Table VI. Similar figures for foreign railways are not available, so that a direct comparison is not possible.

THE RAILWAYS IN POLAND.

Table VI.

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Specification.	1921.	1922.	1923.	1924.
Average length of railway system km	15,356	15,955	16,583	16,716
Passenger trains— km.	33,535 24,877	43,940 32,522	51,626 37,721	49.777 34,29 ²
Total km,	58,412	76,462	89,357	84,069
Average No. of trains per day per km.— Parsenger service	6·0 4·4	7·6 5·6	8·5 6·2	8·2 5·6
Total	10-4	13.2	14.7	13.8
Average composition of trains— Passenger serviceaxles Goods service Average number of passengers per train Average load per goods train tons Average load per one axle of goods trains ,,	26·1 78 9 217 207 2·63	27·6 204 269 3·57	27·5 185 279 3·45	26·5 ————————————————————————————————————

It is evident from these figures that with the increase of the volume of traffic the number of trains was also increased, though in different proportions for passenger and goods services. The increase in the number of passenger trains was proportionately greater than that in the numbers of passengers carried. This was warranted by the desire to avoid the over crowding of trains and secure a more comfortable journey for the passengers. A reverse process can be observed as regards goods trains. This is explained by the fact that the number of waggons per train was increased together with the individual load of each waggon. This systematic policy has already borne excellent results. The average load of a goods train was increased by 35 per cent. in 1923 and by 59 per cent. in 1924 as compared with 1921. The average load per axle has also increased by 31 and 52 per cent. respectively.

6. Railway Administration.

All railways in Poland are administered by a separate Ministry of Railways. Prior to the war they were owned almost entirely by the Governments of Russia, Germany and Austria respectively. Only two lines in the former Russian provinces with a total length of 210 km. were owned privately, but during the war they were taken over by the German and

Austrian military authorities, and from the latter by the Polish Administration, so that at present all normal railway

lines are administered and exploited by the State.

The railways of the former Russian provinces were during the war administered by the Austrian and German authorities of occupation. After the Armistice these were deserted by the retreating Germans and taken over by Polish railwaymen, who were then returning from Russia, whither they had been evacuated during the Russian retreat of 1915. Their work was so efficient that there was practically no interruption in the services. In the former Austrian provinces the railways were staffed by Polish railwaymen who remained after the establishment of Polish administration. The position in the former German parts was most difficult, since the whole railway staff was German. In the beginning most of the Germans continued to perform their duties, but they were gradually replaced by Poles, so that at present the whole personnel is Polish.

The whole railway system is divided into nine sections—three in each province. The three sections in the former Austrian province alone remained within their pre-war limits. In the former Russian parts one section was formed from the railways of that part of the former Congress Kingdom which was occupied by the Germans, another from those occupied by the Austrians. The third section was originally taken over by Polish military authorities in the eastern provinces. In the former German parts, sectors of four German sections were formed into three new sections. There are considerable differences between the volume of traffic passing over each section, and a more rational division of the railway system is

being considered.

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The internal organisation of these Sections is as yet not uniform. Only the three in the former Austrian provinces have uniform organisation modelled on Austrian precedents. New and uniform regulations for the organisation of Railway Sections have now been prepared, and are being introduced throughout the nine Sections. The Regulations are based on the Departmental system, i.e., each branch of Railway activities is concentrated in an autonomous department. The heads of Sections and of the various departments have been granted wider authority as regards administrative, technical and economic matters, so as to ensure a more efficient service, and to avoid unnecessary inter-departmental correspondence.

7. Financial Position.

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The results of Polish Railway exploitation could not possibly be excellent up to the present time. Apart from general postwar conditions, the dearth of labour, etc., Poland was confronted with other difficulties. Damages caused by the war required enormous sums for the reconstruction and maintenance of railway plant. Sleepers, and even rails, had to be replaced, new station buildings erected, and the rolling stock increased. It was impossible to raise the railway tariff without imperilling the welfare of the reviving trade and industries. Thus, the Railway Administration could, in the best case, hope only to balance revenue and expenditure. Since 1924 the Railway Budget was separated from the general State Budget and the Railways were confronted with the absolute necessity of balancing their own Budget, since they could not hope for any of the subsidies from the Treasury which had been granted heretofore. The Budget Estimates of the Railways for 1924 were closed with a surplus of revenue over expenditure amounting to 21 million zlotys. In consequence of very stringent economies, the 1924 Budget will be closed, according to provisional data, with a surplus of 62 million zlotys. This satisfactory result shows that Polish Railways can already subsist without financial aid from the Treasury.

The above sketch proves that, in spite of the tremendous difficulties with which Polish Railways had to contend during the first few years of their independent existence, they have developed so well that at present they are entirely adequate to meet the transport needs of the country. Their future development will not only improve the inland traffic, but will also satisfy the demands of the International Traffic.

8. Freight Tariffs of the Polish Railways.

The freight traffic may be divided, according to the mode of transportation, into express and ordinary consignments.

As regards their weight, the goods are divided into small consignments weighing under 5,000 kg., half-waggon consignments weighing 5,000 kg. and over, and full-waggon consignments weighing 10,000 kg. and over.

The charges are calculated on the actual weight of the parcel (unless the tariff provides for a different mode of calculation), but for not less than 10 kg. in the case of express parcels and for 20 kg. for ordinary parcels.

The weight of small consignments is calculated for every 10 kg., whether full or not; while in half- and full-waggon consignments there is a flat rate up to 100 kg., every excess over this unit being counted for the next full 100 kg. The minimum charge for freight is 50 grosz for both ordinary and express traffic.

For the distance under 5 km, the charge is calculated for full 5 km. The charges for any distance from 6 to 50 km, is calculated for the actual number of kilometers, from 51 to 100 per zones of 5 km, and above 100 km, per zones of 10 km. When calculating the 5 and 10 km, zones parts of the zone

are reckoned as complete.

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The freight and other charges are calculated so as to obtain

a final figure which shall be divisible by 5.

Express traffic is divided in respect of tariff into two classes: A, normal express parcels; and B, reduced tariff express parcels (bread, yeast, fresh mushrooms, fresh vegetables, ice, meat, poultry and game, fresh fruits and berries, live plants, drinking water, etc.).

The charges for normal express parcels are calculated on the basis of express tariff, while those for reduced tariff express parcels are reckoned on the basis of Class I. of ordinary parcel tariff.

Ordinary parcels are divided in respect of tariff into nine normal classes and seven special classes. The class of each parcel is decided by existing lists of goods and their classification. Normal classes are divided into three kinds—viz., small parcel class, half-waggon class, ltem a (5,000 kg.), and full-waggon class, while the latter is divided into Item b, with charges for consignments of not less than 10,000 kg., and Item c for those of 15,000 kg. and over.

Ordinary Consignments—whole waggon loads. Special Classes. Grosz per 100 Kg.

Distance in Km.	A.	В.	c.	D.	E.	F.	Gb. 10,000 Kgs.	Gc. 150,000 Kgs.
100	60	60	55	50	50	45	43	40
200	100	95	85	80	75	65	63	55
300	135	120	105	105	90	80	80	70
100	160	130	120	125	105	95	95	82
500	175	140	130	140	116	105	107	92
600	190	150	140	150	125	115	118	100

The special classes are arranged for calculating charges for freight in respect of ordinary, full-waggon consignments.

The first six classes (A, B, C, D, E, and F) provide for one charge only, which corresponds with Item c above, and includes a charge for the full capacity of the waggon used for transportation of goods as a minimum. Class G is provided for two charges: Item b, with minimum charges for 10,000 kg.; and Item c, with minimum charges for 15,000 kg.

In order to facilitate the transit of goods over long distances, all tariffs are based on the differential principles—that is, the initial charges for the first km. decrease with the increase of distance. This differentiation is rather considerable, as the reduction per unit at the distance of, say, 600 km. is from

30 to 60 per cent. of the initial charge.

Simultaneously with the reform of Polish finances, special tariffs were introduced both for inland and export traffic for the purpose of developing home industries and of facilitating

the export of excess production.

To improve more particularly the cultivation of land, it was found necessary to lower as much as possible the tariffs for transportation of home-made artificial fertilisers, as well as of select seeds and of breeding stock. Further, in order to facilitate the supply of wood materials and coal for the whole population specially reduced inland tariffs were brought into operation, and in view of the fact that these commodities were plentiful in Poland, special export tariffs were introduced to encourage export of the excess production. In the case of wood, however, these facilities are granted mainly for finished materials, to encourage the development of the wood industry at home.

As a further measure intended to assist the industry there must be mentioned the lowering of charges for transport of raw materials to the factories, and the tariffs for finished goods exported. This policy is carried out by special tariffs for transport of crude oil to the home refineries as well as of iron ore, scrap iron, iron, steel, and limestone to their respective works; also of timber to the saw-mills and of flax, wool, and cotton to spinneries, etc. Special tariffs also provide for reduced charges for export of petroleum products, chemical products, ironware, glassware, earthenware, zinc, lead, wood pulp, matches, railway rolling stock, etc.

With a view of attracting foreign transit traffic through Polish railways, special tariffs were introduced for transit of eggs from the Ukrane, for Swedish ore from Danzig and Gdynia iron ore from Russia, machinery from Czechoslovakia and

Germany and of cattle from Latvia.

9. Rates for Passenger Fares and Luggage.

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The present passenger tariff corresponds more or less with the pre-war standards. As a basis for fixing the fares for passenger traffic, the price of 4 grosz per kilometer for the third class in ordinary train has been adopted.

This fare is reduced every 200 km. by 20 per cent.; the differential treatment does not, however, extend beyond the distance of 600 km. (4, 3.6, 3.2, 2.8).

Thus, for instance, for the distance of 800 km. the unit of price amounts to 3.4 grosz per kilometer.

The second class fare is $r_{\frac{1}{2}}$ times and the first class fare $2\frac{1}{2}$ times higher than the third class.

In the parts of Poland which formerly belonged to Germany (Danzig, Poznań and Upper Silesia) there also exists a fourth class tariff, which is 33·3 per cent. cheaper than third.

The prices of tickets are calculated per kilometer up to 50 km., from 51 km. up to 100 km. per 5 km. zone, and above 100 km. per 10 km. zone.

The express train tariff provided for a supplementary fare amounting to 25 per cent. of the ordinary train fare, this supplement being calculated on the basis of 100 km. zones.

Reserved seats are charged at the rate of 1 zloty for third class, 1.50 zloty for second, and 2.50 zlotys for first class.

For travelling between any two stations at least 100 km. apart special season tickets may be issued for the period of one month, a season (four summer months), or one year.

The price of monthly tickets amounts to the cost of 20 single journeys between the two stations, while the season ticket (four summer months) costs three times and yearly tickets nine times the price of the monthly ticket.

School children are granted 50 per cent. reduction of fares while travelling to their homes for holidays and vacations, as well as when they are taking part in educational excursions organised by the school. When travelling daily to and from school they are granted a reduction of 75 per cent. of the cost of their monthly tickets.

Apart from the above there exist several other reduced tariffs for various kinds (or classes) of travel.

Table showing Scale of Freightage per 100 kgs. in gross.

3,000 Kgs,	10,000 Kgs.	2,000 15,000 Kgs. Kgs.	Cl. 1.	Consignments.	cl. III. KRS.	Cl. III.a 5,000 Kgs.	C. 111.6 10.000 Kgs.	Waggon Loads. Waggon Loads. Cl. III.c Cl. IV.a Cl. IV.a	Waggon Loads. THL.c Cl. IV.a S.000 Kgs.	Cl. IV.b ro,ooo Kga.	Cl. 1V.c 15.000 Kgi.
90		253	22.5	200	180	180	170	160	160	150	1,10
555	505	455	405	360	325	325	308	200	790	270	250
775		635	565	800	450	+50	425	100	100	375	350
300		293	703	620	260	360	530	500	500	465	430
,133	H	728	825	720	650	650	615	580	580	540	200
270	-	1,040	925	800	725	725	688	650	650	\$09	860

Ordinary Consignments half and whole waggon loads.

IX.6 15.88 Kgs.	197
Cl. IX.b 10,000 Kgs.	50 80 105 124 139
IX.a 5.000 Kes.	1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
Cl. VIII.c	55 90 120 140 155
Cl. VIII.6 ro,000 Kgs.	60 100 135 160 180 195
CI. VIII.a 5.000 Kgs.	65 110 150 180 205 215
CI. VII.c 15,000 Kgs.	1000
Cl. VII.6 Io,000 Kgs.	24 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
Cl. VII.a 5.000 Kgs.	200 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
Cl. VI.c 15,000 Kgs.	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
CI. VI.b	2 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6
CI. VI.a 5.000 Kgs.	1005 1900 270 405 405 465
Cl. V.c 15,000 Kgs	190 190 270 340 465
CI. V.b 10,000 Kgs.	123 223 220 310 385 513
Cl. V.# 5,000 Kgs.	140 250 330 430 500 500
Dis-	100 200 300 400 500 600

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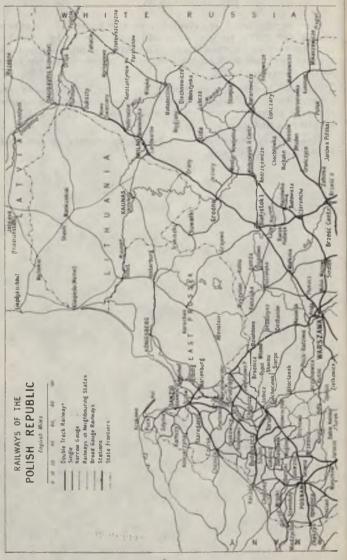
THE RAILWAYS IN POLAND.

The luggage tariff is calculated on the basis of a uniform charge per every 10 km. zone and for every 10 kg. whether per ordinary or express train. The initial charge amounts to 6 grosz per zone and 10 kg., and it is differentiated similarly to the passenger tariff.

Express parcels are charged 25 per cent. in excess of the luggage tariff, and when carried by an express train a supplementary charge of 75 grosz for every 10 kg. is charged, irrespective of distance.

Newspapers, magazines and books are charged 40 per cent. below the luggage tariff.

THE RAILWAYS IN POLAND

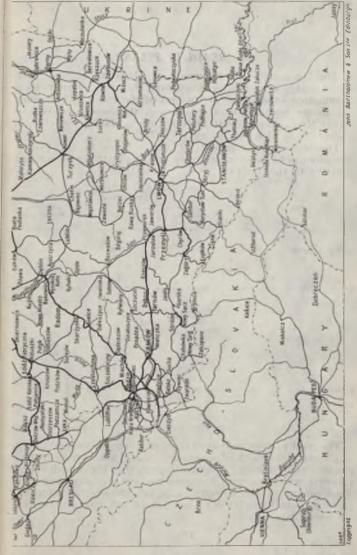


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II .- ROADS IN POLAND.

The economic development of Poland having been deliberately arrested by the three Empires during their domination—that is, from the end of the eighteenth century up to the restoration of freedom at the conclusion of the Great War—the present territory of the Polish Republic is exceptionally deficient in roads.

The following comparison of data relating to the United Kingdom and Poland respectively, vividly illustrates the present LEURWROWNAKUST

position in this respect :---

State.	Area iu Square Miles.	Population in thousands.	Density of Population. Per Square Mile.
United Kingdom	126,000	46,00G	367
Poland	155,400	27,200	172

	Total	Total	Mileage of	Highways.
State.	Mileage of Highways.	Mileage óf Railways.	Per 1,000 Inhabitants.	Per One Mile Railways.
United Kingdom	 230,000	21,000	50	9 6
Poland	 27,330	16,652	1.0	1.6

The road system in Poland is so strikingly disproportionate to the natural wealth of a country, occupying, as regards size, the fifth place among European Powers, that the remedying of this evil, which hampers the economic and the administrative development of the country, will be one of the principal problems which the Polish Government will have to face in the immediate future.

1. Roads in Poland (1922).

(0) /11	ounty	LGB0		Ro	pads.	Total.	Per every
art of the	Julity	100	- LID	National.	County.	Total.	Area.
me wife	1.1	auto-A			Length in K	ilometers.	THE RESERVE
Warsaw		17.5		1,550	1,224	2,574	8.7
Lodz		* 1		758	725	1,483	7.8
Kielce		4.4		936	1,242	2,178	8.5
Lublin				1,266	1 180	2,455	7.9
Bialystok Wilno	1 4			1,528	813	2,341	7.2
Nowogrodek				767	6=.		
Polesie				1,771	674	2,445	10.6
Wolhynia				1,710	729	2,439	5.9
Poznan.		- ''		I,323 I,300	1,133	2,456	0.2
Pomorze				810			
Krakow				954	1,068	2,021	11.6
Lwow	1, 1			1,207	844	2,051	7.6
Stanislawow				660	620	1,280	7 0
Tarnopol				816	600	1,416	8-7
Silesia				_	_	-,,,,,	
Total	• •	-72		16,399		_	-

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To bring the present road system in Poland to a state comparable with that existing in the United Kingdom would require the construction of about 250,000 miles of new roads. Reducing, for the time being, the scheme of road construction to one tenth of the total requirement—that is, to 25,000 miles only (40,000 km.)—the Polish Government intends to adopt the following course:—

Of the 25,000 miles of new highways intended for construction, about 4,700 miles belong to the category of so-called national roads, the cost of which will be borne entirely by the Polish Treasury. These roads will be constructed mostly in the eastern districts of the country and they will be of primary importance for the exploitation of natural resources of these districts, such as extremely fertile soil and rich stone quarries in the south and enormous stretches of forest lands in the north.

These considerations have prompted the Polish Government to speed up the construction scheme so as to complete it within the next ten or, at the most, fifteen years. The approximate cost of these roads is estimated at f7,500,000 to f8,000,000.

The remaining roads, which belong to the category of roads built by local self-government bodies, will have to be con-

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structed by the communal authorities themselves. In this case, the Government will grant a subsidy for construction, which will amount to 20 per cent, of the total cost, and will assist local authorities in procuring long credit by Treasury guarantees of interest and principal on bonds issued by the local authorities for the purpose of obtaining funds for the construction.

Considering that the whole population of Poland badly needs adequate roads and that their construction cannot be deferred any longer, while, on the other hand, economic exhaustion brought about by the war, together with the present lack of capital, do not permit immediate investment of so huge a sum of \$40,000,000 by the country itself, it is obvious that foreign capital must be approached for assistance. For the latter, such investment should prove to be both profitable and safe, as its application would considerably strengthen the economic position of the country and increase its sources of revenue, while the invested capital would carry the full guarantee of the Polish Government.

As a first step in carrying out the scheme of road construction may be considered the proposed development of the network of suburban roads in the environs of Warsaw. This scheme contemplates the construction of about 440 miles of highways in the radius of 20 to 25 miles round Warsaw at a cost of £1,200,000. These roads will be of considerable importance, as they will promote development of garden suburbs, facilitate the food supply of the capital and industrialise its environs.

The construction of new roads and the maintenance of existing ones will require a large quantity of stone, as the normal requirements should gradually increase up to 10,000,000 cubic metres a year. The present output of stone represents only an insignificant fraction of this quantity, and it is, therefore, an urgent matter to develop the stone industry extensively. This too, would offer a good investment for capital, as the demand for stone is assured in Poland for many years. As suitable for exploitation may be mentioned the granite and andesit in the Carpathians, basalt and granite in Volhynia, and diabese and porphyry in the neighbourhood of Kraków.

2. Motor-cars.

Poland is far from being adequately provided with motorcars. The curve indicating the increase in the number of motor-cars used in Poland suggests that within the next year or so this number will be at least trebled, and should henceforth increase by geometrical progression. Along with the increase of motor-cars in Poland will also grow the demand for tyres, etc.

The number of regular motor services in Poland is at present quite insignificant, and big possibilities of further development are obvious. It is not improbable that the concern or individual by whom a new road will be constructed may be granted the monopoly of the whole motor traffic along such road.

Further development of motor traffic in Poland will naturally require corresponding improvements in the surface of the roads, and this will, in turn, promote the establishment of new works,

producing road tar, etc.

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According to the latest available statistics, the development

of automobile traffic in Poland is increasing rapidly.

The total number of registered vehicles on July 1, 1924 was 7,501, of which 5,486 were passenger cars and 2,015 lorries. There were besides 934 motor cycles.

The position on July 1, 1925 was as follows: Total of cars registered: 13,064, of which 10,457 were passenger cars, while 2,607 were lorries. The number of motor-cycles increased to 2,122.

III.—THE WATERWAYS IN POLAND.

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1. General Conditions.

The geographical position of Poland is most advantageous for the development of her waterways. This statement is fully justified by the following circumstances:—

(1) The surface of the country is more level than that of

any other territory;

(2) It will be seen from the map that the position of rivers in relation to the frontiers is most satisfactory. The main river, the Vistula, strikes a middle line across the country;

(3) In consequence of the position of the estuary of the Vistula in the south-eastern corner of the Baltic the adjoining port is situated further inland than any other harbour in Europe. This makes it most suitable as a terminal harbour for the transport of cargo proceeding to and from the Continent;

(4) Between the tributaries of the Vistula, the Bug, and that of the Dnieper, on the Prypet, lies the lowest point of the main European watershed from the Pyrenees to the Ural mountains. Thus, whereas the points of watershed reaches of the Rhine-Main-Danube and the Rhine-Neckar-Danube Canals are situated at 559 and 405 meters respectively above sea level, and the construction of these canals traversing a mountainous country, necessitates greater expenditure not only for the main navigable canals but also for the subsidiary ones, the watershed between the Rivers Bug, and Prypet is a plain abundant in water, through which runs the main canal connecting the Dnieper with the Vistula.

2. Hydraulic and Climatic Conditions.

Poland is situated in the temperate zone of rainfalls which average from 500 to 650 mm. per annum, and only in the Carpathians is the maximum of 1,000 mm. reached. The volume of water carried per second in the Vistula (above the R. Nogat) is 10,440 cubic meters at high water level, 1.120 m³, at mean and 450 m³. at average low water.

The maximum high water occurs at spring tide, usually in March. The maximum difference between water levels in the Vistula at different times in 1924 was 5.5 m. at Warsaw and as much as 8 m. at Tczew. In the Niemen the difference was 7 m. (at Druskieniki), in the Warta 6.9 m. (at Poznań), in the Prypet

5 m. and in the Dniester 5.7 m.

The following table shows the periods during which the rivers are free from ice. These periods are reckoned from the

disappearance of drift ice in spring until its reappearance in autumn:—

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River	Vistula	 	 from	239-286	days.
22	Warta	 	 > 2	270-295	11
99	Niemen	 	 2.2	223-245	2.2
,,	Dniester	 	 11	253-279	2.2
	Prynet			205 20G	

Navigation, however, is not always impossible during the entire period of freezing. The ice drifts at intervals and the rivers are frequently navigable between the periods of freezing. In some winters the Vistula does not freeze at all; this occurred in seven years during the last two decades.

Flood-measuring posts are installed at about 300 points. Full particulars of water levels as well as other hydrographic data are published in the Manual of the Ministry of Public Works

Ice-breaking steamers are employed to facilitate the clearing of ice in the estuary of the Vistula.

It is to be hoped that, with a greater number of commodious winter harbours and with a general improvement of waterways, the winter interval in navigation will be reduced to about 60 or 70 days per annum.

II. Present Position. 3. Rivers.

The majority of Polish rivers, and among these are the most important ones, like the Vistula, Bug and Prypet, flow in alluvial valleys between low and sandy banks which are being constantly washed away by the stream, thus causing sanding of the bed. Unless the banks are reinforced and a stable channel is maintained by regulation, these rivers cannot flow in any defined channels. Unfortunately, only part of the rivers are thus regulated. The majority are still in very primitive condition, and this applies particularly to rivers in the former Russian provinces. Russia expended very little on the regulation of her rivers, and even then confined herself to rivers in Russia proper, leaving her Western waters in statu naturali. At the same time, the Russian Government has continually refused any local autonomy in these matters.

The condition of the main Polish river, the Vistula, is as follows:-

Dams protecting the adjoining plains against floods are built along the whole of the river and are maintained by local communities. Some of these dams were built as far back as the sixteenth century and, consequently, their construction is

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not always satisfactory.

The lower part of the Vistula-namely, from the former Russo-German frontier to the estuary—was regulated throughout its length of 222 kilometers by the Prussian Government between 1835 and 1900 at a cost of 13,700,000 marks. In order to protect the Danzig plain from floods a new estuary was dredged in 1895 near Schievenhorst. The former branches of the Vistula-namely, the Danzig Vistula on the left and the Nogat on the right—have been separated from the river by locks, so that at present all waters of the Vistula flow into the sea through the estuary at Schievenhorst.

Since spur dikes have been employed exclusively in the regulation of the river even this lower part still requires additional regulation, so that a constant depth of water of, say, seven feet can be maintained. The natural bed of the Vistula from above the former Russo-German frontier to the mouth of the San is in a most neglected condition, carrying large quantities of sand sediment which makes the deepening of the lower part

very difficult.

Above the mouth of the San the Vistula forming the former Austro-Russian frontier has been regulated for a distance of 185 kilometers in accordance with an international Convention. Up to 1914 both Governments had expended about 25,000,000 zlotys, and 75 per cent. of the necessary work has now been completed.

The only other regulated river in Poland is the Warta, from the former Russo-German frontier, and some of the affluents of the Vistula in the former Austrian provinces. Other rivers

are in a state of neglect.

The natural attributes of these rivers, such as abundance of water and mild slopes, lead us to believe that many of them which to-day are not even suitable for the drifting of rafts, may, after a thorough regulation, be capable of carrying vessels of from 100 to 300 tons. The main rivers, such as the Vistula, Prypet, Narew, Niemen, Bug and Styr, may even become navigable for vessels of 400-600 tons.

The Ministry of Public Works is preparing plans for the complete regulation of the Vistula, the Bug and other rivers. was A certain amount of work has already been done in 1923 and the 1924 in the former Russian provinces, and the sum of 8,000,000 occ zlotys per annum has been earmarked for the regulation of is e

waterways.

Unfortunately, this sum is far from sufficient, for the total cost of regulation of navigable and drift rivers in Poland is estimated at 800 million zlotvs, which, even spread over 30 years, represents the sum of about 27 million zlotys per annum. It is to be hoped, however, that in the near future such expenditure will not exceed the financial capacity of the country.

4. Waterways.

The following waterways run through Polish territory

(including the Free City of Danzig) :-

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I. THE BYDGOSZCZ (BROMBERG) CANAL, reconstructed in 1914-16 for vessels of 400 tons, connects the Vistula with the The canal includes two canalised rivers—namely, the Noteć (Netze) and the Brda. It is used mostly for the transport of cargo from East Prussia to Germany.

2. THE NOGAT, a branch of the Vistula canalised since 1915, forms part of the waterway from the Oder via the Bydgoszcz Canal and the Vistula to Königsberg and further to Memel and the Niemen (via the Rivers Pregel and Deime,

the Frederick Canal and the Courland Bay).

3. THE VISTULA-FRISIAN BAY CANAL is situated entirely on the territory of the Free City and used for local traffic only.

4. THE UPPER NOTEC (NETZE) CANAL from Lake Gopto to the Bydgoszcz Canal is of local importance serving a very fertile

country with a flourishing sugar industry.

5. The Augustów Canal was built in 1825 for the purpose of establishing communication between the Vistula and the Niemen, whence a further canal was to be built to Windau, With the construction of railways this canal lost much of its importance, and since the Rivers Narew and Biebrza, forming part of the Vistula-Niemen system, were not regulated the navigation of larger vessels is very difficult, and the canal is used at present almost exclusively for the transportation of timber.

6. THE OGINSKI CANAL connects the Niemen with the Prypet and Dnieper and is used for the drifting of timber

from the adjoining forests (Polesie).

7. THE ROYAL CANAL was built during the reign of King me Stanislas August, but was widened and reconstructed in 1843-46 by the Russian Government. To facilitate the transthe port of timber and in view of the abundance of water this canal ers. was fitted only with mobile pin weirs, which are opened for and the passing of rafts. Thus a great wastage of water is occasioned; and by the end of the summer a shortage of water of is experienced in the reservoirs—that is, in the several lakes connected by fidger (subsidiary) canals.

When the water is abundant (April-May) the canal can be used by large vessels. The large Dutch dredgers lying in the Dnieper passed through this canal on their way from Holland.

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During the years 1911-16 the Russian Government was busy preparing plans for the construction of canals for the use of 1,600-ton vessels, but these plans have never been carried out. The Polish Government is at present elaborating projects for the widening of this canal so as to make it navigable for 1,000-ton vessels. These projects are dealt with below.

5. Navigation.

The unsatisfactory conditions of the greater part of Polish waterways naturally hinder the development of water transport.

There is a considerable amount of traffic on the Vistula from Warsaw downwards, also on the Bydgoszcz Canal and on the Rivers Nogat and Warta. From Warsaw to Płock (100 kilometers) a regular service of comfortable steamers is maintained. Before the war there was also a direct line from Pinsk to Kieff. In view, however, of the present conditions in Russia this line has not been reopened.

The total floating stock of Poland (exclusive of the Free City of Danzig) consists of 156 steamers and about 300 barges,

apart from small craft, such as lighters, etc.

In addition to the regulation of rivers a system of dredging would also be of the greatest advantage to river navigation. Unfortunately, the Russian Government has not supplied a single modern dredger for use on the Vistula, although it has provided 25 for the Dnieper and over 40 for the Volga. At present the dredging stock on the Vistula consists of a few old-type dredgers with a capacity of 90 cubic metres per hour.

The Polish Government intends to supply the Vistula with the necessary number of modern-type dredgers. The most suitable for this kind of work are suction dredgers with a capacity of 150-300 cubic meters per hour and a maximum

draught of o 8 meter.

Buoys indicating navigable channels are placed on the Vistula from Warsaw downwards. These are illuminated at night, and there is a regular night service between Warsaw

and Plock.

Navigation tolls have been introduced on all Polish waterways (see Journal of Laws, No. 52, 1924). These tolls are comparatively low. Thus a barge carrying a cargo of boards weighing 400 tons would pay only 200 zlotys for the whole

distance of the Bydgoszcz Canal (175 kilometers). This amounts to about 0.28 groszy per ton per kilometer. On the natural waterways the tolls are considerably lower.

The chief navigation concerns are the United Navigation

Company of Warsaw and the Lloyd of Bydgoszcz.

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6. Natural Waterways.

	O. Hatulal V	A WPCT M	aya.			
		1	Maxi- mum	De	epth of w	vater.
	_	Length in kms	net ton- nage of ves- sels.	Average low water.	Mean water.	Average slope.
I.	River Vistula from the River Przemsza	1	1	m.	m.	1 %
	to Krakow	80	30	0 5	0.8	0.36
2.	,, to the River San	200	80	0.6	0 0	0.28-0.35
3.		232	200	0.7	1.0	0.26
1.	" to Modlin	34	300	0.7	1.1	0.34
5.	to Torui	177	400	0.8	1.2	0.18
6,	,, to Swiec	79	400	1 0	2.0	0.18
7.	,, to Tczew	91	600	1.2	2:3	0.18
8,	, to Einlage	28	1,000	1-7	2.8	0.11
9.	" to the sea	4	1,000	2.7	3.8	0.03
lu.	" near Danzig (two locks					
	12.5×61 m.)	IQ	770	2.5	2:5	0
PI.	Danzig harbour	10	5,000	8.5	8.5	0
	Old estuary near Neufahr	8	400	3.0	3'0	0
13.	River Vistula, near Elblag (lock					
	12.5× 61 m.)	25	400	2 0	2.7	0
14.	River Vistula, near Königsberg	II	400	1.6	2.3	0
15.	River Bug from Sokal to Dorohusk	210	100	0 9	1.2	0.10
16.	to Brzese	148	100	0.5	0.8	0 30
17.	to Serock	384	150	0.6	0 0	0.12-0.32
17.	,, to Modlin	37	300	0.8	1.1	0.12
lg.	River Narew from River Biebrza to					
	Pultusk	197	100	0.5	0 0	0 05-0·I
30.	River Narew to River Bug	25	150	0.6	I O	0.17
21,	River Biebrza	70	70	0-4	0.8	0 13
22.	River Przemsza	23	25	0.5	0 0	0 39
23.	River San	90	70	0.6	0-9	0.27
4.	River Warta from Konin to Pyzdry	50	70	0.5	0.9	0.20
15.	" to Poznań	108	250	0.7	1.5	0.17
6.	to German frontier	123	450	1.0	1.9	0.15-0.27
27.	River Niemen from River Szczara to	_				
	Lithuanian frontier	183	200	0.7	1=0	0 00-0 23
8.	River Szczara (not canalised)	123	120	0.7	IO	0.53
	River Prypet from River Jasiolda to			- 1		3
	Russian frontier	133	400	0.7	II	0.05-0.20
0.	River Jasiolda from the Oginski Canal	62	150	0.7	I.I	0.10
	River Pina	59	400	0.8	1.2	0.10
	Rivers Strumien and Prostryn	60	150	1.2	2-0	0.00
	River Styr	180	150	1.2	2.0	0 08
	River Duester from Halicz to Za-		-			
, -	leszczyki	176	30	0.5	0.8	0-35-0-50
5.	River Dniester to Russian fronter	100	120	0.6	0.0	0.30
					7	- 3~
	Total	3,530	_			
_		21007 1				

The average number of days of low water level in the Vistula during the years 1902-21 was 110.3 days in sector (2), 839 in sector (3) and 97.8 in sector (5).

7. Canals and Canalised Rivers.

		Maxi-	Depth o	f water.		Locks.	
	Length in kms.	num net ton- nage of ves- sels.	Average low water.	Mean water,	No.	Length.	Width.
1. River Nogat	ба	400	in.	111.	4	in.	m.
2. River Vistula-Frisian Bay Canal	20	200	1.5	2 · 2	2	40	6.2
3. Bydgoszcz Canal and R Netze	175	450	1.5	2	22	57 4	9+6
4. Upper NetzeCanal and Lake Goplo	105	150	1 - 25	I 5	8	42	5
5. Augustow Canal	102	160	1 0	1 . 2	18	47-6	6-4
6. Ogiqski Canal and River Szczara	165	120	n-8	1.1	21	42-7	5.8
7. Royal Canal and River Muchawiec	170	200	0-7	1.0	20 {	mobile weirs	}14.9
Total	797		_	-	-		_

8. Drift Rivers.

						Length.	
1.	River Vistula		***	141		1,100]	km.
2.	River Niemen	. 64		111		400	,,
3.	Dnieper (Prypet)					1,000	,,
4.	Dniester			11.	161	400	,,
5.	Dźwina					100	,,
6.	Danube (Prut)					100	
							-
	Total	**	74.93	144		3,100 l	km.
			176				

9. Projected Artificial Waterways.

I.—Series.	New canals.	Canalised rivers, lakes and existing canals.	Locks.	Approx. cost of construc- tion in 1,000 zlotys.
	,			
A. The Coal Canal (1,000 ton)—	Km.	Km.		
ı, Katowice-Leczyca		Asam.	-	188,000
2. Leczyca-Lake of Gosławice	245		3	24,000
	72		4	
3. Lake Goslawice-Lake Goplo	10	39	1	5,000
4. Lake Goplo-Mouth of River				
Brda	36	50	7	33,000
T-4-1 A				
Total A	362	89	35	250,000
B. The West - Eastern Canal (1,000 ton)—			11 1-	
I. Poznań-Konin	67	50	4	40,000
2. Konin-Lake Goslawice	5	8	T T	6,000
3. Leczyca-Warsaw ,	140	I	4	53,000
4. Warsaw-Brzesc	117	128	11	70,000
5. Brzesc-Pinsk	25	165	6	49,000
J. 1747.030-4 11131L	~3	105	U	49,000
Total B	354	352	61	218,000
Total A and B	716	441	61	468,000
II.—Series. C. The Galician Canal (600 ton)— I. Katowice-Kraków	9.4			17-7
a V-1.4- Divo- Dut	85	6	10	70,000
	390		17	300,000
Total C	475	5	27	370,000

III. Projected Waterways.

10. Justification of Routes.

Even after their regulation, the Polish rivers alone will not satisfy the demands of local transport for the following reasons:—

I. The main stream of traffic does not coincide as regards its direction with the direction of the rivers.

2. The demands of modern navigation require greater depth of waterways than that which can be achieved even after the rivers have been regulated.

3. The beneficial results of regulation of rivers can be experienced only after all rivers have been regulated; this cannot be accomplished speedily, not only because of the lack of necessary funds, but also in view of the local shortage of materials, such as fascine, etc.

It is, therefore, necessary to establish meanwhile some artificial waterways for vessels of 600-1,000 ton capacity, which would serve those districts where a particularly heavy traffic of coal, timber, artificial manure, etc., is to be expected.

The Ministry of Public Works is already engaged in preparing plans for the construction of the following waterways:—

(1) The coal canal, from Katowice, in Upper Silesia, through the industrial towns of Częstochowa and Łódź to Łęczyca, thence through the Lakes Gosławice and Gopło into the Lower Vistula near Bydgoszcz. (An alternative suggestion is an outlet near Toruń.)

This canal would require two branches in order to connect Upper Silesia with Warsaw and Poznań—namely, one from Lake Gostawice to Poznań and the other from Leczyca to Warsaw.

- (2) The West-Eastern branches of the coal canal, together with its continuation eastwards of Warsaw to Pinsk, form the so-called West-Eastern waterway, which will consist partly of canals and partly of canalised rivers. The two canals form a cross with its central point near the industrial district of £6dź, and will, no doubt, become the most important arteries of communication in the country. Along these lines about 40 towns with a population of over 3,000,000 are situated. The entire coal industry, with an annual output of 36,000,000 tons, and at least 80 per cent. of the remaining Polish industries, are also concentrated along these lines.
- (3) In addition to these two main waterways the projected Galician canal is worth mentioning. This would run from Silesia viå Kraków to the Dniester; the plan has been already considered by the Austrian Government. Although the importance of this canal for the country, as well as for the possible export of coal from Rumania, would undoubtedly be great, yet, in view of the more difficult territorial conditions and the smaller volume of prospective traffic, this canal would only be constructed after the first two projects have been realised.

The coal canal would serve districts which even now consume over 12,000,000 tons of coal per annum; this is at present being delivered by rail over distances of from 200 km. (to £6dź) to 600 km. (to Danzig). The reduction in the cost

of transport will undoubtedly result in an increased consumption of coal, especially in the eastern districts, where wood is mainly used as fuel, and, by reducing the consumption of the latter, will increase its exports abroad. The coal canal would also reduce the cost of transport of iron ore from Danzig and Russia to Silesia as well as that of timber and foodstuffs.

The West-Eastern canal will form a continuation of the main trans-European waterway from the mouth of the Rhine

to that of the Dniester.

As soon as the canal from Hanover to the Elbe is completed Germany will have performed her share in the

construction of the main European waterway.

The direction of this canal is dictated not by geological processes, but by the demands of modern economic life. This assures it an immense traffic and consequently a large margin of profit.

11. Estimated Cost of Construction.

The Ministry of Public Works has been engaged during the last few years in research of the territory through which the proposed canals are to run. Plans and estimates of cost have been drafted in the meantime for a canal for 1,000 ton vessels with a depth of 3 m, and a surface breadth of 34 m. The estimated cost of construction of separate sectors will be seen on the appended Table (D). The total cost of the construction of the coal canal is estimated at 250,000,000 zlotys, that of the West-Eastern canal from Poznań to Pińsk at 220,000,000. Adding to this the cost of the regulation of the Lower Vistula and of the connections with the German and Russian waterway systems (through the canalisation of the Rivers Warta and Prypet respectively), together with the cost of construction of harbours and water power stations on the Warsaw-Brzesc canal (about 50,000 h.p.), the total cost will amount to 650,000,000 zlotys.

The average cost of construction of 1 km. of the coal canal, excluding lakes (390 km.), amounts to 640,000 zlotys; that of the West-Eastern canal, to 310,000 zlotys. These figures are comparatively low in view of the very advantageous territorial conditions and the cheapness of land, especially along the West-Eastern canal. The coal canal would lead through the River Brynica, which for 500 years formed the natural frontier between Poland and Silesia, and, in conse-

quence, would pass thickly-populated districts without the

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necessity of demolishing a single building.

Exploitation of water power up to about 20,000 h.p. is possible on the Warsaw-Brzesc canal, especially near Warsaw. This possibility makes the power most valuable, as it can be utilised for the lighting system of the city and for its electric railways.

12. Area of Prospective Traffic.

The reduction in the cost of mass transport by the development of waterways will be seen when rail and water transport charges are compared.

For the purpose of our calculations we will assume the

following charges :-

(1) On Polish railways the "C" tariff of 1925 for coal (lowest); (2) on canals, the canal tolls corresponding to those on German canals—namely, 0.6 groszy per ton km. and 0.3 groszy on canalised rivers. Thus the charge per ton for the whole distance from the German to the Russian frontier would be 5 zloty; and (3) on steamers, German pre-war charges. Thus we will arrive at the following:—

By Rail. By Water.

			-,		
		Zle	otys per Ton.	Zlotys per Ton	
From Katowice to Lodz			8 50	3.06	
, Warsaw			10.80	4.79	
Bydgoszcz		W	12.70	5.27	
From Pinsk to Danzig .			17.20	8.47	
DA			14.30	7.71	
From Ekaterynoslaw to Warsa	W	1000	30.90	9.53	
,, ,, Katow	vice		32.60	13.28	
Danzig	z		35-20	12.86	
,, Berlin			45.80	14.16	
Rotter	rdam	44	57.70	20.76	

It will be seen from the above table that the difference in favour of water transport amounts to from 5 to 7 zlotys within Poland and for transit loads from Russia to Germany

over 30 zlotys per ton.

Poland and Russia form an immense area, from which the canal transport of cargo to Western Europe will be much cheaper than even transport by sea with railway transport to the ports. The frontiers of this area of prospective traffic will be different for each point of destination. The borders of the territory for loading cargo to Antwerp and Rotterdam reach as far as Moscow and Kharkov. For nearer destinations—for example, to Hamburg and Berlin—the limits would extend more eastwards.

13. Estimated Traffic.

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In estimating the amount of traffic on the proposed waterways we have to take into consideration not only the existing demand for transport and its continuous increase, but also the fact that the existence of cheap waterways will cause new traffic and will attract cargoes which have hitherto been transported by other means.

On the territory of Poland in 1913 the transport by rail amounted to 16,000,000,000 tons/km. Three milliard of these were Russian loads. In 1921 the total transport amounted to 5,187,000,000 tons/km.; in 1923, 10,582,000,000; and in 1924, 12,000,000,000. These figures include hardly any transport from or to Russia. In view of the fact that, before the war, the amount of traffic in Russia and Germany was doubled on the average every ten or twelve years, we can assume that in about 15 years the demand in Poland for transport will reach at least 24 milliard tons/km., apart altogether from Russian loads. In Germany 27 per cent. of all loads were carried by waterways, in Russia 43 per cent.

In view of the very convenient position of the proposed waterways in relation to industrial and productive centres, it is to be hoped that the percentage of water transport will not be lower and that the Polish waterways will carry at least 30 per cent. of the total transport—that is, about 7 milliard tons/km.

In order to estimate the possible amount of transit traffic we have to examine the figures of pre-war transit between Russia and Western Europe. Thus in 1911 the volume of traffic to and from Russia was as follows:—

the same of the last his	From Russia.	To Russia.
1. Vad Russian ports on the Baltic 2. Black Sea 3. Azov Sea 4. By rail through the present territory	Thousand 6,400 5,600 4,200	Tons per Km, 6,600 3,000 450
of Poland	5,600	2,600
Total	25,500	12,650

Thus the transport in both directions amounted to about 30 million tons.

It can, therefore, be assumed that, in ten or fifteen years after the construction of the West-Eastern canal, the trade with Russia will return at least to its standard of fifteen years ago, and that at least 25 per cent. of all the traffic

from Russia to Western Europe will pass through this canal. This will amount to about 7,000,000 metric tons. Part of this tonnage will consist of iron ore (containing about 70 per cent. of iron), timber and agricultural products of the Ukraine. We will assume that out of the total transport 2,000,000 tons will be destined for Poland and the remaining 5,000,000 for Western Europe. A detailed calculation will show that, taking into consideration the volume of transport and the scale of charges, the total figures for such transport would be as follows:—

1040 43 .	Polish Internal Transport, Import and Export.	Transit Transport through Poland.
Tonnage	15,000,000	5,000,000
Volume of Traffic in tons per km. (000's omitted)	8,500,000	5,000,000
System zlotys Saving compared with Railway charges zlotys	52,000,000 128,000,000	30,000,000

Thus the total saving in transport charges which would benefit the entire European industry would amount to 300,000,000 zlotys per annum.

Another Important Saving.

Another important saving should also be considered. It is obvious that, since the transport specified above exceeds that of to-day, a corresponding addition to the transport equipment would have to be made.

There is no doubt that, in proportion to their respective carrying capacities, the cost of acquisition and maintenance of rolling stock exceeds greatly that of floating stock.

A further calculation will show that the cost of rolling stock will amount to 50,000 zlotys for every 1,000,000 tons/km. (ton/km. equals the transport of a ton over a kilometer); the corresponding figure for floating stock is only 20,000 zlotys.

We have assumed in our calculations that the estimated volume of transport on the Polish water system is 13,500,000,000 tons/km., including 5,000 000,000 tons/km. of transit transport. This latter, apart from passing through Polish waterways, will have to pass through at least the same distance in the neighbouring States. Thus, adding another 5,000,000,000 tons/km., we will arrive at the total of 18,500,000,000,000 tons/km.

Since the difference between the cost of rolling and floating stock amounts to 30,000 zlotys per 1,000,000 tons/km., the total saving would amount to 555,000,000 zlotys, which is practically the equivalent of the total cost of construction of the proposed canals. It follows from this that, if the canals are not to be built within a period of ten years at a cost of about 600,000,000 zlotys, the latter amount will have to be expended on rolling stock, both in Poland and in the neighbouring countries. At the same time, the cost of transport will be higher by 300,000,000 zlotys per annum.

The above figures are, of course, only estimates, but, being based on real and logical conclusions, they are sufficiently striking to emphasise the importance of Polish waterways

to the industrial and economic life of Europe.

Poland, no doubt, will be able to carry out these works sooner or later without foreign assistance. The importance, however, of these projects to the economic reconstruction of Europe is so great that it is to be hoped that other countries suffering less from the effects of the Great War will find it desirable and profitable to aid in the realisation of these schemes.

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IV .- THE PORTS OF POLAND.

1. GENERAL POSITION.

The transport capacity of the Port of Danzig in its present state of development is estimated at 4 million tons per annum.

In 1923, however, only 1,062,863 tons were exported from Danzig and 654,920 imported. The figures for 1924 are 1,636,485 tons and 738,071 tons respectively. Thus the volume of traffic in 1923 amounted to 1,717,783 tons and in 1924 to 2,374,556 tons.

It would appear from these figures that the capacity of the harbour is sufficient to meet the demands of Polish overseas trade, and that there is no urgent need for the development of Danzig, so as to increase its capacity. In reality, the position is quite different. It is sufficient to mention that when, in 1923, I million tons of timber were sent to Danzig for export overseas, the harbour was absolutely unprepared for dealing with this cargo. The harbour was so overcrowded that the Railways were compelled to discontinue the transportation of further loads to Danzig. It was then that the auxiliary station at Tczew was established; timber sent to Tczew was sent down the Vistula to Danzig in rafts, and loaded direct on ships. Only in 1924, after new lines had been constructed, the situation improved, and timber was again transported through Danzig.

Thus the port of Danzig was found inadequate to deal even with only 25 per cent. of its nominal loading capacity, although only one product of Polish exports, i.e., timber, was

being exported in normal quantities.

It is difficult to estimate the total volume of Polish exports under entirely normal conditions. It is, however, certain that the last three years can form no measure of the future development of Polish overseas trade. For one reason or another, Polish trade in these years was much below its normal standard. It can be said without exaggeration that the annual exports from Poland of such articles as timber, coal, oil and its products, zinc, iron, cement and agricultural produce will, under normal conditions, exceed 5 million tons. Imports of metal ores, cotton, machinery, etc., can be estimated at 3 million tons, so that the volume of Polish overseas trade under normal conditions will amount to about 8 million tons.

Even if one-fourth of this transport should be sent by land, there are still 6 million tons left to be transported by sea.

At the present moment the harbour of Danzig is unable to meet this demand.

In order to adapt it to the increased volume of traffic it would be necessary to build new docks in the direction of Troyl, or in the region of Saspersee, and to construct a number of new railway lines. In other words, it would be necessary to build a new harbour within the existing Port of Danzig. Thus the question arose whether it would be more advantageous for Poland to build a new harbour jointly with the Free City, or to participate only in the modernisation of the existing installation, and to expend the balance on the construction of a Polish harbour in Gdynia.

There was no doubt that in any case it was more advantageous for Poland to build a harbour on her own territory.

It is, however, impossible to ignore certain advantages which Danzig possesses over Gdynia. Thus, Danzig is situated at the mouth of the Vistula and has, therefore, a direct connection with Poland and her waterways. Furthermore, Danzig possesses already such buildings and institutions which are indispensable in every harbour city. In Gdynia, however, these buildings will have to be erected, so that, speaking generally, it will be necessary to build not only the

Gdynia harbour, but also the Gdynia city.

The figures relating to transport over the Vistula have not yet reached the pre-war standards. In 1912 308,039 tons were transported up the river, and 516,614 in the reverse direction. In 1923 the figures were 41,475 and 216,689 tons respectively, and in 1924 62,179 and 196,880 tons. Polish waterways require a thorough reconstruction, which, in turn, requires large capital sums, the shortage of which is acutely felt at present. There is no doubt that the development of the railway system will precede any investments in waterways. When the time is ripe for the development of Polish waterways, the problem of Tczew and a Canal to the Sea will have to be settled. Only then will it be possible to take full advantage of the Vistula as a means of communication, and a third outlet to the sea, through Tczew, will have been secured.

As regards Gdynia, its advantage lies in the necessity of forming a base for the Polish Navy, which will greatly facilitate the construction of the trade harbour. Furthermore, it must be remembered that the housing problem in Danzig is very acute, and Polish firms or citizens who are in need of offices or

houses have to build them for themselves.

The above remarks were intended to present the matter from a technical and geographical point of view. Generally speaking the question of the Polish outlet to the sea can be summarised

as the triple problem of Danzig-Gdynia-Tczew.

It is not intended to encourage a rivalry between these three localities. They must be regarded as one entity, and must supplement each other. Realising the inadequacy of Danzig, Poland advocates the need of a new port and intends to relieve the position by building a new harbour in Gdynia, and by adapting Tczew to the requirements of new conditions. Thus, there is no question of substituting one for the other. It is merely a technical development of the existing port in Danzig on such lines as are dictated by the present political situation. Danzig, Gdynia and Tczew must co-operate in affording the maximum service to Polish trade.

The existence of a Polish port would have tremendous advantages for the country. Apart from the general benefits arising from the possibilities of direct communication with every maritime country, the possession of a harbour will, in the first place, result in a decrease of costs of imports and exports. Furthermore, the various harbour charges form a profitable source of revenue, which no State can afford to ignore. Thus we can arrive at the conclusion that it is in the best interests of Poland to have a cheap and convenient harbour, and that all charges and payments in connection therewith should remain in the country and should form a

profitable item in the country's Budget.

Hitherto Danzig has enjoyed a *de facto* monopoly of Polish overseas trade. Nearly 75 per cent. of thus trade goes through Danzig, and Polish economic policy has indirectly favoured the Free City. It is sufficient to mention here the series of reduced Customs Duties for such articles as timber, the bulk of which is being shipped from Danzig. During the last three years the harbour took full advantage of its unique position, and it is not surprising that it soon became the most expensive port in the Baltic. The disputes which arose between Polish merchants and the Danzig transport contractors are well known; dock labourers, striking for higher wages, were certain of getting them, for it was Poland that had to pay them ultimately.

The monopoly of Danzig as an outlet to the sea has proved very expensive to the Republic. Even in the Harbour Council, where Poland has equal influence with the authorities of the Free City, the Polish Delegation cannot obtain any facilities for Polish goods without resorting to arbitration. Thus, for instance, where in other harbours fees and charges are spread equally between the ships and the cargo, in Danzig these are imposed primarily on the cargo. One ton of cargo is liable to 0.72 gulden in charges, whilst the corresponding figure in Stettin does not exceed 0.37 German marks, i.e., about 0.46 gulden.

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Labour is also dearer in Danzig. The daily wage of a dock labourer amounts to 9.50 gulden. In Königsberg it is only 6.50 marks; in Hamburg, 6.30 marks, and in Stettin also

6.30 marks.

In consequence of this, and also through the unchecked profiteering of various transport contractors, Danzig as a harbour is more costly than Stettin, Königsberg and other German harbours. Thus the transport of, e.g., 10 tons of oil in Stettin costs from 36 to 40.30 marks; in Danzig the transport of a similar cargo would cost 130.55-184.45 gulden!

The disproportion is striking. It is due to the attitude of a monopolist on the part of Danzig, and it will last until the

monopoly itself is abolished.

The matter was taken up by the commercial and industrial communities, which, however, could receive no satisfaction from the Senate of the Free City, who, for political reasons, cannot exercise any pressure either on the transport contractors or on the dock labourers. It is not surprising, therefore, that Bills of Lading from the same foreign ports to Danzig are more costly than those to, e.g., Stettin.

It is a natural aspect of every undertaking that the lack of competition creates a desire of profiteering. This is particularly obvious in Danzig, where it is realised that every rise in prices or wages must ultimately be paid by the Polish industrialist or merchant. Thus, there is no doubt, that it lies in the best interests of Polish industry and trade to construct a harbour in Gdynia, which will check the exorbitant

demands of Danzig.

It must be emphasised over and over again that Poland's future lies in the security of her outlets to the sea. These must be established on a firm economic basis, which can only be achieved by the development of the system "Danzig-Gdynia-Tczew." These three ports, existing concurrently, will best serve the economic needs of the Republic.

2. THE PORT OF DANZIG.*

Danzig, standing at the mouth of the Vistula, owes its origin and prosperity as a port to its favourable geographical situation. Since the earliest times there was a flourishing trade here in amber, salt and leather, as well as Polish timber and grain, which formed the objects of commercial exchange between the Vistula territories and overseas countries. Danzig's most flourishing period was in the sixteenth, and at the beginning of the seventeenth, century when the Polish Republic stood at the acme of its development. The city was known at that time as the "Granary of Europe"; the grain exports reached 115,000 shiploads per annum, and the population numbered 75,000, a figure which Hamburg did not attain until 100 years later. Danzig was then the largest Baltic port, and surpassed its chief competitor, Lübeck.

Later on, wars and political troubles forced Danzig from her high position. By the partition of Poland, Danzig was cut off from the greater part of her natural hinterland by political and customs frontiers, and was soon outstripped by other world ports. The reconstruction of the Polish Republic and the inclusion of Danzig, according to the terms of the Versailles Peace Treaty, in the Polish customs area, not only gave back to Danzig her natural hinterland, but extended her frontier and created new possibilities for the

economic development of the port.

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Under the Danzig-Polish Convention of November 9, 1920, in which the stipulations of the Versailles Treaty are given expression, the port of Danzig became the property of the Harbour Board which consists of an equal number of commissioners respectively for Poland and Danzig. The chair is occupied by a president, nominated by the League of Nations, who must be a Swiss subject, and who decides any differences of opinion between the delegations. At present the chair is occupied by Colonel de Loes. The chief. management and supervision are in the hands of the Commissioners. The conduct of the actual working of the port and the business management are entrusted to a "Board" consisting of the Commercial Director, who looks after the commercial utilisation of the port, and the Technical Director, who sees to maintenance, extension and improvement. The official languages are German, Polish and The Port Commission has its own flag, in which the arms French. of Poland and Danzig are united.

The situation of the port of Danzig is an extraordinarily favourable one. As compared with other ports situated on big rivers, Danzig enjoys the great advantage of being on "dead" water, as, thanks

^{*} The section on "Danzig" is reprinted by kind permission of the editor of Lloyd's List and Shipping Guzdte of September 11, 1925.

to the establishment of the new Vistula outlet at Schiewenhorst, the lower course of the Vistula is now excluded. Thus the port is protected against silting, flooding, and the drift of ice. The entrance to the port from the sea is equally safe and easy, as the port of Danzig, although situated immediately on the sea is protected against storms and heavy weather on the west by the high coast near Zoppot and Gdynia, and on the north by the Hela Peninsula.

The water surface in the whole of the harbour territory—that is to say, in the maritime and river ports—comprises about 900 hectares. The length of shore available for use in the maritime port is about 22 kilometres. The navigable channel in the maritime port has a depth of about of metres, and can thus be used by the largest transatlantic

liners.

The port of Danzig can be divided into three sections:—

(1) The Free Zone, which, as distinct from the other sections, can almost be regarded as foreign territory. Goods which are discharged here are not subject to the payment of customs, and can be forwarded seawards free of duty. This part of the harbour is, therefore, of first-class importance for the transit trade. The Free Zone is equipped with eleven electric cranes, and is altogether the most modern section of the port of Danzig.

(2) The remainder of the port proper, from the entrance mole to the railway bridge, i.e., the harbour canal, the Tote Weichsel ("dead" or stagnant Vistula), the Kaiserhafen, and the dockyard basin where the transhipment of wheat, sugar, timber, &c., takes place.

(3) The Inner Port (Binnenhafen), which is formed by the Mottlau and the Tote Weichsel from the railway bridge up to the lock, and is intended for river shipping, timber storage, and partly also for small ocean steamers.

The port of Danzig has a large number of warehouses and storage sheds both for heavy goods and for grain, sugar, &c. These storerooms are, to a certain extent, in private ownership, but the greater number are in the hands of the Harbour Board which, in particular, owns the transhipment sheds in the most modern part of the port. In addition to the transhipment sheds, there are numerous modern grain silos, which have a total capacity of about 30,000 tons, as well as sugar stores of 22,000 tons capacity, and storage tanks for 60,000 tons of oil. In the numerous other warehouses on the Mottlau, which are still very serviceable for commercial purposes, the total storage capacity is estimated at 70,000 to 100,000 tons.

The greater part of the quay space is the property of the Harbour Board, which also owns the railway lines both in the port itself and the town, as well as the main railway station. The management of the railway system, is in the hands of the Polish Railway Administration.

and, including those which were already in existence, the total area of the storage rooms is about 150,000 square metres. The area of the inland warehouses has increased from about 400,000 square metres before the war to 1,700,000 square metres at the present time. The waterside places intended for the storage of timber cover about 800,000 square metres, The length of the recently-extended railway system is 35 kilometres. A further and considerable extension of the port accommodation and equipment is already in hand.

Since Danzig has become the principal maritime outlet for Poland's overseas trade everything has been done by the Harbour Board and the Railway Administration, as well as by private firms, to improve the port and make it adequate for its duties. Some 400 metres of new quay walls with a depth of 8 metres have been built, as well as two to three quayside sheds with a floor area of 4,000 to 6,000 square metres. Moreover, between eight and ten powerful cranes for heavy goods and eight lighter ones have been installed.

The principal port charges are :-

(1) Dues on vessels, averaging 0.08 gulden per net cubic metre.

(2) Dues on cargo, varying between 0.72 and 0.20 gulden per ton, according to kind of merchandise, and

(3) Pilotage dues, calculated upon the size of the ship and the section of the port to which it is taken.

Danzig has at its disposal first-class conveniences for the building and repairing of ships. Among the large shipyards established here are those of the International Shipbuilding and Engineering Company, Schichau and Klawitter, which are capable of turning out vessels of the largest size. The *Homeric* and the *Columbus*, of 36,000 tons each, were built at the Schichau yards. These shipyards also possess several floating docks for ships up to 8,000 tons, as well as

numerous cranes with a capacity up to 250 tons.

Some account may appropriately be given of the International Shipbuilding and Engineering Company, as one of the largest engineering undertakings on the Baltic, employing 3,000 workmen and 400 officials. When this concern was the German Reichswerft the yard was chiefly engaged in the construction of submarines, while the engineering workshops undertook the repairs of all railway material for the Danzig district of the State Railways. With the foundation of the Danzig Free City the Danzig dockyard and railway workshops were separated from the German Government and converted into an international company.

Extensive alterations and improvements have been effected since 1918. Workshops have been increased in floor area from 100,000 to 130,000 square metres, chiefly in the engine and boiler shops. All obsolete equipment has been replaced by the newest machine tools, enabling the yard to carry out efficiently all kinds of work. One large hall is used for the construction of Diesel engines. All

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types, from four to a thousand horse-power, are built. There is a special section for the construction of electric motors for alternating and direct current (Bergmann system), while other electrical apparatus is also made. The marine engine department turns out engines, built on the Lentz system, of from 300 to 4,500 h.p. A specially important section is that engaged in the construction of all kinds of machinery for installation in sugar factories. In the main railway workshops repairs to locomotives and waggons are effected, chiefly for account of the Polish Government.

The shipbuilding yard has been well employed in recent years, and delivered 44 new vessels in the period 1920-24, including a number of sea-going tugs, freight steamers and tankers, as well as four river gun-boats and sundry smaller vessels for the Polish Government. It may be said, in short, that, thanks largely to energetic management and technical efficiency, the International Shipbuilding and Engineering Company has successfully emerged

from the chaos of the post-war period.

The main artery of the system of waterways of Danzig's hinterland is formed by the Vistula, which flows through the whole of the Polish Republic. The tributaries on the right of the Vistula form a much ramified network extending far into the east, where they are joined by a number of canals, which, however, it must be confessed, are hardly up to the present day requirements of navigation. Another important traffic route is the connection of the port of Danzig, through the Elbinger Vistula, the Weichselhaff Canal and the River Nogat, with the Frisches Haff. In the westerly direction Danzig has a connection with the Oder through the Bydgoszcz Canal, the Netze and the Warte.

The port of Danzig is well served by an extensive railway system, through which it possesses a number of convenient and direct connections. The most important of these are:—

 Danzig-Warsaw, and thence with the eastern part of Poland, Russia and Rumania;

2. There are numerous railway lines from Danzig to Pomerania and Poznań;

3. Danzig-Katowice-Kraków, connecting the port with Polish Silesia, Czechoslovakia and Hungary;

4. The connection with Lodz, the well-known centre of the Polish textile industry:

5. The connection with Berlin.

Of great importance for Danzig is the shortening of the route to Lwów (Lemberg), which was carried out during the war, and which brings the Balkan markets a good deal nearer to Danzig.

The railway traffic with Danzig shows a steady expansion. In 1924 the quantity of merchandise brought into Danzig by rail was 2,025,323 tons, while the quantity carried out was 758,545 tons. In the immediate future Poland is to embark on the construction of

THE PORT OF DANZIG.

several new railway lines, which will lead to a further extension of Danzie's hinterland.

A general idea of the development of the traffic at the port of Danzig is afforded by the statistics of the ships entered inwards and outwards, their size and nationality. The following table shows the maritime traffic of the pre-war period and of the last few years:—

		ear.		Entries Inwards.		
		ear.		No. of Ships.	Net Tonnage	
1912			 	2,992	970,653	
1913	 		 	2,910	924,837	
920	 		 	1,951	987,740	
1921	 		 	2,632	1,568,336	
1922	 		 	2,712	1,423,129	
1923	 		 	2,913	1,701,747	
1924	 		 	3,312	1,635,010	

Year.					Clearances.		
		,	ear.		No. of Ships.	Net Tonnage	
1912					 2,974	993,152	
1101					 2,855	936,854	
1920					 1,935	979,860	
1921					 2,623	1,603,713	
1922					 2,679	1,428,820	
1923	6 0	4.4			 2,873	1,710,435	
1924					 3,330	1,648,023	

In the pre-war period the shipping traffic showed a steady, although not very rapid, development. After the close of hostilities, activity was quickly resumed, and the traffic increased by leaps and bounds. Already in the year 1920 the total tonnage of the ships arriving slightly exceeded the tonnage of the best pre-war year. Since then the expansion has been maintained with slight fluctuations, the best year being 1923.

In comparison with the pre-war times, not only has the total tonnage very largely increased, but the average tonnage of the ships using the port has also grown. In 1912 the average size was 329 net tons, while in 1920 it was 590 tons, or nearly double. This development is to be attributed to the arrival at Danzig of large passenger and overseas steamers.

The number of flags appearing at the port has also increased, and was 21 in 1923 as compared with 11 in 1912. This is a result of the development of trade with the Western States of Europe and with

THE PORT OF DANZIG.

overseas countries. There are at Danzig at the present time a number of permanent shipping lines, which give the port regular connections with German ports, as well as with Libau, Reval, Riga, Stockholm, Copenhagen, Antwerp, London, Hull, Dunkirk, Havre, Bordeaux, New York, New Orleans and South America. The British flag, which in 1924 occupied the fourth place, and in 1920 went temporarily to the first, has since 1923 taken the third place, after the German and the Danish.

The passenger traffic at Danzig has fluctuated very considerably as is shown by the subjoined figures, which are for arrivals and departures combined: 1912, 20,931; 1921, 143,350; 1922, 191,714; 1923, 145,008; 1924, 82,108. The increase since 1912 is to be attributed to the growing tourist and emigrant traffic from Poland, but a good deal of the latter will soon be transferred to the new Polish port of Gdynia.

The following table affords a review of the commercial traffic before and since the war:—

		Ye	ar.		Imports.	Exports.	
					Tons.	Tons.	
1911-	13	4.0	* *	 	1,138,262	1,131,341	
1920				 	1,700,000	138,245	
1921		1.4		 	1,026,420	378,952	
1922				 	466,287	504,411	
1923				 	654,920	1,062,864	
1924				 	738,072	1,636,485	

As can clearly be seen from these figures, the traffic in merchandise at Danzig has fluctuated very considerably since the war. In the pre-war period there was a certain equipoise between imports and exports. In the years immediately following the conclusion of peace, on the contrary, the imports showed a very large preponderance, owing to the heavy purchases of the Polish Government abroad. From 1922 onwards, exports began to overhaul imports and the proportion has steadily improved in their favour. This recovery is mainly due to the largely increased exports of timber. This trade, which in 1912 was represented by 303,418 tons, amounted in 1921 to 208,708 tons, in 1922 to 334,671, in 1923 to 700,210, and in 1924 to 972,970 tons.

Other main exports from Danzig are sugar and agricultural produce, and although these have not yet regained their pre-war figures, they are showing a steady expansion, as the following figures indicate.—

Sugar, 1921, 50,742 tons; 1922, 28,042 tons; 1923, 113,067 tons; 1924, 153,455 tons.

Agricultural produce, 1921, 38,171 tons; 1922, 64,140 tons; 1923, 108,811 tons; 1924, 277,190 tons.

THE PORT OF DANZIG.

Worthy of mention is the fact that petroleum and its derivatives now appear among the exports from Danzig, whereas before the war they were among the imports. The exports of these were: 1921, 51,982 tons; 1922, 28,500 tons; 1923, 25,516 tons; 1924, 32,519 tons.

Recently large quantities of Polish coal have been shipped from Danzig, and an increase of this trade is to be expected. Various products of Polish industry are also being sent by way of Danzig to

Scandinavian and Baltic ports.

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So far as imports are concerned, the chief place is held by foodstuffs and groceries, of which 234,120 tons were received in 1924. Of herrings, 83,931 tons were imported. Other goods largely imported, are fertilisers and chemicals—203,630 tons in 1924. Mention should also be made of the large cargoes of iron ore shipped for the Polish textile industry.

The foregoing details show very clearly how closely Danzig is connected, in the economic sense, with its hinterland, and what an important position it occupies in the commerce between England and Poland. The favourable development of the port of Danzig is, therefore, a matter of not inconsiderable interest for English trade.

3. THE PORT OF GDYNIA.

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The contract for the construction of the Port of Gdynia has been signed on the 4th July, 1924, between the Ministry of Industry and Trade and a Franco-Polish concern, including such firms as Schneider & Co., Hersent, Battignolles and the Bank of Poland.

The work had actually been commenced in the spring of 1921 after the Russian invasion clearly demonstrated that, in order to secure a free access to the sea, Poland would have to possess a port of her own. Originally the work had been carried on by the "Society for Engineering Construction" of Poznań, but soon afterwards it was taken over by the Government. The construction was authorised by the order of the 23rd September, 1922, and the necessary credits were originally voted by the Economic Committee of the Council of Ministers. Similarly, the agreement with the above-mentioned concern had been authorised by the Economic Committee and the Council of Ministers.

The contract for the construction of the Port of Gdynia covers the following work:—

(1) Entrance canal to the outer port with depth of 11 metres.
(2) Outer port of about 150 hectares area of water with 1,060 metres of quays, together with a basin 8 metres deep and a pier for passenger boats, the latter having a depth of 8 metres along 400 metres of quays and 10 metres depth at 300 metres of quays.

(3) Inner basin constructed in mainland with 43.5 hectares area and a depth of 10 metres at the quays.

The total water area of the Port will thus amount to 190-200 hectares and the length of quays will be 4,260 metres with a depth along them from 8 to 10 metres.

To these figures should be added 175 metres of existing breakwater which, with a comparatively simple reconstruction, will be turned into a landing place. The total length of quay will thus reach

4,435 metres.

The concern is not acting as actual concessionary but as a contractor only, to whom a work of construction has been entrusted by, and on account of, the Government, to be executed as it is doing at the present time for the total amount of 35,000,000 zlotys. The Government is thus becoming the owner of executed and accepted work from the moment of its acceptance.

The Port of Gdynia as described above, will be able to accommodate by its quays 25 to 30 large boats and it will be in a position to cope with 2½ million tons of traffic a year. This figure represents the present transit capacity of the Port of Danzig, but from the technical point of view the Port of Gdynia will be superior to that

of Danzig as it is able to allow deep-draught vessels to berth alongside the quays. At the Port of Danzig the vessels have to be anchored at a certain distance from the quays owing to the latter being antiquated and the depth of water not exceeding 4 metres, which considerably impedes the work of loading and unloading. Moreover, the Port of Gdynia will have an entrance canal which will be superior to that at Danzig in respect of its depth and accessibility.

The Port of Gdynia will be so constructed as to permit in future its further development and an increase of its handling capacity up

to 6-7 million tons a year if necessary.

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Actual work on construction was commenced by the concern on the 31st July, 1924. But even before this commencement 550 metres of the southern mole and 175 metres of breakwater were actually completed between the years 1921 and 1924. Along the mole a landing stage, 150 metres long, was also constructed for berthing the boats. Apart from that a railway branch was built which connected the port with Gdynia Station, a passenger landing stage constructed and a narrow gauge railway built for the purpose of connecting the mole with adjoining territory. Water supply, an electric power station, saw mills and workshops existed before the signing of the contract. The firm "Trasport" has built for its own use a depôt for the storage of petroleum, further, the "Compagnie Transatlantique" has built a warehouse and the firms "Hartwig" and "Polbal" offices in their timber yards. The emigration authorities have similarly built barracks for 1,000 emigrants close to the southern mole, and the "Gdynia Shipbuilding Co."—the cranes for small vessels and small workshops for their As the building season was considerably advanced at the time of signing of contract, the concern was unable to execute much work in the second half of 1924; 290 metres of the northern mole have been constructed and the protective stone work erected.

The remaining length of the northern mole is in course of erection and part of the stone ballasting has been executed. Further, the concern completed their specifications for the future work. In the present year the dredging of the inner basin has been commenced and the work on concrete quays begun in May. It may be possible to complete this year the erection of one warehouse of 100 metres by 45 metres area fitted with two cranes, in which case the handling capacity of this quay would reach 100,000 tons in the year 1926.

At present the temporary landing quay by the southern mole is being used, and in the year 1924 the port was visited by 27 ocean-going boats. It is certain that this figure will be doubled in the year 1925, which will be due to the addition of a second track to the narrow gauge railway on the mole while providing the latter with rings set in concrete on the breakwater and thus allowing the boats to fasten themselves securely at both ends. Further improvements include the completion of waterworks and the

purchase of a tug. The latter being fitted with ice-breaking arrangement, a life saving and fire-combating applicances, wireless and a powerful engine developing 500 h.p., is capable of assuring large boats a safe entrance into the harbour even during heavy seas

The particulars of the agreement for construction of the port are as follows:—

The construction must be completed by the 31st December, 1930. The value of the work executed up to the 31st December, 1926, must not be less than 3,000,000 zlotys and the general lay-out of the whole construction must be ready by the 31st December, 1924. In case of the completion of either sectional or whole work being overdue at the dates stated the agreement stipulates for fairly heavy fines. The agreement makes an allowance for extension of time in cases beyond human control or in case of a prospective increase of the scheme. The work is being executed on a credit basis. The first payment will be due on the 20th January, 1927, and it may amount at the most to 6,000,000 zlotys or less which will depend on the extent of work completed and taken over by the Government.

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In the years 1927–1928–1929 and 1930 these instalments are expected to amount to 4,500,000 zlotys a year. On completion of the whole contract in 1930, the amount still due will be equally spread over the remaining years.

The agreement with the concern provides for gradual increase of exploitation of the port and no suspension of the port activity is

foreseen during the period of construction.

The traffic on the quays of the inner port will thus gradually increase while the traffic carried at present on the temporary quay by the southern mole will be stopped only when the full traffic

in the inner port has begun.

The above contract provides for hydrotechnical work alone without the standard equipment of the port and fixes the cost of this work at 35,000,000 zlotys. Additional contracts will cover the equipment of the port at the aggregate cost of 15,000,000 zlotys. It is hoped to carry out the following work within the limits of the above amount, viz.:—

(1) Railway tracks, 40 km. long.

(2) Paved roads, 35,000 square metres.

(3) Stone paved roads, 15,000 square metres.(4) Stone paved yards, 8,000 square metres.

(5) Drainage and water supply of the port.(6) Warehouses and depôts about 40,000 square metres.

(7) 20 cranes of $2\frac{1}{2}$ ton capacity, 5—5-ton, 2—10-ton and -25-ton.

(8) Electric power station for 1,000 kw. (of which 90 kw.

already exist).

(9) 10 km. of H.T. cables and 30 k.m. of L.T. cables.

(10) Electric lighting, 150 outside lamps and 5,000 inside lamps.

(11) 10 buoys and barrels for the port.

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(12) 10 lights for the mole and for the port entrance.

(13) Tug and ice-breaker of 5,000 i.h.p. (already purchased). (14) Offices for the captains, the meteorological room, the customs and the mercantile marine, together with living accommodation for 30 officials.

(15) Maritime railway station on the pier.
(16) Grain elevator with 15,000 ton capacity.
(17) Cold storage in the basement of a warehouse

The above data, which concern various parts of the port equipment should not be considered as definite, as the final estimate of the equipment of the port is not yet decided upon and the figures are only approximate. The system of equipping the port is proposed to follow that adopted in modern European harbours (Copenhagen, new parts of Hamburg, &c.). with hangars, 40-45 metres wide, situated along the quays and with mechanical unloading. Only a part of this equipment being provided at the expense of the Government, it is not unlikely that the proposed 15,000,000 zlotys will prove insufficient for execution of the above specified work. In such a case the remaining part of the work will be entrusted to private enterprise on a concession basis, the work executed becoming finally State property on termination of a long term lease.

It is probable that further work on the port, aiming at the increase of its capacity up to 6 or 7 million tons, will also form a concession.

Coaling facilities which would occupy a space of 300 × 400 metres are also wanted and a concession for same would be granted. This applies equally to shipyards with workshops on a space of 200 × 800 metres and with a capacity to employ from 1,000 to 2,000 workmen.

The conditions on which these plots could be leased are very favourable. For the oil harbour, a plot of 300 metres of quay frontage, and from 100 to 170 metres in depth, is to be allotted and the construction of oil tanks could be undertaken by a concessionary.

An additional agreement dated the 27th February, 1925, provides

for completion of the whole work in the year 1929.

The programme of work for 1925 provides for completion of 700 metres run of the northern mole, construction of 250 metres run of quays with depth of water of 10 metres and of 200 metres run of quays with depth of water of 8 metres, further the excavation of over 1 million cubic metres of earth and embanking of the port territory. The total cost of this work will amount to 4,000.000 zlotys. During the year 1926, the concessionaries are to execute the work for the minimum of 7.338,000 zlotys.

It is hoped that both Polish and foreign shipping agents will take an interest in Gdynia as a port. The co-operation of foreign capital in the construction of port facilities, as well as in further

developments of the port itself, and establishment of regular

shipping lines would be very much welcomed.

Although the Port of Gdynia is not situated on the mouth of a navigable river, the distance between the port and the Vistula estuary is not, for the greater part of the year, an obstacle for directing to the port the river craft for the purpose of unloading or loading.

Of the most important firms the following are already established

at the Port of Gdvnia :---

(1) Franco-Polish Concern for the Construction of the Port of Gdynia.

(2) Polish-Baltic Transport and Navigation Co.

(3) "Transport" Co. (4) Hartwig & Co.

(5) Cie. Générale Transatlantique.

(6) Comité Centrale de Houillères de France.

(7) "Stocznia" (Shipyard) Co. (8) Baltic Navigation Co.

(o) Union of the Polish Petroleum Industry.

ZJEDNOCZONE WARSZAWSKIE TOWARZYSTWO TRANSPORTU I ŻEGLUGI POLSKIEJ S.A.

Centrala w Warszawie.

United Warsaw Company for Transport & Polish Navigation Head Office: WARSAW, NOWY-SWIAT 35.

Offices and Agencies:

Danzig, Hundegasse 117. Łódź, Południowa 44–46. Katowice, Poprzeczna 7. Sosnowice, Piłsudskiego 12.

Tczew, Stary Rynek I. Zbąszyń, Marszałkowska

41.

Own fleet of 87 steamers and barges on the Vistula.

Wyszogród. Stentsch. Płock. Leszno. Fraustadt. Włocławek. Sandomierz. Toruń. Pulawy Bydgoszcz. Warszawa. Grudziadz. Modlin. Tczew. Pińsk. Czerwińsk.

Forwarding, clearing, bonded Warehouses.

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V. CIVIL AVIATION IN POLAND.

1. Civil Aviation in 1924.

Civil aviation in Poland is under the control of the Ministry of Railways, which has a special Aviation Department. The Ministry of Railways has signed the following contracts with undertakings dealing with aerial communication, whereby they have been given the right to establish a passenger, goods and postal service:—

1. With the "Company for Aerial Transport in Poland" ("Towa-rzystwo Żeglugi Powietrznej w Polsce"—Franco-Roumaine) on August 7, 1920, for the Warsaw-Paris line.

August 7, 1920, for the Warsaw-Paris line.
2. With the "Aerotransport" Company on August 12, 1921, for the Warsaw-Lida line towards the frontier in the direction of

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3. With the firm "Plage and Laśkiewicz" in Lublin on July 17, 1921, for the line Danzig-Warsaw-Lublin-Lwów towards the

frontier in the direction of Bucharest.

4. With the "Company for Aerial Transport in Poland" (Franco-Roumanie) on July 20, 1921, a renewed contract prolonging the line mentioned under 1, viz.: Warsaw-Prague in the direction of Paris and containing changes pertaining to the subsidising of the line and the introduction of a Polish staff.

5. With Messrs. Wygard and Rzuchowski on September 29, 1922, for the line Danzig-Warsaw-Lwów (the so-called Aerolloyd Company) as the agreement with the firm Plage and Laskiewicz had been

cancelled.

- 6. With the same undertakings on June 4, 1923, for the following lines:
 - (a) Lwów towards the frontier to Czerniowce. (b) Warsaw-Poznań to Berlin, Amsterdam.

(c) Warsaw-Kraków to Budapest and Berno Morawskie.

Only two of the above-mentioned companies are now working, namely:

"The Company for Aerial Transport in Poland" (Franco-Roumanie) on the line Warsaw-Prague, and the "Aerolloyd" Company on the lines: Warsaw-Danzig, Warsaw-Lwów and Warsaw-Kraków.

The remaining lines have not yet been put into operation.

I.—The Company for Aerial Transport in Poland (Franco-Roumanie).

Machines used.

During the first year of its operations the Company for Aerial Transport in Poland used the two-seater machine of the "Potez 7" type.

CIVIL AVIATION IN POLAND.

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Later, in accordance with par. 3 of the agreement of July 20, 1921, between the above Company and the Minister of Railways four-seater machines were introduced of the "Berline Spad 46" type, but, upon application of the Company, the Ministry allowed the "Potez 7" to be still used.

Staff.

The Company for Aerial Transport in Poland employs Polish pilots working on the Warsaw-Prague section.

Statistical Data. (a) Traffic.

The state of the state of	1921.	1922.	1923.
Mileage covered on Polish territory Number of journeys across Poland Number of passengers carried from and to Warsaw Amount of juggage carried (in kilogrammes) Amount of postal baggage (in kilogrammes)	 61,250 245 195 7,696 937	99,000 396 86 8,964 1,082	67,000 268 212 15,705 874

June and August were the busiest months.

Since the existence of the Company not a single accident has occurred on Polish territory, neither to passengers nor to pilots.

(b) Periods of Transport.

1921-April 4, 1921, to November 4, 1921.

1922—February 15, 1922, to November 14, 1922. 1923—March 1, 1923, to November 1, 1923.

Note.—In the autumn of 1923 there was an abundance of fogs, rain and high winds.

(c) Regularity of Service.

1921	 X=	 	 	74.65 per cent.
1922	 	 a.	 	71.00 "
1023	 	 	 44	67.00 ,,

Time-table (1923).

Warsaw	 	 dep.	11.30		13.30	
Prague	 177	 arr.	15.30	dep.	9.30	
· ·		dep.	17.45	arr.	9.00	
Vienna	 	 arr.	9.30	dep.	7.00	
Prague	 	 dep.	9.30	arr.	13.30	
Stracehurg		 arr.	14.30	dep.	10,30	

Tariffs.

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	1920.		Passengers.	Cargo.
		11	Frs.	Frs. per Klg.
Varsaw-Prague		4.0	 1,000	IO
Strassburg			 1,500	15
Paris		0.0	 2,000	20

1921.	Passengers.	Cargo,	Postal Packages, in addition to Normal Tariff.			
Warsaw-Prague Strassburg Paris	Frs. 300 650 800	Frs. per klg. 4°5 7°0 9°0	Frs. Up to 20 grs. 0·50 1·00 1·75	Frs. 21-100 grs. 0:75 1 50 3 00	Frs. 101–200 grs. 0·25 0·50 0·75	

1922.	Passengers.	Cargo.	Post.	Remarks.
Warsaw-Prague Strassburg Paris Vienna Budapest Belgrade Bucharest Constantinople	235 445 610 345 440 570 760 960	2·5 4·75 4·5 3·75 4·75 6·25 8·25 IO·5	3 times ordinary tarifi	Passengers are allowed to take 15 klgs. o luggage free o charge.

Subsidies.

According to agreement the Ministry of Railways granted the Company for Aerial Transport in Poland the following quantities of aviation spirit free of charge :--

In 1920		 30,575	klgs.	density	720
In 1921		 43,450		11	720
In 1922		100,770		**	710
In 1923	 	 184,632		11	710

reckoning 600 litres for each journey from Warsaw to Prague and from Prague to Warsaw.

II .- The "Aerolloyd" Company, Limited (MM. Wygard and Rzuchowski).

Aeroplanes used.

Type—Junkers T.13 F. 1919, entirely of metal. These are machines of the "Limousine" type, with a cabin for four persons, with comfortable accommodation. There are in

CIVIL AVIATION IN POLAND.

addition two saloons in front of the cabin for the use of the crew These aeroplanes are most economical and durable.

Statistical Data. (a) Traffic.

	1922.	1923.
Number of kilometres covered	81,960	180,635
Number of flights made	246	542
Number of passengers carried Amount of baggage carried (in kilo-	527	1,671
grammes)	9,410	12,487
Amount of postal baggage carried (in kilogrammes)	695	406

Note.—May was the busiest month (35,510 klms.). During the whole period of exploitation there has not been one single accident.

(b) Periods of Service.

1922.—September 1 to November 30. 1923.—March 21 to September 5. October 29 to November 1.

Note.—The interruption in the service between September 5 and October 25 was due to a fire in the Danzig works belonging to the "Aerolloyd" Company.

(c) Regularity of Service.

1922.—88.2 per cent.
1923.—90 per cent. (during the first period).

Aviation Service Time-table in 1923 (May).

(XX) Daily, excepting Sundays.
(XX) On Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays.

12222	OH Lucsui	ayo, asa	 wy to 1111 a a a a a a a a a a y	
(X)	Warsaw		 dep. 16	arr. 11.30
			 arr. 18,30	dep, 9
(X)	Warsaw		 dep. 15	arr. II
` ′	Lwów		 агт. 18	dep. 8
(XX)	Warsaw		 dep. 15.30	arr. 11.20
` ′	Kraków		 air. 17.40	dep. 9

Laring

	Remarks,		11	Packets accepted up to 30 kgs.	Packets up to	Packets up to 30 kgs.	
S.	For	sub- sequent Kg.	5,000	7,500 15,000 150,000	5,000 7,500 15,000	5,000 7,500 15,000	
Goods	For	up to 6 Kgs. Marks.	30,500	45,000 90,000 500,000	30,000 45,000 90,000 500,000	30,000 45,000 90,000 500,000	
	ing o Kgs.		11	111	HH	IIII.	
Hand Luggage.	Charge for each Kilogramme in Polish Marks.	From 25 to 50 Kgs.	2,500 Same as passenger's fare,	111	Same as passenger's fare.	tit:	
Hand	Hand Lugga e for each Kilogri in Polish Marks.	ge for each	From 16 to 25 Kgs.	2,000	10,000 20,000 150,000	2,000 5,000 10,000 20,000 150,000	5,000 10,000 20,000 150,000
	Charg	Up to	1,000 2,500	5,000	1,000 2,500 5,000 10,000	2,500 5,000 10,000	
	Number of Kilo- grammes	Tree of Charge.	10	NO NO	011001000000000000000000000000000000000	0 E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E	
	Price of Passenger Fare.	Marks.	160,000	340,000 450,000 6,000,000	40,000 180,000 400,000 550,000 6,500,000	140,000 270,000 420,000 5,000,000	
	Date of Issue of Tariff.		Sept. 2, 1922 - Mar. 15, 1923	July 1, 1923 - Aug. 1, 1923 - Oct. 29, 1923	Sept. 2, 1923 Mar. 15, 1923 July 1, 1923 - Aug. 1, 1923 - Oct. 29, 1923	Mar. 15, 1923 July 1, 1923 - Aug. 1, 1923 - Oct. 29, 1923	
	1		Warsaw - Danzig •		Warsaw- Lwów,	Warsaw- Kraków,	

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Subsidies.

In accordance with the agreement of September 29th, 1922, the Company receives from the Ministry of Railways a monetary subvention in the form of a premium for each flight made according to time-table. In addition, the Ministry of Railways pays a premium on regularity of service, viz.:

From 51 to 60 per cent additional payment of 5 per cent.

4.5	61 ,,	70		2.7	21	10	.60
	71 ,,	80	**	22		15	11
p 0	81 ,,	90			22	20	
0.0	91 ,,	100	2.2		***	25	.10
over and	above	the sub	vention.				

The flight is considered as regular if the departure of the aeroplane is not more than half an hour late and the duration of the flight does not exceed 60 per cent. of the scheduled time.

On December 24, 1922, at the instance of the Ministry of Railways the Economic Committee of Ministers agreed to fix the kilometre subvention at the rate of the price of I kilogramme of aviation oil and to change accordingly Article II of the agreement of the Minister of Railways with Dr. Ignacy Wygard and Mons. Bronisław Rzuchowski.

This scale of subvention is in operation up to the present time. The subvention granted is as follows:—

In 1922				 84,702,012	P. mks.
1923				 3.447,902,534	0.0
in addition to	18,137	zlotys 74	grosze.		

III. -Aerotarg Company.

During the Poznań Fair in 1921 the "Aerotarg" Company organised an aerial service between Poznań and Warsaw and between Poznań and Danzig. In a very short time the Company developed intensive activity, completing 58 flights between May 12, 1921 and 10 June, 1921 and covering 16,500 kilometres.

10 June, 1921 and covering 16,500 kilometres.

During this period the Company carried 400 passengers and

3,000 kilogrammes of postal and other baggage.

Factories.

In addition to the military works there are the following aeroplane factories in Poland:—

The "Plage and Laskiewicz" works at Lublin.

The area occupied by these works, in addition to the aerodrome is about 40,000 square metres. The works have their own central and electrical power, railway siding, and mechanical laboratories. At present aeroplanes of the military type "Balilla and A. 300" are constructed, but the French type "Potez" are now under construction. Up to the present day the factory has produced

more than 100 aeroplanes. For a certain time the "Wentzel" propeller works at Ostrowo were active, but they have now stopped work.

Large works are now under completion at Olkusz, in the county of Warsaw, for the construction of aeroplanes, engines and automobiles by the firm "Francusko-Polskie Zaklady Lotnicze"

(" Franco-Polish Aviation Works ").

In December, 1923, an aeroplane factory belonging to the firm "Podlaska Wytwórnia Samolotow" ("Podlesian Aeroplane Factory") made an agreement with the Government for the construction of aeroplanes. The above is a firm which is organised and financed by the Podlesian Union of Agriculturists.

Simultaneously, a factory was opened in Poznań for the produc-

tion of aeroplanes under the title of "Samolot."

Finally, it is also projected to transform into a factory for aviation motors the former works for the manufacture of scientific implements, the "Inwencja," which is splendidly equipped as regards plant.

Thus, in 1924, Poland had 5 factories for the manufacture of

aeroplanes and motors.

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There is also the laboratory on the "Samolot" model founded

by the pilot W. Woyno.

In addition to the above-mentioned aviation factories and works, many constructors have exerted their efforts in the construction of

aeroplanes of their own invention and improvement.

The Centralne Warsztaty Lotnicze Wojskowe (Central Military Aeronan ical Works) at Mokotów, in the province of Warsaw, exhibitual at the Eastern Fair at Lwów, in the year 1921, 15 different types of propellers, all perfectly finished. One of the results of this exhibition was that British industrialists made application to the Ariation Department of the Ministry for War for propellers to be made for them in Poland.

In the same year a Pole, M. Gabriel, constructed in his own furniture factory at Bydgoszcz, a racing plane of the "Gabriel P" type, of 50 h.p., in which plywood instead of linen was first used for the

covering of the wings and body.

About the same time, and under the auspices of the Aviation Department of the Ministry for War, Mons. Knake-Zawadzki experimented on an improved parachute. The tests with these parachutes at Rembertów in the province of Warsaw gave excellent results. Renewed tests in 1922 proved just as successful and resulted in the parachute being adopted in the Air Force.

On August 12, 1922, during the army aeroplane manœuvres at Mokotów, near Warsaw, Lt.-Colonel Kossowski made a trial flight in an aeroplane with wings of a changeable profile, the invention of the engineer Stefan Malinowski, who formerly served in the "Ecole Supérieure d'Aéronautique et des Constructions Mécaniques" at Paris. The results were most successful, and the invention was purchased by the firm "Handley-Page," in London.

Lieutenant Szalas made a special aero-photographic implement for the use of aerial observatories—Warsaw, 1923.

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A great many constructors have produced their own flying machines of various types, of which we shall speak later on in the section for competitions.

In 1923 an engineer named Kazimierz Wolski made a plan of a hangar of his own construction, which was accepted by the Aviation Department as the Polish type for the Air Force.

2. Aeronautical Societies.

A. Aeroklub Polski, Warsaw, Aleje Ujazdowskie, 37.

The above aeroclub belongs to the international union "Federation Internationale Aeronautique." In 1921 the "Polish Aero Club" in Poznań was amalgamated with the "Aero Club" in Warsaw (January 18, 1921). On February 15, 1921, the Memorandum Committee presented a memorandum bill to the Government of the Polish Republic in which they demanded the creation of an "Under-Secretary of State for Aviation" in conjunction with one of the Ministries.

After the State Air Desence League was created, which adopted aviation propaganda, the whole activities of the Aero Club were concentrated on organising aviation competitions.

B. State Air Defence League (L.O.P.P.), Warsaw, Ministry of Railways, Nowy Swiat N. 14.

The Society was founded on June 10, 1923, for the purpose of awakening the interest of the nation in aviation, its production, support and future development by various adequate means.

At present the League has 40 provincial branches: 100 circles.

Its members number over 3,000.

The League for State Air Defence has trained some score of lecturers, who have delivered more than a hundred lectures in a comparatively short period (from June to December, 1923). The League is now about to organise an aeronautical exhibition.

The League has taken under its protection the Union of Aviation

students, for which it has organised special courses.

C. Aviators' Union in Poznań.

The members of the above union are composed of professional army and civil aviators. Date of foundation: September 15,

1922. The Union has an extensive library.

The Union initiated a competition of motorless aeroplanes organised by the Aero Club in Bialka near Nowy Targ, and also founded a joint stock company under the title "Samolot" in Posnań which organised the production of training aeroplanes.

D. Aviation Section of the Circle of the Mechanical Students of the Polytechnical School at Warsaw (Politechnika).

Purpose: To facilitate studies on aviation by collaboration with professors and all aeronautical institutions. This section is divided into technical and scientific. It has a very valuable library.

Club of Aeronautical Technologists in the Society of Technologists at Warsaw.

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Date of foundation-May 9, 1923.

Purpose—To spread technical knowledge on aviation.

Number of members-83.

Number of lectures delivered-13.

E. Aeronautical Union of Youths.

Under the patronage of the League for State Air Defence.

Date of foundation-May, 1920.

The Union has made several attractive aeroplane models in its own workshops.

F. Society for the Construction of Aeroplane Models, Warsaw.

3. Aerial Stations in Poland.

Class.	Town.	Latitude.	Longitude (Greenwich).	Magnetic Deviation (1921).	Altitude above sea level.	Greenwich Mean Time.
I. class stations.	Warsaw Poznań	52° 13′ 1″ 52° 24′ 6″	21° 01′ 8″ 16° 56′ 3″	3° 0′ W 5° 10″	ca. 60	1h. 19' 50" 1h. 07' 47"
II. class stations.	Kraków Lwów Bydgoszcz Toruń Grudziadz Dęblin Przemyś! Lida	50° 03′ 9″ 49° 50′ 2″ 53° 4′ 53° 00′ 6″ 53° 29′ 7″ 51° 32′ 4″ 49° 46′ 9″ 53° 53′ 3″	19° 57′ 5″ 24° 01′ 0″ 18° 00′ 6″ 18° 36′ 5″ 18° 45′ 0″ 22° 50′ 0″ 22° 46′ 5″ 25° 17′ 7″	3° 54″ 1° 52″ 4° 27″ 4° 8″ 4° 2° 2° 46″ 2° 20″ 1° 8″	221 338 ca. 60 ca. 50 ca. 30 ca. 115 ca. 205 ca. 140	1h. 19' 50" 1h. 36' 04" 1h. 12' 00" 1h. 14' 26" 1h. 15' 00" 1h. 31' 20" 1h. 31' 06" 1h. 41' 11"

4. Meteorological Stations in Poland.

All meteorological stations are under the National Meteorological Institute (P.I.M.) belonging to the Ministry of Agriculture.

At present there are seven such stations:

I. Warsaw (Mokotów—Aerial).

Lwów (Aerial).
 Kraków (Czerwony Prądnik—Aerial).

4. Kraków (Debniki, next the radio station).

5. Bydgoszcz (Aviation school).

6. Toruń (Aviation school—Observatory).

7. Poznań (Ławica-Aerial).

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1. Administration.

The exclusive rights of the State of establishing, managing and exploiting all Postal establishments in the country are safeguarded by the Post Office, Telegraph, and Telephone Act of June 3rd, 1924 ("Journal of Laws," No. 58, p. 584). According to this Act the State monopoly as regards Postal arrangements applies primarily to the collection, dispatch and delivery of (a) letters and postcards, and (b) newspapers and periodicals appearing at least 12 times a year. In addition, the Act provides for the extension of the monopoly to parcels and other objects suitable for transport by post, to the transport of persons and their luggage, and also to money transfers. Furthermore, by the President's Order of June 27th, 1924 ("Journal of Iaws," No. 55, p. 545) all Post Offices and Postal Agencies in the Republic have become official branches of the Post Office Savings Bank.

The executive powers derived from the Post Office Act, referred to above, are vested in the General Direction of Postal and Telegraph Services, which acts under the direct supervision of the Minister of Commerce and Industry. The General Direction forms, thus, the second and final administrative instance in respect of all postal, telegraphic, and telephonic services. It also controls seven Postal Directions with headquarters in Warsaw, Lublin, Poznań, Bydgoszcz, Lwów, Kraków, and Katowice, respectively. The Polish Post Office in the Free City of Danzig is also controlled by

the General Direction.

The executive activities in respect of postal, telegraphic, and telephonic arrangements are performed by Post Offices, Postal Agencies and Postal Agentships, each of which is under direct supervision of the respective Postal Direction.

All Post Offices are divided according to their importance into six classes or grades; the employees are Government

or quasi-Government officials.

Postal Agencies are Post Offices of lower standing; they transact all ordinary postal business and are divided into

two groups according to the amount of business transacted. Postal agencies are usually established in localities where the small demand for telegraphic and telephonic services does not justify the establishment of a Post Office. The managers of these agencies are officials by contract and their relations with the Government are governed by ordinary Civil (and not Administrative) Law.

Postal Agentships form the lowest grade of Post Offices, and their business is confined to the collection and delivery of letters and telegrams and to the sale of stamps. These agencies are also managed by officials under contract.

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In addition, postmen in rural districts where there are no Post Offices or Postal Agencies are authorised to receive and deliver postal matter within these districts.

To facilitate the exchange of mails with foreign countries, Exchange Offices have been organised; in addition, customs duties on postal packetc, etc., are levied by special Postal Customs Offices. The activities of Exchange and Postal Customs Offices are restricted to a precisely defined territory.

The postal systems taken over from Germany, Austria, and Russia respectively have been reorganised, developed and improved by the Polish Administration, especially in the Eastern Provinces, where postal services have for long been in a state of utter neglect. The development of the Polish Postal Service during the last three years is seen from the following table:—

							establishment or
Year.]	Post Offices.	Agencies.	Agentships.	Total.	sq. kms.	Population.
1923		1,506	1,255	1,005	3,766	103	7,221
1924		1,598	1,306	1,935	3,839	99	7,083
1925		1,677	1,372	1,021	4,070	95	6,681

Simultaneously with the development of the Postal system, the General Direction introduced many improvements in the organisation of Post Offices, and attempted to effect a considerable economy in the Post Office personnel by simplifying the methods of transacting the usual Post Office business. These economies affected mostly permanent Civil Service officials, and had to be effected in such a way as to safeguard the further development and efficiency of the Service.

Detailed figures in respect of the Post Office personnel are as follows:—

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		Offi	cials.	Lower functionaries.				
Year.	G'ment officials.	Tempor- Postal Agencies staff.		Postal A'ships staff.	Civil Servants. Temporary staff. Mess gers			
1923 1924 1925	13,723 13,157 12,803	1,307 1,050 1,050	1,255 1,306 1,372	1,005 935 1,021	13,609 12,665 12,348	650 650 650	656 985 1,148	

2. Transport of Mails.

All matters concerning the conveyance of mails are concentrated in the Transport Department of the General Direction of Postal and Telegraph Services. The immediate control over the transport of mails is exercised by the Transport Departments of the respective local Directions.

Conveyance of Mails by Rail.

Mails are transported on railways either in special mail coaches, where they are sorted out during the journey, or in charge of railway or Post Office guards, whose duties are confined to receiving sealed mail bags and delivering them at the point of their destination. The latter method is restricted to the conveyance of Letter Post only, i.e., of ordinary and registered letters, newspapers and printed matter. Parcels are transported in goods waggons coupled either to passenger trains or to fast goods trains. The development of mail transport will be seen from the following table:—

	Numb	per of		21.	77 4 1 34			
Year.	Mail coaches.	P.O. Rly. convoys	Total.	Distance in kms.	Total No. of kms, covered.	Remarks.		
1919 1920 1921	184 392 396 392	67 110 97 274	251 502 493 666	20,197 30,683 33,669 36,691	7,937,506 12,117,863* 22,038,787 26,645,211	*Bolshevist invasion.		
1923	386 374	351 398	737 772	39,406 41,796	31,449,140 28,277,210 ⁰	*Restrictions of train services.		

A new scheme for the conveyance of mails, which will be put into operation on the 5th of June next, provides a

considerable increase in the number of mail coaches and mail convoys.

Rolling Stock.

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The nature and number of mail coaches which were in circulation during the last few years is given in the following Schedule:—

Year.		Mail Co	aches in Circu	lation	14 11 0	
		4-axle coaches.	3-axle coaches.	2-axle coaches.	Mail Compartments.	Total.
1919		 36	38	88	67	220
1920		 36 28	49	171	116	364
1921		 38	54	163	161	416
1922	1.	 47	72	165	102	396
1923		 76	81	164	96	417
1924		 73	77	148	185	483

The construction of 25 new four-axle coaches is being proceeded with.

Road Transport of Mails.

Mails are conveyed by road, by motor and horse-drawn vans, and also by messengers on foot. The supply and upkeep of vehicles, and generally the carrying of mails by road is usually undertaken by private contractors on the basis of individual agreements between the contractor and the Government. The transport of mails by road is gradually developing, especially in connection with the increasing railway transport and the establishment of additional Post Offices in all parts of the country. The Schedule below will show at a glance the increase in this means of postal communication:—

	Numbe	r of—					
Year,	Journeys.	Journeys on foot.	Total.	Distance in kms.	Total Number of kilometres covered.		
1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924	897 935 1,008 966 1,042 1,060	753 1,491 1,508 1,590 1,543 1,814	1,650 2,426 2,516 2,556 2,587 2,874	10,316 15,126 16,273 20,208 20,668 25,479	4,761,226 7,127,050 9,688,008 11,750,179 11,967,794 12,561,622		

Motor transport by vans and motor-cycles is being gradually Puck adopted in larger towns.

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The number of letter-boxes is increasing yearly, and in ac amounts at present to 13,239, whereas in 1919 there were only 5,212 boxes.

3. Air Mail.

The transport of mails by air was first introduced in Poland on April 12, 1921, on the Warsaw-Strassburg-Paris route on the basis of an agreement with the Franco-Rumanian Air Navigation Company. At the commencement the service was maintained only twice a week; then, after the 2nd of May, three times; and now, since July 26, 1921, there is a regular daily service. The Post Office "Warsaw I." was in charge of all mail to be transported by air, including letters, postcards, printed matter, commercial papers and samples, and destined to Prague, Strassburg and Paris. Mails destined for Canada and New York were sent to Paris by air, whence by the ordinary postal route to their destinations.

This route was maintained in 1922. In addition, a regular air mail service between Warsaw, Vienna and Budapest was established on May 15th of that year; on September 16th the Warsaw-Bucarest service, which on October 5th was extended to Constantinople. All these lines were maintained by the Franco-Rumanian Company. In the same year an agreement was concluded with the "Polish Air Lines Aero-Lloyd" for the carrying of mails between Warsaw and Danzig and between Warsaw and Lwów. These services were commenced on December 1st.

In 1923 all these services were maintained and in addition the Warsaw-Kraków service has been established. service to Constantinople was temporarily suspended owing to the political situation in the Near East.

In 1924 the service to Constantinople and Angora has been re-opened, all the other services being maintained. Mail for Jaffa was included in the mail destined for Constantinople, whence it was dispatched to Jaffa by ordinary post.

This season, the Warsaw-Paris service was temporarily suspended owing to the unfavourable attitude of Germany, and the consequent necessity of changes in the itinerary. A direct service from Warsaw to Vienna via Kraków was opened on April 25th.

The state of the s

The development of air communication will be seen from the following Schedule of flights and distances covered. Thus—

			Distance covered.
		Flights.	kms.
1921		 245	85,750
1922	4 *	 637	185,114
1923		 702	231,614
1924		 1,024	396,900

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4. Inland Postal Service.

The development of postal communication within the country encountered originally many obstacles and difficulties, the most important of these being the multiform regulations inherited from Germany, Austria, and Russia respectively. These regulations are gradually being codified.

The present inland postal service includes, in accordance with the Post Office Act of June 3rd, 1924, the following departments:—

1. Letter Post, i.e., the transport of ordinary and registered letters, postcards, printed matter, samples, and commercial papers.

The volume of traffic in these articles is expressed in the following general figures:—

- Money Order Department, including collection of Bills, etc. through the post. This Department was established in 1924.
- 3. **Newspaper Post.**—All newspapers published in the country are entitled to a reduced tariff, amounting to 20 per cent. of the usual tariff for printed matter.

The system of subscribing to newspapers through the post which is already in existence in the western provinces will shortly be extended to all parts.

4. Parcel Post and Insured Letters of Declared Value.—Theseservices are constantly expanding. This is due to the con-

siderable improvements in postal arrangements. The corresponding figures are :—

			Parcels—					
			Ordinary.	With declared value.				
1921			2,983,874	1,593,616				
1922	4.0	. 44	4,399,073	2,459,630				
1923	4.0	**	4,355,344	1,749,690				

The figures for 1924 show an increase of nearly 50 per cent., and a similar increase in the transport of letters with declared value.

5. As regards **Postal Orders**, there was an increase in the number of Postal Orders issued in 1924 as compared with those issued during the period 1921-23. Thus:—

	1921			6,276,114	Postal	Orders	were	issued.
	1922			6,575,781		33		,
	1 1923			7,666,431	. 11	11	1	13
n i	oza the	increase	amou	ints to abou	it ia De	r cent.		

The above figures include telegraphic orders.

6. The number of parcels sent on the Cash on Delivery system forms 24 per cent. of the total number of parcels sent through the post. C.O.D. packets sent by Letter Post amounted to 37 per cent. of all articles transmitted through this Post.

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7. **Delivery Service.**—Practically all kinds of articles sent through the post are delivered in the urban Postal Divisions. Express letters, letters sent by air, and telegraphic orders are delivered by special messengers.

In rural districts letters are delivered by country postmen (in the western and south-western provinces) or are collected from the nearest Post Office by messengers.

For the convenience of the public, Post Office Letter-Boxes are installed at most Offices, and letters may be collected as soon as they arrive.

8. Postal charges are usually paid by means of stamps. Official correspondence of Government and Municipal authorities forms an exception to this rule, being paid for annually by the Departments concerned.

Money Orders, letters of value, and parcels are also paid for in cash. This facilitates control and is more practicable considering the high scale of charges for these services.

9. All Post Offices also transact the ordinary business of the Post Office Savings Bank.

5. Foreign Postal Service.

The participation of Poland in the services regulated by the International Postal Convention took place gradually and synchronised with the development of the Polish Postal Service and the improvements effected both as regards the inland system and the foreign service.

The adhesion of Poland to the Rome Convention in 1919 was a necessity of the moment; owing, however, to the state of war which continued to exist in Poland until the latter half of 1920, the foreign postal services remained undeveloped. With the conclusion of peace with the Bolshevists, began a new period in the development of Postal activities in general, and of the foreign service in particular. Gradually, most branches of this service have been organised and developed.

If, notwithstanding these efforts, several departments of the foreign postal service have not as yet been established, this is due not to the inefficiency of Polish postal authorities and their inexperience in these transactions, but to the special circumstances created by the financial reforms and the resultant wish to establish for the present only such services as will not

adversely affect the state of the Treasury.

With the exception of the Money Transfer Department and the subscription to periodicals by post, the Polish Post Office has introduced all the principal branches of the foreign postal service. Thus, letters of declared value, as well as parcels, whether ordinary or of declared value, are exchanged with all countries belonging to the International Postal Union. International reply-paid coupons are sold and exchanged at Polish Post Offices, and a regular and efficient postal service

has been organised with all countries in the world.

The volume of mails exchanged with foreign countries grows rapidly every year. Thus, in 1919, only 56 bags with foreign mails were received daily, and only 69 sent out; in 1920 the figures were 87 and 95 respectively; in 1921, 156 and 179; in 1922, 212 and 229; in 1923, 273 and 286; in 1924, 380 and 362, respectively. At present about 465 bags are received, and 440 dispatched daily. These mails include every part of the world and every Post Office in the world. Quite recently a special service to Palestine has been established owing to the volume of Jewish emigration from Poland to that country.

The most important centres of foreign postal service in Poland are Warsaw, Kraków, Poznań, Lwów, Danzig and

Katowice.

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The volume of mails carried by the Parcel Post is considerably smaller, partly because of the still important economic considerations; yet, even this branch of the service shows a gradual growth. In 1919 and 1920 the parcel traffic was confined to one direction only, viz., from the United States to Poland. It was not until 1921 that a regular parcel service was commenced in accordance with the provisions of the Madrid Convention; ever since the numerical importance of this service has been increasing, and in 1924, in spite of economic restrictions, no fewer than 2,000,000 parcels were carried in all directions. Taking into consideration the lack of suitable stores and of transport stock due to the insufficiency of capital earmarked for this purpose, it is significant that during the year 1924 only 200 cases of lost or rifled parcels were reported, a fact which speaks well for the efficiency of the Polish postal staff.

The conclusion of special conventions as regards the parcel service with Great Britain, Canada and the United States was made possible by the rights in respect of the territory of the Free City of Danzig granted to Poland by the Treaty of Versailles. Some of these concern exclusively the territory of the Free City, others deal with the possibilities of utilising the harbour as Poland's outlet to the sea. The enforcement of the former encounters many difficulties arising from the policy of the Government of the Free City. The continuous challenges of Polish rights to participate in the postal service of the Free City, and the delay in handing over to Poland the former German telegraphic and telephonic installations granted to her, are responsible for the fact that, apart from Letter Post, no other branches of the Polish Postal Service have been established in the Free City. The position as regards Polish rights in the harbour is considerably better. and, in consequence, it has been possible to utilise the sea routes for the exchange of letters and parcels with the United States and of parcels with Great Britain. Three Steamship Lines carry mails to these countries, viz., the Baltic-America Line (West Asiatic Company, Limited), the "Horenede Dampfskips-Selskap," and the Ellerman Wilson Line; the latter carries mails only to Great Britain.

The importance of Danzig for Poland lies in the fact that by avoiding Germany and other transit countries a direct communication is established with overseas countries; and, in consequence, the costs of transit for letters and parcels are considerably reduced.

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The establishment of regular money transfer connections with all countries belonging to the Postal Union was impossible in view of the lack of a stable currency in Poland. Now this obstacle has been surmounted by the introduction of the zloty, and the Foreign Money Transfer Department is being organised and will commence its operations in the near future.

At present, Money Transfer business is transacted with the United States, Canada, France, and the Saar Territory only on the basis of individual conventions with these countries. The establishment of these services was made possible by the liberal attitude of the Post Office Administrations of these countries which, considering Poland's financial conditions, have agreed to settle all balances in currencies of recognised stability. In consequence, the risk of the Polish Post Office has been reduced to a minimum.

The subscription to foreign periodicals by post will begin simultaneously with the establishment of the Foreign Money Transfers Department.

In order to co-ordinate Polish postal relations with the requirements of economic life and of the financial reforms, a series of conventions have been concluded, especially with the neighbouring countries; these conventions deviate somewhat from the provisions of the International Convention as regards postal facilities and charges. Special agreements have been entered into with Czechoslovakia, Roumania, Hungary, Austria, and the Union of Soviet Republics, which deal with all aspects of the postal service between these countries and Poland. Negotiations are proceeding for a similar convention with Germany, and will also shortly commence with Finland, Latvia, and Estonia. Lithuania alone is, as yet, outside the sphere of Polish Postal service. That country is a signatory to the World Convention, but has so far persisted in refusing any closer postal relations with Poland.

6. Telegraphs, Telephone and Wireless.

The development of the Telegraphic and Telephonic systems is shown on the attached Tables 7 and 8, which also show the growth of the volume of telegraphic communications.

In addition, the following projects as regards the improvement of these services will be executed this year:—

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- (1) The reconstruction of the Telephone Exchange in Wilno, with a proposed central battery for 1,500 subscribers; also the improvement of the Trunk Exchange for 30 lines and the general development of the local cable system;
- (2) Reconstruction of the Automatic Exchange in Kraków and its enlargement to 4,000 lines, also the extension of the Trunk Exchange to 60 lines and the development of the cable system:
- (3) The substitution of the existing Exchange in Bielsko by an automatic one for 2,000 subscribers and the extension of existing cables;
- (4) Extension of the Automatic Exchange in Poznań to 2,000 subscribers and development of the local cable system;
- (5) Work has already commenced on the extension of the existing cable systems in Stanisławów, Tarnopol, Kielce, Katowice, Kr. Huta and in other important towns; the cost of these improvements is estimated at 600,000 zlotys;
- (6) The construction of copper cables for the Trunk service of a total length of 2,850 km. has been commenced;
- (7) Amplifiers are being installed in Warsaw, Poznań, Wilno, and Kraków for improving the service of long-distance calls;
- (8) A project for telephonic installations by means of high frequency currents is being prepared;
- (9) The construction of a new wireless station within the European wave-length will be proceeded with in Warsaw;
- (ro) The wireless station in Poznań will be equipped with the latest apparatus;
 - (11) The wireless station in Kraków is to be wholly re-built.

The programme of work during 1926-1930 includes the following projects:—

- I. The further extension of telephonic connections on Trunk and International Exchanges.
- 2. Further extension of Telephonic Exchanges in the larger towns, viz., Toruń, Przemyśl, Kielce, Zakopane, Brześć, Równe, &c.)

3. The construction of additional Trunk exchanges in towns where these have not as yet been constructed.

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- 4. Construction of Automatic Exchanges in Upper Silesia and interconnecting them by cables.
- 5. The erection of a new building for the Central Telegraphic and Telephonic Exchange in Warsaw.
- 6. Construction of underground telephone cables for Trunk and International calls.

7. Telegraph Service Statistics.

Year.		Nı	imber o	of Telegraphic Instruments. Hughes, Baudot, Siemens.				Tele-	Distance covered by the Tele- graph System in Kms.			
	No. of Tele- graph Offices.	Morse.	Keys.	Single Message.	Two Message.	Two Message.	Four Message.	Single Message.	Two Message.	phones for Tele- graph Service.	Over- ground Cables.	Under- ground Sub- marine Cables.
1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924	679 2,328 2,654 2,838 2,892 2,916	755 1,307 1,532 1,641 1,646 1,680	10 120 150 178 176 186	107 132 174 183 190 194	4 1 2 2 2 2	I I 2 2	1 6 6 5 7		3 4 5 4 4 4	1,938 1,687 2,185 2,161 2,271	14,515 20,975 24,614 27,604 27,932 30,149	53 292 374 389 618 618

	Total	Length	of all C	ables.		Foreign Telegrams.				
Year.	Over- ground.	Under- ground Sub- marine	Iron	Coffer Cables.	Total No. of Inland Telegrams.	Dis- patched from Poland,	Re- ceived in Poland.	Transit Tele- grams.	Total.	
1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924	77,928 100,659 103,326 102,990 106,891 108,336	2,796 3,430 3,736 5,299	93,046 86,915 87,195 90,630	18,409 19,841 19,531 21,560	6,370,688 9,807,354 12,416,849 13,881,358 12,984,011 12,075,231	106,695 692,193 719,147 818,228 693,865 652,873	1,064,263 819,976 917,465 760,742	7,236 52,112 62,991 79,837	216,897* 1,763,692 1,591,235 1,798,684 1,534,444† 1,484,713	

The statistics prior to 1919 do not include all provinces.
 Owing to the improvement of the telephone service, the volume of telegraph traffic is decreasing.

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The value of all telegraphic and telephonic installations under the control of the General Direction of Postal and Telegraphic Services was estimated on January 1st, 1925, at 202,658,218 zlotys.

Telegraphic communication with the following countries was maintained by direct cables:—

		,				No. of cables.
With	Germany			 	 	21
	Czechoslov			 	 	6
31	Austria			 	 	2
11	Rumania			 	 	4
33	Hungary			 	 	2
12	Russia.	-		 	 	4
>>	Latvia		4.6	 	 	I

8. Telephone Statistics.

Local Telephone Exchanges.

Year.	Number of Lines.	Number of Ex- changes.	Length of Lines in Kms.	Length of Wire in Kms,	Number of Subscri- bers.	Number of Appara- tus.	Number of Local Calls.
1919	506 1,296 1,236 1,353 1,449 1,454	519 1,297 1,385 1,432 1,456 1,459	14,781 16,052 18,085 19,272	58,238 172,242 176,298 178,007 194,721 211,445	12,559 43,550 46,377 57,638 65,136 65,952	13,769 47,450 50,118 60,629 69,211 69,458	11,877,787 41,985,631 112,513,288 148,055,533 197,086,014 222,143,238

Local Telephone Lines of the Polish Telephone Co.

Year.	Number of Lines.	Number of Exchanges.	Length of Lines in Kms.		Length of Wire in Kms.		of	Number of	Number
			Over- head.	Cables.	Over- head.	Cables.	Subscribers.	Instru- ments.	Calls.
1919 1920 1911 1922 1923 1924	7 7 7	12 12 12	928 931	273 275	232 228,590 251,650	523 13,500 14,750	31,060 33,504 37,530	38,964 40,937 44,985	246,000,000 254,000,000

The Polish Telephone Co. was founded in July, 1922. The system comprises the following local exchanges:--Warsaw, Łódź, Lwów, Borysław, Sosnowiec, Lublin and Białystok. The share capital amounts to 9,975,000 zlotys, divided into 19,950 shares of 500 zlotys each, which are held by the ics following :-

> State Treasury .. L. M. Ericsson Co. 8,550 shares to the value of 4,275,000 zlotys. 9,991 ,, ,, 4,955,000 ,, 1,489 ,, ,, 744,500 Private Shareholders ... Total 19,950 shares to the value of 9,975,000 zlotys.

Suburban Telephone Lines.

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Year	r.	Number of Telephone Offices.	Number of Public Telephone Stations.	Length of Lines in Kms.	Length of Wires in Kms.	Number of Intersuburban Telephone Calls.
1919 1920 1921 1922 1923		684 976 1,491 1,379 1,582 2,353	684 1,981 2,223 2,732 2,563 2,643	12,888 18,344 27,020 32,051 32,149 34,558	67,162 91,683 162,767 186,647 189,483 200,305	2,816,809 6,593,549 7,601,080 10,781,425 14,034,680 14,896,829

Poland is in direct telephone communication with the following countries: -- Germany, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Rumania, Latvia.

VIII LABOUR AND SOCIAL WELFARE

VIII.—LABOUR AND SOCIAL WELFARE. I.—GENERAL CONDITIONS OF LABOUR IN POLAND.

The regulation of labour conditions in Poland has received the most careful attention of the Polish Government from the earliest days of its re-establishment. The first legislative enactments of the Constituent Assembly attempted to settle the numerous questions connected with this problem. Unfortunately, owing to the variety of legislation in force in the respective parts of the Republic, and also to the differences in industrial and economic conditions—the Government has not, as yet, been able to introduce a uniform Labour Code applying to all territories of the re-established State. The regulation of labour conditions is proceeding steadily and even to-day uniformity in legislation has been attained as regards particular problems, such as working hours, women and juvenile labour, Trade Unions, Factory Inspection, unemployment insurance, employment agencies

and other similar questions.

Polish statutes dealing with the above subjects are similar as regards their aims and methods to the corresponding legislation of other progressive European States. With reference to international conventions, Polish legislation embodies their provisions and in some cases adopts even further-reaching methods. No fewer than 13 international conventions dealing with labour problems had been ratified in 1923 by the Polish Parliament. These conventions deal with the questions of (1) unemployment, (2) minimum age of children employed in various industries, (3) night labour of juveniles, (4) minimum age of juveniles employed by shipping companies, (5) unemployment and life insurance for sailors, (6) employment agencies for sailors, (7) minimum age of children employed in farm labour, (8) coalitions and unions of farm labourers, (9) accident insurance in connection with farm labour, (10) the use of white lead in paints, (11) weekly holidays in industrial undertakings, (12) minimum age for juveniles employed underground and in boiler chambers, and (13) compulsory medical examination of children and juveniles employed on board ships.

1. Labour Inspection.

Labour Inspection was introduced in Poland by a Decree of January 3, 1919 ("Official Journal of Laws," No. 5, p. 91). The decree provided for inspection of, and the enforcement of legislation in, all industrial or commercial undertakings employing hired labour, whether these are owned by the State, a local government authority, a corporation or by a private individual. Thus, a legal

basis was created for a very strict supervision of labour conditions; the decree gives also a basis for a through regulations of all

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problems within these wide limits.

The main object of Labour Inspection is the enforcement of all legal enactments aiming at the protection of life and safety, as well as at the general welfare of workmen. In addition to this, it facilitates the education of juvenile employees, administers Labour Insurances, examines newly-established or re-built factories, collects statistics as regards labour conditions, and generally performs all duties entrusted to it by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare.

Labour Inspectors are legally entitled to visit any labouremploying establishment at any time of the day or night. They are also authorised to issue rules and regulations for the purpose

of enforcing orders issued by the Minister of Labour.

As regards its organisation, the Inspection of Labour is a separate and uniform organisation controlled by the Minister of Labour. The Chief Inspector of Labour supervises the activities of his subordinates, the County and District Inspectors. The latter perform their duties within the areas allotted to them and supervise the staff of their offices. Subject to the consent of the Minister of Labour, delegates of workmen may co-operate officially with the Inspector as his assistants.

The Labour Inspection Bureaux were organised gradually as soon as the territories ceded to Poland were taken over by Polish administration. In 1919 the activities of the Labour Inspection were confined only to the territory of the former Congress Kingdom; in 1920 they were extended to the former Austrian provinces; in 1922 to the County of Wilno and the three Eastern Counties; finally, in 1923, the counties of Poznań and Pomerania

were included in the general scheme.

The development of Labour Inspection is apparent from the following table:—

Year.				No. of Divisions.	No. of Districts.	No. of Inspectors.	
1919				7	28	56	
1920				9	28	75	
1921				9	55	70	
1922			- 0	10	57	72	
1923				12	71	92	

The task of Polish Labour Inspectors differs somewhat from that of their colleagues in Western Europe. Labour legislation in Poland being in its initial stages, the Inspectors must, of necessity, perform such duties as are under normal conditions included in a separate branch of administration. This applies primarily to arbitration in trade disputes. Since no other organs

GENERAL CONDITIONS OF LABOUR IN POLAND.

of arbitration are in existence, Labour Inspectors are called upon to arbitrate in disputes between employers and their employees. Furthermore, the compilation of Labour statistics falls within the duties of Inspectors, and until the year 1924 compensation for accidents in the former Russian provinces was supervised by them.

In consequence, the main duties of Labour Inspectors, the visiting of factories, workshops, etc., are to a certain extent neglected. Thus, in 1919, the average of visits made by inspectors was only 48. This figure had advanced to 104 in 1922, and 131 in 1923.

The figures for establishments employing hired labour which were under the control of the Labour Inspection in 1923 are as follows:—

-		No. of Establishments.	No. of Workmen Employed.
Mining		482	94,052
Mineral industries		1,565	49,375
Metal industries		2,270	55,853
Engineering and electrical works		1,977	50,851
Chemical industry		811	29,626
Textile ,,		2,332	188,872
Paper ,		411	11,669
Leather		1,231	10,633
Products of animal origin		4,222	75,197
Timber and wood-carving,		13,542	96,232
Foodstuffs and wearing-apparel		4,476	26,035
Building		1,050	27,135
Printing		683	14,273
Works of public utility		6.42	15,008
Commerce, banking and insurance		3,104	16,914
Communication, post and telegraph	office,	*	
telephones		98	4,391
Hotels, restaurants and personal service	S	1,168	4,397
Entertainment		76	1,143
Total		40,130	771,566*

These figures are compiled from the Registers of Labour Inspectors, and have considerably changed already. Owing to the present economic crisis the number of industrial and commercial establishments is fluctuating.

The above table does not include agriculture, animal breeding and forestry. The statistics give only the number of farms of over 100 acres, and the number of labourers permanently employed. 15,890 of these farms with a total of 376,100 labourers were supervised by Labour Inspectors. (This does not include three of the Eastern Counties.)

The duties of inspectors supervising agricultural labour are different from those of other branches of Labour Inspection. Although the Decree referred to above applied to farming as well as

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to other industries, the majority of labour problems in connection with agriculture are settled by collective agreements between the employers and employees rather than by statutory legislation. The Agreement concluded in 1924 applies to five counties in the former Russian provinces, and to the counties of Poznań and Pomerania Such agreements are usually negotiated through the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare with the co-operation of representatives of both parties and also of officials representing the various Ministries concerned. Such agreements form the true legal basis of labour conditions in agriculture, and the representative bodies concluding them form, as regards their importance and influence, a proper Chamber of Agriculture. The settlement of disputes arising out of such agreements is entrusted to the respective Labour Inspectors or to special Arbitration Commissions. These Commissions are presided over either by the Labour Inspector or by a person agreed upon by both parties. In practice, the first method is usually adopted, and in consequence the Inspector of Agricultural Labour has to perform special and responsible duties. Since a breach of a clause in the agreement does not constitute a penal offence, the Inspector cannot, as in the case of industry, commence judicial proceedings. He can only influence the defaulting party by his tactful advice. Hence, the arbitration duties of Inspectors are the most difficult ones and require special tact and abilities.

It appears from the General Report on the activities of Labour Inspectors for 1923 that they made 8,579 examinations, and participated in 3,470 commissions set up to give an opinion on the safety and sanitary conditions of newly-established or re-constructed establishments. During the inspections referred to above, 10,928

orders were issued to protect the safety of workmen.

The work of arbitration included mediation in 4,218 trade disputes between employers and workmen; 16,930 individual disputes were settled, and 2,004 cases involving house keepers were also satisfactorily arbitrated on. (Disputes involving house keepers are dealt with separately, as they are entitled by statute to arbitration by special Commissions.) In 920 cases, the disputes

were followed by strikes.

Arbitration by Labour Inspectors in farming disputes was resorted to in 6,336 cases where individual labourers were concerned, and in 831 cases of general disputes. These involved a total of 47,709 labourers employed on 5,346 farms. Labour Inspectors also took part in the settlement of 3,714 cases brought before special Arbitration Commissions, and were instrumental in the conclusion of 1,190 trade agreements involving 806,003 farm labourers.

2. Working Hours.

These are regulated by the Statute of December 18, 1919 ("Journal of Laws," No. 2, 1920, p. 7), by an Amendment to this Statute of February 14, 1922 ("Journal of Laws," No. 14, p. 127) and

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by various other enactments. The application of these Acts is very wide, for they embrace all employees of industrial, commercial and mining establishments belonging either to the State, local government authorities and corporations or to private individuals. The Amendment of February 14, 1922, considerably limited the application of uniform working hours, by introducing a 10 hours' day for work in shops, although allowing only 8 hours' work for employees in such shops. As regards a statutory maximum of working hours per week, Poland exceeds the limit adopted by most European countries: the maximum number of working hours allowed per week is 46, whilst an 8 hours' working day has been enforced by statute. The hours of rest and holidays are also fixed by statute. Thus, after, every 6 hours of work, at least one hour's rest must follow. Exemption from this rule may be granted in cases where the nature of work does not allow such intervals.

The working day may be prolonged in cases of special circumstances arising unexpectedly, and also when the needs of the establishment demand it. In such cases permission to prolong the working day must be obtained from the Ministry of Labour, the maximum for which such permission may be obtained is 120 hours per annum. In work with constantly moving machinery, the working week may be prolonged to 56 hours, subject to the permission of the Ministries of Labour and of Industry and Commerce, and also subject to the consent of the Trade Unions concerned. Finally, in cases of national emergency the Council of Ministers may temporarily order a higher maximum of working hours; the duration of such a measure cannot exceed three months. Overtime must be paid for 50 to 100 per cent. higher than normal work.

In accordance with the Washington Convention, the 8 hours' working day may be prolonged on certain days in the transport industry, provided, however, that the weekly maximum is maintained. The Statute also prohibits night work between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. in factories employing one shift of workmen, and between 10 p.m. and 4 a.m. in factories employing two shifts. Exceptions are allowed in cases of emergency and also in Works of Public Utility

3. Labour of Women and Juveniles.

The Statute of July 2, 1924, dealing with this problem ("Journal of Laws," No. 65, p. 636) makes far-reaching amendments in the legislation on this subject enforced prior to the Statute. The Act benefits a large percentage of workers, for women formed in 1923 27 per cent. of the total number of employees; in some industries, and especially in the textile and tailoring trades, the proportion of women employed amounted to 50 per cent. or more. Juvenile workers form 9 per cent. of all employees.

Juvenile workers within the meaning of the Statute referred to are employees of both sexes of from 15 to 18 years of age, including apprentices, articled pupils, etc. The Statute prohibits the em-

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ployment of children under 15.

The employment of juveniles is conditioned on the production of a certificate of birth stating the age of the applicant to be a least 15 years of age; the applicant must have had elementary education and must produce a medical certificate stating that the work for which he is to be engaged is not beyond his physical strength and must have the permission of his parents or guardians.

The working hours of juveniles are shorter than those of grown-up employees; time spent on training and education (which must not, however, exceed six hours per week) is counted as working time.

Furthermore, the Statute enforces a longer night rest for women and juveniles, which must be at least 11 hours. In establishments employing one shift of workmen the night interval must last from 8 p.m. to 6 a.m., and in those employing two shifts—from 10 p.m. to 5 a.m. Exceptions from this rule are allowed by virtue of the Washington and Berne Conventions on night labour.

Juveniles may not work overtime unless in cases of special and

unexpected emergency.

The Statute prohibits the employment of women and juveniles for work which is particularly injurious to their health; nor can they be employed on work which exceeds their physical strength or is dangerous to their health or morals. A list of trades to which this provision applies is issued, under the Statute, by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare.

Several provisions of this Statute aim at the protection and welfare of motherhood. By virtue of these provisions a pregnant woman may cease to work six weeks before the expected birth; it is also prohibited to employ a woman within six weeks after she has given birth to a child. In addition, by virtue of the corresponding provisions of the Washington Convention incorporated in the Polish Statute, nursing mothers may interrupt their work for two half-hours daily, which are counted as working hours To safeguard the welfare of infants the Statute also provides that every establishment employing 100 women or more must have a special Rest Room for nursing infants.

4. Leaves of Absence.

Annual holidays and leaves of absence for employees are granted in Poland by virtue of statutory enactments. Under the Act of May 16, 1922, dealing with these questions, every employee is entitled to a paid holiday in each calendar year. The Statute applies to industrial, commercial and mining undertakings employing at least five workers; it applies equally to establishments owned by the State or by local government authorities, or by corporations and private individuals. The length of the annual holiday is conditioned by the duration of the worker's employment, by his

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age, and by the nature of work in which he is engaged. Thus, workmen are entitled to 8 days' leave after one year's employment; juvenile employees-to 14 days' after the same period of employ-After three years' work the annual holiday is extended to a fortnight. Intellectual workers are entitled to one month's holiday after the first year of service. All employees are entitled to full pay during their holidays, which must be granted between the 1st of May and the 30th of September. In some branches of industry specified in the Order of the Minister of Labour, annual leaves may be granted outside this period. Workmen take their holidays in turn and the order in which they should take them is fixed by their representatives in agreement with the management of the works. The Statute, aiming primarily at the physical welfare of the employee, contains a clause allowing the employer to stop the payment of wages during a holiday, if the employee undertakes any other paid work during his leave.

5. Trade Unions.

The legal status of Trade Unions is defined by the Decree of February 8, 1919 ("Journal of Laws," No. 15, p. 209) by virtue of which the freedom of coalition has been introduced, and the establishment of new Trade Unions is made conditional only on a registration with the proper authorities of the Ministry of Labour. A Trade Union is, within the meaning of the Decree, a legal person. It may acquire rights or incur obligations; it can enter into collective agreements, sue and be sued in the Courts of Justice.

These provisions form a turning point in the history of Trade organisations in Poland. All restrictions as regards the activities of trade organisations have been abolished. In consequence, the development of the Trade Union movement in Polish territory since 1914 has been immense. In 1914 the total of organised workmen in the German and Austrian provinces of Poland was but 90,000. In the Russian provinces of Poland, where the prohibition against trade organisations was strictly enforced, no Trade Unions, in the modern sense of the word, ever existed. In 1922 all Trade Unions (including intellectual workers) within the territory of the Republic (including Upper Silesia) represented 1,404,000 organised workers. Divided, according to the nature of work, 28 per cent. of these workers were farm labourers, 15 per cent. post office employees, 13.4 per cent. textile workers, 9.6 per cent. miners, and 6.6 per cent. workmen employed in the smelting industries.

Three central organisations predominate by their influence amongst organised workmen. These are: the Federation of Trade Unions, the Polish Trades Federation, and the Christian Trades Federation. The influence of the Federation of Trade Unions prevails in the former Russian and Austrian provinces; the Polish Federation recruits its members from the former German provinces and from the textile industries in the former Russian

parts of the country. Lastly, the Christian Federation has influence in various branches of industry throughout the country.

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II.—NATIONAL INSURANCE SCHEMES

As regards National Insurance Schemes, uniform regulations have been adopted throughout the country in respect of health and unemployment insurance. The legislative enactments tend to transform the existing Sick Wards giving free medical advice under the Health Insurance Scheme, into institutions of a uniform Insurance system which would include Accident, Disablement and Unemployment Insurances and Old Age Pensions.

1. Health Insurance.

The organisation of Sick Wards was performed by virtue of the Health Insurance Statute of May 19, 1920. (" Journal of Laws," No. 44, p. 272.) The main provision of this Act imposes the duty of insurance on all persons employed on a wage-earning basis. Only persons occupying more important posts and earning high salaries are exempted from the scheme. Government officials are similarly exempted. In view of the very wide application of this Act, the number of persons insured under this Scheme has advanced considerably as compared with those insured under various schemes operating in various parts of Poland before the war. In 1912 there were 200,000 persons insured in the Sick Wards of the former Austrian provinces of Poland, and 240,000 in the former German parts. The former Congress Poland had no Health Insurance Scheme at all, since the corresponding Russian Statute of 1912 never came into force. In January, 1925, the total of insured contributors under the National Health Insurance Scheme throughout Poland amounted to 4,173,000.

The Act of May 19, 1920, referred to above, provides for the establishment of Sick Wards of one type only, viz., one for every administrative District. Only towns with more than 50,000 inhabitants can have additional wards established.

The benefits accruing to the insured contributors are represented by free medical advice and medicines for 26 weeks, and by a cash payment of 60 per cent. of their "statutory wages" for a period not exceeding 26 weeks. In cases where the Ward exists in the District for more than three years, these benefits may be extended to 39 weeks. The extent of financial assistance is regulated by schedule of wages for each trade group incorporated in the Act. Women-contributors are entitled to medical aid before, during, and after confinement They are also entitled to a confinement benefit to the extent of eight weeks' of their statutory wages. Nursing mothers receive a further bonus during 12 weeks after the expiration of the confinement bonus, Funeral expenses of a deceased con-

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tributor are also paid, but cannot exceed a sum representing three weeks' statutory wages. The family of the insured contributor is entitled to free medical aid and medicines for a period not exceeding 13 weeks; they can also claim the confinement bonus, one half of the bonus for nursing mothers, and lastly the contributor is entitled to one-half of the statutory funeral allowance in case of death of a member of his family.

The funds of Sick Wards are composed of contributions which are so fixed as to cover, together with other income, all expenses and payments to contributors. Members of the Wards pay two-fifths of their contributions, and their employers the remaining three-fifths.

The Wards are governed by a Council, a Board of Directors, a Supervisory Committee, and an Arbitration Commission. Council is composed of members elected for a period of three years; one-third of them is elected by employers, and the remainder by the insured contributors. The Council nominates Directors and also the Supervisory and Arbitration Committees. The Board of Directors is composed of from 9 to 18 members. The insured elect two-thirds of these and their employers the remaining onethird. The ballot is secret and based on principles of Proportional Representation.

The Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare exercises a general control over the activities connected with the National Health Insurance. A special Insurance Department of the Ministry was set up for this purpose. The number of Sick Wards in the different wojewodztwo in 1924 was as follows :-

	(County.			No. of Wards.	New Wards being Organised.
Poznań			 		36	
Pomerania			 		18	-
Kraków			 		18	_
Lwów			 		25	Ξ
Tarnopol			 		13	-
Stanisławów			 		13	_
Silesia			 		51	-
Warsaw			 		10	5
Warsaw City			 		I	
-6dź			 		12	_
Kielce			 		II	4
ublin			 			3
Bialystok			 		3 5 2	4
Vilno			 		2	
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Volhynia					6	
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The total number of fully organised Wards is 229 and 18 new ones are being organised.

The following Table gives an idea as to the size of membership of PDparticular Wards. The figures, compiled in January, 1925, comprise only 180 Wards; the remaining ones were established only during

GENERAL CONDITIONS OF LABOUR IN POLAND.

the last few months and detailed figures as to their work are not yet available :---

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Membership.				Wards.
Less than 2,000	 			31
From 2,000 to 5,000	 			45
,, 5,000 ,, 10,000	 			58
,, 10,000 ,, 30,000	 			21
,, 30,000 ,, 50,000	 		• •	2
,, 50,000 ,, 100,000	 		• •	2
Over 100,000	 	• •	• •	2

2. Unemployment Insurance.

In view of the industrial crisis the problem of unemployment became a question of considerable importance. The conditions in as r the labour markets showing continuous unemployment in certain prov branches of industry and a large volume of emigration demanded Act appropriate preventive measures. The Government programme took into consideration the principles adopted by the most pro-how sperous countries and by those having a firmly established labour 1921 legislation. In the first few months of Poland's independent appl existence, free Government Employment Exchanges were organised agai on the English model and a system of Government assistance for wha the unemployed was adopted. This assistance has now been bene converted into a compulsory Scheme of Unemployment Insurance. for ;

The Statute of July 18, 1924 ("Journal of Laws," No. 67, p. 650) year applies to workmen employed in mining, industrial, communications disa and commercial establishments with a staff of five or more. Every thir unemployed who has worked in such establishments for at least In (20 weeks within 12 months preceding his application, is entitled the

to the unemployment benefit.

The extent of the benefit is conditional upon the wage-earning com capacity of the insured and on the size of his family. (The payments amount usually to from 30 per cent. to 50 per cent. of are the contributor's statutory wages.) The benefits can only be paid Office during a maximum period of from 13 to 17 weeks per annum.

The expenses of the Unemployment Insurance Scheme are covered as primarily by the State; all establishments employing hired labour Gov are compelled to pay towards this scheme two per cent. of each employee's wages, payable to the extent of one-quarter by the Aus insured, the remaining three-quarters being paid by his employers. to t

The execution of the Scheme is controlled by an autonomous Lav body, the "Unemployment Fund." This organisation is governed of . by a General Management which controls Unemployment Insurance the activities throughout the country. The Fund is represented locally visi by District Offices administered by representatives of the Govern- to (ment, of local government authorities, and of workmen and their

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GENERAL CONDITIONS OF LABOUR IN POLAND.

employers. Thus, all interested parties are represented in the administration of the scheme.

The cost of Unemployment Insurance was as follows --

In October, 1924 1,962,208 zlotys.

November, 1924 . . . 2,425,365 ,

December, 1924 . . 2,949,402 ,

January, 1925 . . 2,767,151 ,,

The number of unemployed during these periods was:

In October, 1924 147,000

November, 1924 150,000

December, 1924 159,000

January, 1925 175,000

3. Accident Insurance.

The legislation of the former Austrian and German Governments in as regards Accident Insurance are still in force in the respective provinces of the Republic pending the publication of a uniform

ed Act for the whole country.

Many additional benefits for the insured contributors have, however, been introduced already. The new Statute of July 7, 1921 ("Journal of Laws," No. 65, p. 413) extends considerably the application of the corresponding Austrian Statute. Insurance against accidents is made compulsory and applies to all employees whatever the nature of work on which they are engaged. The benefits are increased by adopting a higher scale of wages as basis for assessment. The benefit amounts to two-thirds of the insured's yearly wage in cases of permanent disablement; where the man disablement is only partial the benefit payable represents two-thirds of the loss of wages due to the diminished earning capacity. In cases of fatal accidents, the benefits are paid to the family of the insured.

Contributions are paid only by employers, according to a tariff

ng compiled by the Accident Insurance Office.

By virtue of the Polish statute referred to above, the insured of are entitled to control the activities of the Accident Insurance of the Accident Insurance of the Accident Insurance of the Office. This Office, with Headquarters in Lwów, is organised similarly to the Sick Wards and the Unemployment Fund, i.e., as an autonomous institution supervised and controlled by Government authorities.

The Act of January 30, 1925, extends the application of the Austrian Statute, as amended by the Polish Act of July 7, 1921, to the territories of the former Russian part of Poland ("Journal of Laws," No. 16, p 148.) Thus a further step towards the uniformity of Accident Insurance regulations was made; at the same time the Russian Statute of 1903, containing most unfavourable provisions for workmen as regards compensation for accidents ceased to exist in the most industrial province of the Republic.

GENERAL CONDITIONS OF LABOUR IN POLAND

The number of persons insured against accidents (excluding arm labourers insured in the former Prussian provinces) in 1924 was as follows :---

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County.	Name of Insurance Institution.	No. of Establishments Insured.	No. of Persons Insured.
Poznań and Pomerania	County Insurance Office in	9,533	207,487
Silesia	Social Insurances Office in Königshutte.	4,001 (industrial estimates only).	235,454
Counties of Kraków, Lwów, Tarnopol, Sta- nisławów	Accident Insurance Office in Lwów.	30,155	246,671 (in 1923).
Other Counties		2,950	341,106

Pension insurances existing in the former Austrian and German provinces in accordance with old Statutes must also be mentioned, the

The Polish Statute of June 10, 1921 ("Journal of Laws," No. 59, We p. 370) introduced certain amendments to the old Austrian and Gc German enactments on this subject, whereby the application of tin these statutes has been considerably enlarged. In 1913 the two of Pension Insurance Offices operating on the territories of Galicia and Bukowina (now forming part of Rumania) had only 12,948 insured contributors. In 1924 this number had increased to 25,750 on the territory of the former Austrian provinces, including Teschen Silesia.

It must be added that all National Insurance Schemes operating within the territory of the Republic apply equally-in accordance with a Statute of July 6, 1923 ("Journal of Laws," No. 75, p. 587)—to subjects of foreign States employed in Poland and to their families though the latter may be domiciled outside the frontiers of the Republic. Only in cases where a foreign State excludes Polish citizens from participation in a National Insurance Scheme, similar 111 restrictions may be placed on citizens of that State employed in Poland by way of reciprocity.

4. Social Welfare.

Problems connected with Public Health and Social Welfare are dealt with by a Statute of August 16, 1923. In accordance with this Statute, social welfare includes care of infants and children, protection of motherhood, care of old persons and invalids, cripples, homeless victims of the war, ex-convicts, etc. It also includes a systematic campaign against begging and loitering, and a scheme of co-operation with charitable institutions supported by private of subscriptions and contributions. The duty of social protection lies in principle, with the Local Government authorities. The State covers expenses connected with the welfare of persons towards

GENERAL CONDITIONS OF LABOUR IN POLAND.

whom it owes a special duty; and also such expenditure as exceeds the financial capacity of a Local Government unit.

The right to social care appertains to all citizens of the Republic domiciled in one commune for at least one year. The rights of foreigners in this respect are regulated by international agreements,

or, failing these, by considerations of reciprocity.

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Should a Local Government unit neglect or fail to perform its duties as regards the administration of social welfare, the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare can, in conjunction with the Minister for Home Affairs, take the necessary steps at the expense of the defaulting authority. All questions of social care are controlled, in the last instance, by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare. A special Council of Social Welfare acts as an advisory body to the Ministry. The Council is composed of representatives of Local Government authorities, of Social and Charitable institutions, and of the Ministries concerned.

The execution of the Statute is very slow and difficult. During ned. the period of inflation, the performance of any schemes of social 59, welfare was practically impossible, since the Budgets of Local and Government authorities could not be balanced for any length of of time. Only after the financial reforms of 1924, the enforcement two of the Statute can be placed on a firm and stable basis.

III.-WAGES OF LABOUR IN POLAND.

948 AVERAGE DAILY WAGE IN APRIL, 1925, AS FIXED BY COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS BETWEEN TRADE UNIONS AND EMPLOYERS.

I. Mining.

Opper Suesia.	Rate.	Nett Wages.
Underground miners Other underground workmen Underground workmen Underground workmen Underground workmen Women Average of all groups.	zl. 7·18 5·09 5·01 1·14 2·17 5·43	zl. 6-07 4-20 4-14 1-07 1-78 4-52
Dabrowa and Kraków Basin.	Tariff A.	Tariff B. Tariff C.
Underground: Miners Signalmen Jlands (21–24 years old) Juveniles On the surface: Qualified workmen Hands Women	zl, 4 · oo 3 · 60 2 · 60 2 · oo 4 · oo 3 · oo 1 · 8o	zl. zl. 3.70 3.60 3.33 3.24 2.59 2.52 1.85 1.80 3.70 3.60 2.76 2.76 1.67 1.62

2. Oil Mining (daily wages).

Borer,	class I.				 5.29	zlotys.
**	class II.		p 4		4.18	
33	class III.			0 0	2.87	**
33	class IV.			0.4	1.67	2.2
Watchr	nen and dri	vers			 4.18	.00

3. Metal Industry.

(Wages differ in the various industrial centres.)

In Łódź (daily wages).			5.37 z	lotve
Qualified workman	 0.0	4 *	2.3/ 5	iotys.
Operatives	 		4.00	4.0
Yard operatives	 	• •	0 0,	2.2
Apprentice (1st year)	 		1.00	0.0
" (2nd year)	 		1.30	3.2
,, (3rd year)	 	• •	1.69	22

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In

4. Mills.

(Weekly wages in Warsaw.)

Miller	 			58 . 98	zlotys.
Qualified assistant	 	0.0		56.11	10.
Unqualified	 	8.0		21.13	12
Women and juveniles	+ "	0.0	0.0	31.39	2.2

5. Bakeries.

(Weekly wages in Warsaw.

	,	_					
Responsible	baker					70.76 zl	otys.
Operative				9.1		66.60	11
Hands			0.0	4.0	0.7	41.65	

6. Sugar Mills.

(Daily wages in the former Congress Kingdom.)

(Daily media	0		_	*
Class I.—Workmen			5.48	zlotys.
Class II.—Boilermen and stokers			4.09	
Class III.—Outdoor workers and	watchn	ien	2.93	4.0
Class IV.—Women				23

Payments in kind amount to about 54 zlotys per month.

GENERAL CONDITIONS OF LABOUR IN POLAND.

7. Tailoring Trade.

(Minimum daily wages.)

Men	5	tailors	:	

Class	I		 	10.0	13-20	zlotys.
Clases		100	 		10.50	44
Class 1	III		 	4.0	8:45	

Ladies' tailors ...

.. from 12.84 to 10.05.

Experienced hands 171-20 per month.

Dress and bodice-makers 267-50

(20 per cent, is added in establishments de lure.)

8. Building Trade.

(Daily wage in Warsaw.)

	building.		In wor	shop	bs.	
Bricklayers	8.16	zlotys.	Qualified men		8.00	zlotys.
Joinery	0.48		Yard workman		5.80	
Slaters	5.68		Carpenters		8-00	-
Women	3.32	0.1	Operatives	**	5-20	
Juveniles	2 . 3 . 88		Hoys		2:00	

9. Printing Trade.

(Weekly wages.)

· ·		Warsaw.	Posen.
Hand compositors		96-40 zlotys.	62: 16 zlotys.
Machine compositors		134.96	79.12
Mechanics		96.40	
Operatives	0.0	72:30	

10. Textile Industry.

(Daily wages)

Outdoor workmen		 3.93	zlotys.
Plumbers	1.0	6.48	
Mechanics			to 9.62 zlotys.
Charwomen		 2.50	zlotys

IV.—THE COST OF LIVING IN POLAND. (In the Years 1924 and 1925.)

The cost of living index showed a considerable increase as from July 1924, as a consequence of the rise in the price of corn on the international markets.

1. Cost of Living Index in Warsaw in 1924.

Mor	th.		Total Cost of Living.	Alimen- tation.	Clothing.	Fuelling.	Housing.	Other Costs.
1924. January			120 5	165.1	186.7	172.6	13 1	99.5
February			127.4	163.3	183.7	167.0	25 4	137.8
March			126 3	155.4	213 5	158-3	25.4	137-6
April			126 5	151 5	236 5	152.3	25.4	137 6
May			125 6	146 0	236.5	148.0	26.2	149 0
June			123 7	138.3	236.5	146-1	31.6	150.6
July	٠.		127 2	139 1	236.3	144.6	35.6	166.7
August			134 7	155-4	251.2	147-4	36.5	156-0
September		٠.	141.1	164.4	251.2	152 6	36-5	171'4
October			150.0	181-3	253 · 2	155-1	40.5	172 5
November			151-6	184.0	253.2	160.7	40-5	172-5
December			153-1	186.9	253.2	163.9	40.5	172.5
1925. January			150 0	175.4	253.2	163.2	48.1	172.5
February			150.8	177-4	248.3	159 8	48·1	177:3
March			151.3	179-1	248-4	156-1	48·1	177.3
April			149.3	174.5	248-4	152.1	54.1	177.1

The index of the cost of housing is low in comparison with pre-war periods owing to the operation of the law for the protection of tenants according to which rents are raised every quarter until the pre-war level is reached.

THE COST OF LIVING IN POLAND.

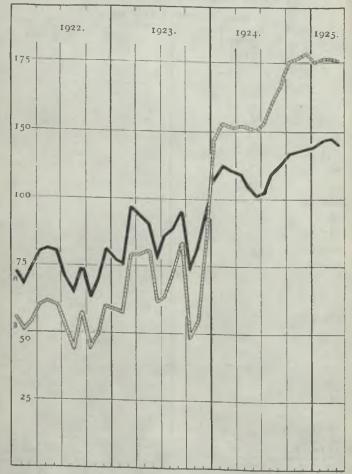
Gold Index of Wholesale Prices in Poland and of Cost of Living in Warsaw from January, 1922, to April, 1925.*

(Basis-January, 1914 = 100.0.)

Period.	7	Average Index of Prices of 57 kinds of Merchandise.	Index of General Cost of Living.	Period.	Average Index of Prices of 57 kinds of Merchandise.	Index of General Cost of Living.
January February March April May June July August September October November December 1923. January February March April		72·1 66·5 73·5 79·6 80·9 80·3 70·8 63·9 73·5 62·3 68·8 80·9 77·1 74·7 97·3 94·1	55 4 50·I 53·7 59·8 6I·4 60·3 5I·7 42·8 56·7 43·3 49·2 60·I 58·2 56·8 79·0 78·7	November . December . 1924. January . Pebruary . March . April May June July August . September . October . November .	72·5 81·1 95·0 106·9 111·8 110·4 109·0 104·0 100·6 162·3 109·2 112·4 116·4 116·6 118·3	47·3 55·1 79·7 120·5 127·4 126·3 126·5 125·6 123·7 127·2 134·7 141·1 150·0 151·6 153·1
June July August September		91·3 77·1 86·3 88·5 95·3	81·0 60·6 63·2 71·8 83·2	February .	119·4 121·1 121·5	150·8 151·3 149·3

^{*} Index of Wholesale Prices.—This was compiled according to the returns of the Central Bureau of Statistics, including prices of 57 different kinds of merchandise representing eight categories, viz.: (1) Grain and foodstuffs; (2) food of animal origin; (3) Colonial produce (groceries) and sugar; (4) hides and leather; (5) raw materials and textile goods; (6) metals and coal; (7) building materials; (8) chemicals and sundry goods.

3. Gold Index of Wholesale and Retail Prices.



EXPLANATION.

A.—Index of wholesale prices in Poland. B.—Index of cost of living in Warsaw.

January 1914 = 100.

THE COST OF LIVING IN POLAND.

Below we give the retail prices of some articles of food in Warsaw in January and April, 1925.

4. Retail Prices of Some Articles of Prime Necessity in Warsaw.

(Prices at the end of the month.)
(fI = 25-22½ zlotys.)

				Year 1925.			
				January.	April.		
				In zlotys,	In zlotys,		
ye bread		 4.0	I kg.	0.53	0 59		
heaten flour		 	I ,,	n · 6g	0.75		
otatoes		 	. I	0.11	0-11		
ilk		 	I litr.	0:42	0.40		
685		 	I egg	0.19	0.13		
utter			I kg.	5154	5:53		
ard			I 17	1.96	2.00		
nef		 	I	2.10	I OI		
gar Crystals	- 64	 2.5	I w	1 13	1:13		
oal		 	10 11	0.24	0 48		
рар			I	1.34	1:32		

V.—HOUSING IN POLAND.

In addition to the common difficulties which have confronted the post-war housing conditions of the world, Polish building activities are further handicapped by special circumstances. A great part of Polish territory was situated within the zone of military operations, in consequence of which no fewer than 1,785,305 buildings were destroyed. The state of war did not cease in Poland until after the conclusion of peace with the Bolsheviks in 1921. Even then, the shortage of capital and high rates of interest made building of habitable houses impossible. State subsidies were reduced to a minimum through the Budget deficits and the collapse of the mark.

According to the returns of the Ministry of Public Works, the housing shortage during the period 1914–1920 in 12 towns amounted to 79,300 dwellings. Each year 11,000 new dwellings are required, and consequently the shortage in 1925 can be estimated at 135,000 dwellings, since very little has been done to relieve this situation

by the erection of new houses.

Warsaw alone needs at least 130,000 habitable rooms.

In spite of the grave financial situation the Government has been granting subsidies to the building trade. Thus, the following subsidies were earmarked for building purposes during the periods 1920-1923:—

In 1920 approximately 20,000,000 Polish marks.

In 1921 ,, 600,000,000 ,, In 1922 ,, 43,600,000 ,, In 1923 ,, 125,000,000,000 ,,

In view of the necessity of a balanced Budget no subsidies were

granted, or provided for, in the Budget of 1924.

During the years 1919-1924 the building of 12,000 habitable rooms was commenced with the aid of Government loans; out of

these 5,000 are now completed.

The greater part of Government loans was granted to Co-operative Building Societies, especially to Officers' and Civil Servants' Co-operatives, which, by the end of 1924, completed the erection of about 600 dwellings, representing approximately 2,500 habitable rooms.

These Building Societies were established during the years 1920-24; in most cases, building sites were granted to them on perpetual

leases from the Government.

The total number of registered building societies is 262; of these 50 per cent. exist but in name, 30 per cent. are moribund, and only the remaining 20 per cent. are actively engaged in building opera-

tions. The predominant type amongst building societies is that

which builds houses for the use of its own members.

The only reason which made the further development of building societies on these lines impossible, was the lack of sufficient funds or credits. About 100 societies are united in the Federation of Co-operative Building Societies. The Federation aims at organising and supervising the activities of its member-societies and also at the centralisation of the purchase of building materials.

2. Government Aid for Building Operations.

The Act of September 28, 1922, dealing with the building problems in towns, provided Government aid for building operations. A series of exemptions and reliefs as regards taxation on newly-erected houses was also provided, the most important being exemption from the effects of the Rent Act which imposed Government control on rentals for inhabited houses. Unfortunately, the effects of this Act were insignificant: the currency inflation and the resulting financial crisis rendered the Government measures ineffective, and the 20 milliard State guarantee provided by this Act for building purposes was of little use. Such credits as were given, were granted to building societies to the extent of 80 per cent. of the cost of erection and at the rate of 2 or 3 per cent. per annum.

A revival of building activities did not take place before the beginning of the current year. It began with the Government earmarking for this purpose the sum of 100,000,000 zlotys out of

the loan raised in the United States.

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In connection with this important step towards the relief of housing conditions, the Act referred to above was amended in the beginning of May, 1925.

The main provisions of this Amendment are as follows:-

The Government is authorised to guarantee to the extent of 500 million zlotys all Mortgage Bonds and Debentures issued by recognised institutions for the financing of their building programmes. These Mortgage Bonds must be secured on first mortgage to the extent of not more than one-half of the value of the property in question, and debentures on second mortgage, so that the total sum of mortgages does not exceed 80 per cent. of the value of the property. The National Economic Bank (Bank Gospodarstwa Krajowego) was entrusted with the placing of these bonds on foreign Stock Exchanges.

In addition, a Government Building Fund is created by the Amendment Act; the purpose of this Fund is to reduce the cost of building by paying out of it the interest on building loans. The main sources of this Fund fare: (a) the Government tax on dwellings to the extent of 6 per cent. on rent as paid in 1914, and (b) the Government tax on unutilised or insufficiently utilised

building sites to the extent of I per cent. of value.

HOUSING IN POLAND.

The administration of the Building Fund is in the hands of the Minister of Finance acting in conjunction with an Advisory Board composed of representatives of municipal corporations. Building operations are conducted by local Building Committees elected by the municipalities. The local Mayor acts as chairman of the Building Committee in his town.

The provisions of the Amendment Act dealing with relief from taxation are very important. The main advantages afforded are as follows: (a) exemption from all Stamp Duties on registration deeds and other legal instruments in connection with the completion of new houses; (b) exemption of all income from such houses from Income Tax for a period of 10 years; (c) the right to deduct for the purpose of Income Tax assessment, the costs of building of all houses completed during the years 1925–1930, but not the loans granted by the Government for this purpose.

VI.- RECONSTRUCTION OF DEVASTATED AREAS.

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Attempts to reconstruct that portion of the country which was damaged during the Great War were first made in 1919, at the time when the newly-established State was still struggling to maintain its independent existence.

The work of reconstruction had to be carried on throughout the country, since military operations during the Great War were conducted almost in every part of Poland, with the exception of her western provinces. The belligerent armies did not spare the country, and each belligerent regarded the Poles as aliens and often as enemies. Judging from the character and extent of the damages caused in Poland during the war, one is led to believe that the country was being ruined systematically and purposely, so as to form in future a convenient field for the expansion of the belligerents' trade and industry.

The extent of the damage is illustrated by the number of buildings and farms destroyed during the war. No fewer than 1,785,305 structures, representing the value of some milliards francs, were ruined beyond repair. This figure represents only part of Polish war losses, for, in addition, Poland sacrificed her agriculture, trade and industry—in fact, her entire economic life.

The campaign of reconstruction initiated in 1919 has been carried on by the Government up to the present day. Considerable progress has already been made in this direction, for, according to the returns made at the end of 1924, 67.8 per cent. of the total damages had been repaired. In spite of this, the campaign is not likely to be concluded in the near future. Many more financial burdens will have to be borne by the State before all damages caused by the war are repaired.

In the campaign of reconstruction two periods must be distinguished. One, from 1919 to July 1st, 1924, when the Treasury granted unreturnable donations in cash and in building materials; and the other, beginning from the latter date, when State aid took the form of special reconstruction loans.

The whole campaign was conducted and regulated by parliamentary legislation. The first statute, of July 18th,

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1919, defined the duties of the State and the rights of claimants as regards State aid for the reconstruction of devastated areas. The Constituent Diet, realising the difficult financial situation of the State, enacted that State aid should be granted only in cases of urgent need. In accordance with this statute the Treasury was to issue unreturnable grants in cash or in building materials not exceeding 20,000 Polish marks. Claims had to be submitted to special District Commissions, and subsidies were granted in accordance with their decisions.

The currency inflation of that period made the grant of 20,000 marks of little value. In consequence, a further statute was passed on January 21st, 1921, authorising the Government to grant larger subsidies for the reconstruction of churches and institutions of a charitable or social character.

The third Reconstruction Statute was passed on March 2nd, 1920. This statute defined the extent of technical aid to be granted by the Government, provided the organisation of special reconstruction authorities, and introduced regulations as regards the purchase of land by the State for purposes of Reconstruction.

The execution of these statutes was entrusted to the Ministry of Public Works. Divisional and District Commissions of Reconstruction were organised, and the whole campaign was conducted according to well-elaborated plans.

The activities of the Ministry of Public Works were severely handicapped by the lack of sufficient funds at its disposal. The Constituent Diet did not indicate any sources of revenue to meet the expenditure entailed by the Statute of July, 1919. Thus the scheme had to be included in the ordinary Budget of the State, and in consequence the expenditure had to be reduced to an absolute minimum.

With the development of the financial crisis, the extraordinary expenditure had to be reduced still further. The Ministry was compelled to abandon most of its schemes, and to confine itself to the distribution of subsidies in cases of pressing urgency.

At the time when the financial crisis had reached its climax, at the end of 1923, the Government's aid was limited to the distribution of raw timber for building purposes. The extent of the Ministry's activities is illustrated by the following

RECONSTRUCTION OF DEVASTATED AREAS.

figures, which include all building materials distributed in the devastated areas during the period 1919-1923:—

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Raw timber	 	 	3,582,542 m³.
Boards, etc.	 	 	642,134 m ³ .
Bricks	 	 	64,453,659
Burnt tiles	 	 	10,997,615
Cement tiles	 	 	746,900
Cement	 	 	3,897,121 kg.
Lime	 	 	11,740,820 ,,
Glass	 	 	962,874 m²
Nails	 	 	1,539,052 kg.

During the first half of 1924 an additional 300,000 m³ of building timber were granted by way of subsidies. The distribution of these materials enabled great numbers of the inhabitants in the devastated areas to commence the reconstruction of their ruined homes. The total expenditure of the State in connection with the reconstruction campaign is represented by the following figures:—

1919 and 192	o approximately		55,000,000	zlotys
1921			17,000,000	,,
1922	,,		11,000,000	,,
1923	**	-1	5,000,000	13
Total			88.000.000	zlotvs.

To this sum must be added the value of building materials taken over by Poland from the former German, Russian and Austrian Governments, estimated at 22,000,000 zlotys. During the first half of 1924 a further sum of 3,000,000 zlotys was expended on the various reconstruction works. Thus the total expenditure of the State in connection with the reconstruction of devastated areas during the first period of the campaign, i.e. until July 1st, 1924 amounted to 113,000,000 zlotys.

Since the value of buildings erected during that period is estimated at 1,200,000,000 zlotys, the participation of the State in the work of reconstruction represents but an average of 20 per cent. of the total cost of the campaign.

In spite, however, of this comparatively small co-operation of the Government, and in spite of extremely difficult economic conditions, the work of reconstruction is progressing favourably

RECONSTRUCTION OF DEVASTATED AREAS.

thanks to the initiative and energy of the inhabitants of the affected areas.

The statistics given below include the progress of the campaign until the end of 1924. Although the new Statute came into force on July 1st of that year, systematic action under this new scheme did not commence until the beginning of the current year.

1. Extent of Devastation.

The total number of all **buildings destroyed** in Poland during the war is 1,785,305, distributed as follows:—

Schools		 		6,586
Churches		 		1,969
Buildings of			0.4	1,793
Habitable st				27,000
Habitable w				499,850
Agricultural	buildings	 		1,248,107
T-4-1	5,,,,,			7 28 200

The numbers of reconstructed buildings during the period referred to were as follows:—

Schools	 4,907
Churches	 1,263
Buildings of public utility	 1,130
Habitable stone houses	 11,571
Habitable wooden houses	 360,859
Farming and Agricultural buildings	 831,453
Total	 1,211,183

Thus, on January 1st, 1925, the following buildings were still awaiting reconstruction:—

Schools					1,679
Churches					706
Buildings	of public u	tility			663
Habitable	stone hous	es	4.	1.1	15,429
Habitable	wooden ho	uses		4.	138,991
Farming a	and agricult	cural build	lings		416,654

Total 574,122

RECONSTRUCTION OF DEVASTATED AREAS.

The following structures were rebuilt in 1924:-

He tonouning per de				, ,	
Schools					378
Churches					200
Buildings of public		r			196
Habitable stone ho	uses				3,528
Habitable wooden					36,953
Farming and agric	ultural	buildir	igs		70,882
				_	
Total					112,137

2. Progress of Reconstruction.

The progress of the campaign in percentages of the total number of buildings destroyed was as follows:—

1920		 	 22.7 per cent.
1921		 	 37.7 "
1922		 	 49'4
1923		 	 61.2 "
1924	4 *	 	 67.8

The yearly progress of the work can be seen from the figures given below. Thus—

1920		 * *	p +	27 per cent.
1921		 * 4		15.0 "
1922	* *	 		11.7 ,,
1923		 		12'1 ,,
1924		 		6.3 ,,

A comparison between the progress of the work of reconstruction and the expenditure of the State during the same periods will show that these factors are not proportionate. Much depends on private initiative and on the general economic conditions in the country. This is confirmed by the returns for the years 1919 and 1920, when, owing to the Russo-Polish war, all private undertakings and schemes of reconstruction were abandoned. The results were proportionately smaller than the amount of State subsidies granted during that period. The insignificant progress made during 1924 was due to the reform in the Reconstruction Scheme and also to the general financial and economic crisis in the country.

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The progress of the campaign of reconstruction of particular classes of buildings is illustrated by the following table:—

Schools	73 per	cent.	reconstructed
Churches	64.1	,,,	11
Buildings of public utility	63'5	+ 0	9.0
Habitable stone houses		2.2	11
Habitable wooden houses	72.1	12	,1
Farming and agricultural			
buildings	66.5	2.0	10

Since the figures relating to the reconstruction of stone houses indicate the progress of the work in towns, it appears that the progress of the campaign is greater in villages and small townships than in the larger cities.

As regards particular localities, the work of reconstruction is proceeding rapidly in the western provinces, whereas in the eastern counties only 55 per cent. of the war damage has been repaired.

This is due to the fact that the campaign in the latter could only be commenced after the conclusion of Peace at Riga, nearly two years later than in other parts of the country. In the county of Polesie, owing to the extreme poverty of the population, only 43 per cent. of the buildings destroyed have been reconstructed.

The campaign conducted by the Ministry of Public Works has helped indirectly to revive the dormant industries of the country. Agriculture and its kindred industries had sufficiently recovered in 1921 to meet the requirements of the country for agricultural and farming produce.

The building and timber trades were considerably developed during the period of reconstruction.

It is noteworthy that, from an artistic point of view, the reconstructed buildings and institutions present a much better appearance than their predecessors. This is due to the cooperation of eminent artists and architects in the Government's scheme of reconstruction; special care was taken to preserve the historical architecture of school buildings and churches. No efforts were spared in order to present a pleasing and artistic whole.

The requirements of utility and hygiene were also satisfied in the restored houses and buildings. Houses are generally larger, wide windows and ventilators are provided, and the roof is often covered with fireproof materials, such as tiles or

The campaign could not be continued under the Treasury scheme for various reasons, and a total reform of this scheme was necessary. To begin with, adequate funds had to be secured for this purpose. The first financial Statute in Onnection with the work of reconstruction was passed on July 6th, 1923, and provided the imposition of a forest tax for the purpose of financing the scheme.

This statute does not wholly settle the problem for the revenue expected from the new tax will enable the continuation

the campaign for not more than two years.

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It is estimated that the forest tax will bring in a net revenue 7,0,000,000 zlotys, partly in kind (timber and building materials) and partly in cash. Since the cost of the completion the work of reconstruction is estimated at 900,000,000 zlotys, will be necessary to find further sources of revenue for this purpose.

The new scheme defined in the Statute of May 6th, 1924, Provides for cash loans which are to be granted by Loan Reconstruction Commissions and paid by the State Agrarian

Rank out of the special Reconstruction Fund.

It is hoped that the revenue collected from the forest tax will enable the construction of a large number of buildings, which will relieve the housing needs of the poorest section of the community.

VII.- PUBLIC HEALTH IN POLAND.

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1. Historical Retrospect.

Data derived from the oldest trustworthy sources concerning the Polish State testify that as early as the 14th century the large towns, such as Cracow and Lwów, and later Warsaw, were very heedful of the sanitary state of their settlements. Already, at that time, aqueducts were laid on, although the water often had to be brought from long distances, sewers with subterranean canals were constructed, the roads were paved with stones, and building regulations were issued.

The subsequent period of wars (17th and 18th centuries) against Sweden, Turkey and Russia combined with the frequent inroads of foreign armies, destroyed all these works and the population, decimated and exhausted by wars, were unable as time went on to maintain this state of sanitation. Finally, when Poland lost her independence, every further development in this direction was.

checked.

The greater part of Polish territory was now under Russian rule and therefore very backward in comparison with countries of Western Europe; for it was the policy of the Partitioning Power to keep the Polish population in these parts on the lowest standard of culture. Only with great difficulty was Warsaw able to lay on waterworks and canalization (planned by Lindley) which in many respects may serve as a model for other towns. Smaller cities and towns were absolutely neglected.

In the Austrian part of Poland where the Polish population were given considerable freedom of government, a fair number of investments of a sanitary nature were made (waterworks, sewers, slaughter-houses), none the less, here also Polish territories were,

to a great extent, neglected.

In respect of sanitation, the part of Poland allotted to Germany fared best. For despite political oppression, the Government made excellent sanitary arrangements, so that the present sanitary condition of these provinces may serve as a model for many a country to the West of Poland.

2. Sanitation in Modern Poland.

The Great War effected a radical change in the condition of all these parts. The Polish nation gained its independence and, at the same time, the ability of conducting its affairs according to its requirements. Thus, in the very beginning of her independent existence and while still under German occupation (1917), a Board of Health was established within the Ministry of the Interior and a considerable number of districts were supplied with district doctors who received a special course of training. In the following

year already (April 4. 1918), the Ministry of Public Health, Social Welfare and Protection of Labour was established, whose competency was, however, very limited during the German occupation. On October 30, 1918, affairs concerning the protection of labour were dealt with separately and on January 16, 1919, matters pertaining to social welfare were also placed under a separate department, so that the Ministry of Public Health became a distinct unit. In July of the same year the Fundamental Sanitary Law was issued, defining the competency of the Ministry of Public Health, as also the Contagious Diseases Act.

Moreover, in order to carry out a very effective campaign against epidemics which at that time were spreading throughout Poland, an Extraordinary Central Commission was created on July 14, 1920 for combatting epidemics which threatened to become a general calamity to the country. When this body had successfully carried out its work, it was incorporated in the Ministry of Public Health.

This was the position until June 28, 1923 when, owing to the work in connection with the improvement of the State Pinances, it was resolved for the sake of economy to abolish the Ministry of Public Health and divide its duties between the Ministry of the Interior and the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare in such a way that the majority of the duties were allotted to the first-named Ministry in the form of a General Board of Health.

3. Sanitary Administration.

At the present moment, matters pertaining to sanitation are conducted by eight Ministries, the general supervision being in the hands of the Minister of the Interior.

The General Board of Health deal with the following agenda :-

- 1. Medical statistics.
- 2. Campaign against Contagious Diseases.
- 3. Social Hygiene.
- 4. Hospitals.
- 5. Sanitary Staff.
- 6. Pharmaceutical Affairs.*

In the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare :-

- 1. Hygiene in labour.
- 2. Hygiene in industry.
- 3. Maternity and infant protection.
- 4. Insurance against illness.

In the Ministry of Agriculture and State Lands: Veterinary Affairs.

The Budget estimates of the General Board of Health for 1925 for the above named agenda, estimated their expenditure at 10,482,138 zl. which constitutes o 522 per cent of the total budgetary State expenditure. The Board has a staff of 80 omeials, 22 of whom are doctors, 3 pharmacists and 9 lawyers.

In the Ministry of Railways: Hygiene in communications.
In the Ministry of Religion and Public Instruction: Hygiene in schools.

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In the Ministry of Public Works: Summer Resorts.

In the Ministry of Justice: Hygiene in Prisons.

In every county there is a District Council and a Public Health Department which deals with all matters pertaining to sanitation in the relevant county and enforces the strict observance of the operative regulations.

A medical officer stands at the head of the Health Department and is assisted by a staff of sanitary officials. The Department is under the direct control of the Ministry of the Interior to whom

it also sends its reports.

There is a District Medical Officer attached to every borough council who is under the control of the county authorities. If the local conditions require it, this medical officer has an assistant, who is always a trained practitioner. Moreover, the district medical officer generally has one or two sanitary advisers to help him, whose duties correspond to those of the English "sanitary inspector."

The various County Health Departments have a staff of 261 district medical officers, 34 assistant district medical officers and

156 sanitary advisers.

4. State Institute of Hygiene.

Such is the fundamental structure of the sanitary administration of the State. In addition, the Minister of the Interior (the General Board of Health) controls a number of institutes of distinctly sanitary character, such as the **State Institute of Hygiene** in Warsaw with its branches in Kraków, Lublin, Lwów, Łódź and Toruń.

This institute was founded in 1919 with the valuable assistance of the League of Nations and the Rockefeller Foundation and has developed into a powerful institute, which may well serve as a model for other institutions of the same description.

Within this Institute there are the following sections:-

1. General section which deals with staff, budgetary and office matters and carries on a sales office.

2. An epidemiological section whose duty it is to make a study of epidemiological matters.

3. A bacteriological section which is occupied with the testing of specimens of bacterii and serums of infectious germs which are sent from different parts of the country. The following number of tests shows the development of this institute:—

4. Section for the production of vaccines which supplies the army as also the civil population with vaccine. The production of vaccine was especially intensive during the war with Russia in 1920, but at the present time with the diminution of epidemics, the requirements are less.

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In	1919	there were	e produced		 862	litres.
	1920	11	22	2.4	 7,302	**
	1921	21			 6,782	3.7
	1922	9.7	11		 4,297	2.3
	1023	.,	**		 234	2.2

5. Section for the manufacture of bovine lymph which is solely engaged in the production of smallpox vaccine, having an output of two to three million vaccines per annum

6. Section for the making up of medicinal raw materials, the production

in 1919 being	 	 	282	litres.
1920 ,,	 	 	848	11
1921 ,,	 	 	685	44
1922 ,,	 	 	1,277	23
1923	 	 	1,013	2.3

7. Pasteur section for the inoculation of individuals bitten by mad animals. In 1919-20 there were inoculated 457 persons, 948 in 1921, 2,141 in 1922, 3,316 in 1923.

8. State School of Hygiene which is still under organisation but nevertheless already arranges courses of instruction for higher as well as lower sanitary officials.

Independent of the State Institute of Hygiene there are within the Ministry of the Interior (General Board of Health) the following institutes:

(a) Section for the testing of raw materials, whose duty it is to inspect throughout the State the production and turnover of all kinds of raw materials and vaccines, as also preparations of arsenic and benzol extraction.

(b) Section for the testing of foodstuffs and articles of consumption in Warsaw, Łódź, Kraków and Poznań. The Warsaw Institute made 32,020 tests in 1923, of which number 10,814 (33.8 per cent) were positive.

(c) Pharmaceutical Institute which tests the quality of patent medicines (1,883 analyses in 1923) and also cosmetics (919 analyses in 1923).

There are also under the control of the General Board of Health three State spas (Ciechocinek, Krynica, Busk), three lying-in hospitals (Kraków, Lwów, Wilno), one home for the mentally deficient with 2,500 beds, and a number of hospitals for infectious diseases.

5. Municipal Sanitation.

The work of municipalities in regard to sanitation is dependent on the administrative bodies into which the district or town is divided. In districts there are elective County Councils with departments at their head; in towns these bodies correspond to the Municipal Council and Magistrate. According to the laws in operation, the duties of municipalities are of an executive character, whereas the role played by the State is of a legislative and supervisory nature. Nearly all these county councils employ medical officers, who are the advisers of the district council in all matters concerning sanitation, and they are the executors of the resolutions carried out at the meetings. Very often the post of medical officer to the county council is entrusted to the medical officer attached to a district; the General Board of Health approves of this course as it eliminates the unnecessary duplicating of the sanitary authority in one district.

In towns there is, in the main, an excellent sanitary staff with the Health Department and medical officer at the head, and in addition there is the staff of the medical officer and his assistant.

Nearly all money invested in connection with sanitation is paid by the municipality from its own funds or from loans which are generally contracted abroad. For the present, State assistance is necessarily limited to a minimum. Municipalities also build and maintain general and particular hospitals (inter alia isolation

hospitals).

Among the public institutes in Poland in connection with sanitation, the most notable are: The Warsaw Hygienic Society which has nine branches in the largest provincial towns and is principally engaged in the propaganda of hygiene, 15 anti-tuberculosis Societies in Warsaw and the provinces. At the instance of the General Board of Health, these Societies founded in 1925 an Anti-Tuberculosis Union with the object of combining forces with all the bodies and institutions interested in the matter in a league against tuberculosis and of increasing their activities in this respect; the Polish Society for Combatting Cancer; Polish Eugenic Society; Society for the Protection of the Health of the Jewish Population of Poland, and others. All these societies, which have been founded at the instance of private individuals, nevertheless enjoy the moral, and even the material, support of the State and the municipal bodies.

6. General Hygienic Conditions in Poland.

The general condition of the Polish State in regard to hygiene leaves much to be desired. The natural historical causes of this have been given above, but to these must be added the devastation consequent upon the War and the postwar financial difficulties. Generally speaking, the sanitary condition of the country is better

in the West; for things become much more primitive, as one

advances towards the East. The war brought about a tremendous increase of all kinds of epidemics which were inflamed by the conditions of existence general and bad alimentation in particular. The occupying Powers, wishing to protect their armies, led a very energetic campaign against infectious diseases, which nevertheless increased alarmingly After the Armies of Occupation withdrew, epidemic diseases made further rapid strides owing to the subsequent bad state of the country and the fresh war with Russia. In 1919

there were 219,088 cases of typhoid fever.

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As from July 1920 a General Extraordinary Commission for combatting epidemics was created, depots were established in the East for people returning from Russia, a sanitary cordon was drawn, new isolated hospitals were erected in the areas mostly affected, a large number of bacteriological laboratories were founded and the inhabitants vaccinated in masses. The results of these measures soon showed themselves and in 1921 the epidemics diminished. Then, however, after the conclusion of Peace, multitudes of Poles who had been driven into Russia during the war, began to return to Poland in the most deplorable condition and bringing into the interior of the country epidemics which were then prevalent in Russia. It was solely due to the enormous sums of money assigned by the Polish Government and the Epidemics Commission of the League of Nations that the epidemic was prevented from spreading into Western Europe.

The visitation of different epidemics in Poland during the last

Iew years is illustrated by the following table:

	1919.		1920.		1921.		1922.		1923.	
	Cases.	Fatal.	Cases.	Fatal.	Cases	Fatal	Cases.	Fata	Cases.	Fatal
Cholera Typhus Kelapses of I)phold ysentery	3,266 7.734 1,864	149 1,226 264	7,188	293 5,168	10.517	4,199 2,384 414 4,988	42,724 22,656	3,199 1,641 1,461 1,739	0 11,185 14,037 2,067 5,314 502	898 1,284 44 553 83

The number of beds given to isolation hospitals by the Extraordinary Central Commission amounted to 3,650, bringing the total number of hospital beds for infectious cases to 11,100. The number of persons vaccinated against infectious diseases in 1920 amounted to 500,000-in 1921 to 1,200,000.

The total sum expended in combatting epidemics up to July 1923 was £3,093,394. Of this sum 40 per cent. was expended on the erection and maintenance of hospitals, 20 per cent. on repatriation, 20 per cent. on disinfection and 15 per cent. on other arrangements.

The wave of epidemics in Poland was gradually arrested and died out as conditions improved. A number of arrangements for combatting epidemics became superfluous and were liquidated and the hospitals were made over to the municipalities and

transformed into general hospitals.

Whilst the campaign against infectious diseases was conducted, at a great expense of labour and money, with striking results, the campaign against contagious diseases, such as tuberculosis venereal diseases and school ophthalmia, is as yet still in the stages of organization. Besides, it is universally known that these protracted diseases are much more difficult to combat and require more time before any results are apparent. It is also much more difficult to convince people of the necessity of taking steps to resist these scourges which are no less serious than infectious diseases.

The campaign against tuberculosis conducted by the former Ministry of Public Health and the present central authorities in close collaboration with the municipalities and social institutions has already had certain results in that there are now in Poland 15 anti-tuberculosis societies; an Anti-Tuberculosis Union has been founded. Forty-three hospitals for out-patients have been organized and there are 1,354 beds in various sanatoriums. This is not a sufficient number but, as was mentioned above, fresh institutions are being erected from day to day, municipalities are ear-marking large sums of money for combatting tuberculosis and the Anti-Tuberculosis Union, in collaboration with the School of Hygiene, is organizing the training of a staff of nurses to deal especially with cases of tuberculosis.

The campaign against venereal diseases is conducted by the establishment of hospitals for out-patients and by the supervision of prostitution, which is the chief factor of contagion in times of

peace.

Up to July 1st, 1925, there have been erected 21 hospitals for venercal diseases, which are maintained by the State and are established in the above-mentioned endemic centres. There are also a number of sections for venereal diseases attached to the municipal hospitals. In large towns these are often of a special character, while in smaller towns these cases are treated in general hospitals, together with other diseases.

The campaign against **prostitution** is based upon a system of neo-reglementation. Prostitutes are registered by a special commission in every town and district which is composed of representatives of the Government, municipalities and social institutions (women's organizations). Registered prostitutes are subject to a compulsory periodical examination and, when necessary, to treat-

PUBLIC HEALTH IN POLAND.

Any prostitute can be crossed off the register by a resolution of the above-named commission.

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As regards alcoholism, it must be acknowledged that, in general, Pole are not heavy drinkers. Data supplied before the war, show that the amount of pure alcohol consumed in former Russian Pol was 2.0 litres per head of population annually, in former Austrian Poland 4.8, and in former German Poland 4.5. These figures are not excessive when compared with France (20.7), Polary (15.2), Great Britain (10.6), Germany (9.2) and a number of other countries

nce 20th April 1920 there is a law in force in Poland on the restriction of the manufacture and consumption of alcohol, which only applies to liquors containing more than 21 per cent. of alcohol, he highest percentage allowed being 45 per cent. The sale of icoholic drinks to minors is prohibited at railway stations, atories, barracks etc. In large towns, houses for the sale of alcoholic drinks must be situated 100 metres and in small towns metres from any church, school, railway station, court of Justice, prison or barracks. The sale of such drinks is not allowed during fairs, parliamentary and municipal elections, the raising of recruits, in times of strike; moreover, their sale is not allowed on Sundays and feast-days, beginning from 3 p.m. on the previous until 10 a m. on the following day. Finally, the Act provides so-called local option, which gives every commune the right, subject to the majority of votes of the communal assembly, to the orce, within its own bounds, the complete prohibition of the sal of alcoholic drinks. A number of communes have already taken advantage of this right.

In the meantime there are commissions for combatting alcoholism in every district and large town. They are authorised to inflict punishment on any person appearing in public in an intoxicate state, as also on those who encourage others to drink excessively.

reports received from 12 counties show that in 1923 these ministons inflicted 35.354 punishments; 22,091 of these were 4.603 were cases of imprisonment and in 8,600 cases both

in poland and I per cent. of the receipts from this source are

devoted to the campaign against alcoholism.

the tregard to school hygiene, which is under the control of the Ministry of Religion and Public Instruction, comparatively Peaking, Poland has done a great deal. Most towns have special medical officers attached to elementary schools (in Warsaw, 30; 12, 21; Poznań, 19; Wilno, 11, etc.); in villages these duties are generally entruste to the ordinary medical officer. In 1923 per cent, of the secondary schools had special medical officers

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(in 1922, 46 per cent.; in 1921, 39 per cent.). The school medical officer supervises the health of the children and examines every pupil at least three times during the 7 years that he or she is at school.

As regards international hygiene, Poland has taken part in a number of important meetings, as also in international agreements and conventions, such as the Paris International Sanitary Convention of 1912, the Agreement of 1907 on the "International Office of Public Hygiene," in which office Poland has her representative, and many others. She has signed a special sanitary convention with Rumania, Russia, Latvia and Czechoslovakia and concluded an agreement with Germany on the notification of cases of infectious diseases in frontier districts. The Polish Republic has also taken a prominent part in work connected with sanitation undertaken by the League of Nations, as also in international hygienical exhibitions (Strassburg 1923, Vienna 1925). At the exhibition at Strassburg in 1923 the Polish Ministry of Public Health gained the Grand Prix.

Only those are allowed to practise medicine who have qualified at one of the universities recognized by the State. In 1923 there were 6,850 such medical men in Poland. Of this number 1,644 were in Warsaw, 581 in Lwów, 383 in Kraków, 371 in Łódź, 164 in Poznań, and the remainder scattered throughout the Republic in such a manner that there is a comparatively larger number in the West and a smaller number in the East. In Silesia there is one medical man to every 3,529 inhabitants, in Nowogrodek to every 9,817 and in Warsaw 1 to every 559 inhabitants.

The position of Medical men is established by Chambers of Medicine to which every practitioner must belong These Chambers have the character of professional organizations invested with far-reaching authority. The Chamber Board, created by the votes of all medical men, has the right to deal with any medical man who has offended against medical etiquette and may even cross him off the rolls.

In 1923 there were, in Poland, 1,100 dental surgeons who had qualified at special colleges and had acquired the right to practise dentistry. In addition 2,257 army surgeons were registered in former Russian Poland as being qualified to make certain minor operations. Colleges for army surgeons existed formerly but they have now been closed down. In 1923 there were 5.954 midwives in Poland possessing various qualifications.

The training of nurses, which plays such an important part in public sanitary organizations, is still in its infancy. Up to the present, 3 colleges with a 2 years' training (2 in Warsaw, 1 in Poznań) have been established with the assistance of American institutions, and a fourth one is now in course of organization at Kraków.

PUBLIC HEALTH IN POLAND.

hospitals in Poland are generally municipal institutions and have only from 60 to 70 beds. In large towns they are larger it is true, some having more than 1,000 beds. The small hospitals are has modestly equipped; but in the larger towns they may be looked upon as first class institutes.

following table gives an idea of the number of hospitals, and the number of beds in each one, in Poland in 1923:-

			Number of hospitals.	Number of beds
le hospitals Public hospitals			131	10,391
nbli- pospitals		-	274	21,015
ublic hospitals	 33	**	171	14,193
			576	45,599

the number of State hospitals is gradually decreasing, owing to the fendency to make them municipal institutions. On 1st July there were only 23 hospitals under the control of the State. We consider that 3 beds are required for every 1,000 inhabitants that the number existing only averages 1.7, it is clear that Poland only has about half the necessary number of hospital beds

Consumption hospitals form a separate group. There are 14 in Poland with a total of 9,393 beds which represent 0.3 beds for every 1,000 inhabitants. The number of beds actually required

is at least 1, 2 or 4 times as many as exist.

Dispensing is a concessioned industry in Poland and may only be carried on by persons fully qualified and possessing certificates recognized by the State. According to a report of the year 1923 there were 1,772 pharmacies and 1,967 persons with dispensing qualifications.

1th regard to the State control of pharmacies, the greatest attention is paid to the quality of medicaments. Tests are taken and sent to the State Pharmaceutical Institute for analysis. regulations of the year 1922 only permit the importation to the home markets of such patent medicines as are something new and thote progress, while the Drugs Act of 1923 regulates and restricts

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the sale of these medicaments. oland belongs to the countries that have a large number of sp. and health resorts and stands on a very high level with regard to climate and the quality of mineral waters. The entire South of the State is mountainous, some of the peaks exceeding 2.000 metres in height. Here health resorts with Alpine climate are to be found. The most important of these is Zakopane, which of sesses every sanitary arrangement. In nearly all the villages of this chain of mountains there are numberless mineral springs, but only a few of them are exploited. Here we find mineral waters (Rrynica, Szczawnica, Rymanów), as also salt springs of every

PUBLIC HEALTH IN POLAND.

description (Iwonicz, Rabka), bitter waters (Morszyn, Truskawiec), sulphur springs (Krzeszowice, Lubień), hot springs (Jaszczurówka). Besides having mineral waters of excellent medical properties, all these localities are also famous for their picturesque mountainous scenery. In other parts of the country there are only salt springs (Ciechocinek, Inowroclaw) and sulphur springs (Busk, Solee).

The number of spas is so great and their output so large that they entirely satisfy the needs of the country and have a surplus of mineral waters and health salts for export. Three of the largest spas, the property of the State, are of the very highest standard; these are Ciechocinek (radio-active salt springs with a strength of 6 per cent.) with an average of about 17,000 visitors yearly, Krynica (alkaline mineral waters with carbonic oxide) frequented by about 15,000 visitors annually and Busk (sulphur springs with carbonic acid) with about 5,000 visitors. The total number of visitors at all the spas and health resorts of Poland amounts to about 200,000 per annum.

15. Doctors, Midwives, Hospitals (1923).

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Lo. Doctors, midwives, trospitats (1950)	Doc. Mid. Phar- population. Public Public Epidemico-	tors. wives. cies. Doc. Mid. Pharma. Hospi. Beds. Hospi. Beds. tals. Reds. tals. Beds. tals. Beds.	1,329 752 80 142 0 80 3 8.5 17 5,615 3 334 —		707 300 223 17.1 7.3 5.4 85 4,468 15 712 —	534 366 213 18 3 12 6 7 3 53 7,219 57 3,373 -	1,357 1,450 410 18 1 19 4 5.5 65 9,839 27 1,304 —	329 347 77 29 2 30 8 6-8 22 3,296 37 6,020 —	5,548 5,054 1,721 20 4 18 5 6 3 419 40,799 171 40,799 123 11,000
d. Doctors,	Mid-	wives.	752	1,839	300	366	1,450	347	5,054
		City or County.	City of Warsaw 1,329	Counties: Warsaw, Lodz, Lublin, Rielce, Bialystok 1,292	Counters: Wilno, Nowogrodek, Polesie, Wolhynla	Counties: Poznan, Pomerania	Counties: Krakow, Lwow, Tamopol, Stanislawow	Comity of Silesia	Total 5,548

VIII.- PENITENTIARY ORGANISATION.

1. Prisons in Poland.

The total number of prisons in Poland is 341. These are divided into three categories according to capacity. Thus, prisons with accommodation for 400 prisoners or more belong to the first group (34 in number); those accommodating less than 400, but more than 100 prisoners—to the second (this class includes 64 prisons), and the remaining prisons form the third category. The total capacity of all prisons is 41.884, although the number of prisoners detained there is only 33,500.

As regards the organisation of prisons and their authorities, a special Statute has now been drafted. This Statute as well as the new Prison Regulations are based on the latest observations and practice relating to penal establishments.

A Central College for the training of Prison Officials has been established under the auspices of the Ministry of Justice and in connection with the Investigation Prison at Warsaw. The College gives a complete training to prospective Prison Governors and Inspectors, and its curriculum includes a study of criminal psychology, criminal law and procedure, constitutional and administrative law, as well as a thorough study of foodstuffs, fuel, the principles of the Prison Statute and Prison Regulations, and many other similar subjects. Since the establishment of the College, 150 Prison Governors and Inspectors have completed the entire course.

At the same time, 50 local establishments for the training of lower functionaries of Prison Administration are in existence and these have already produced 1,326 fully trained

officials.

A system of education and organised work has been

introduced in all Polish prisons.

All prisoners below the age of 40, sentenced to at least one year of imprisonment and unable to read, write, or calculate, are liable to compulsory education in prison. The total of prisoners who are thus being educated is 4,120, and in some of the large prisons, such as the Warsaw-Mokotów and eight other prisons, these studies are conducted by several qualified teachers, who devote themselves exclusively to the teaching of prisoners.

Libraries, sufficiently well equipped to meet the requirements of prisoners, are to be found in all Polish prisons. One hundred and fifty prisons possess regular and organised libraries and the total number of volumes, apart from text-books, is 27,000.

No fewer than 400 workshops are established in connection with prisons; these are manned for the most part by prisoners sentenced to penal servitude, and 4,000 men are

employed daily in these workshops.

The proportion between prisoners thus employed and the total population of prisons is 10.6 per cent., whereas the proportion between the former and the total of prisoners sentenced to penal servitude is 16.6 per cent. The Ministry of Justice lays great stress on the organisation of work in prisons and regards it as a most important factor in the correction of prisoners.

The workshops referred to above are established in 130 prisons; it would be impracticable to organise work in the remaining ones, which, for the most part, accommodate

prisoners serving short sentences only.

The percentage of working prisoners in 1924 was 20 per cent. of all those sentenced for crime. The present decline, in spite of the vigorous efforts of the Ministry of Justice, is due, in the first place, to the general depression in trade and industry which has also affected the prison workshops. The Ministry of Justice continue to use their best efforts so as to employ a greater number of prisoners in these workshops, since, as has been said before, this is indispensable for the correction of offenders.

IX-THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN POLAND.

The first flashes of the idea of a self-supporting economy may be observed in Poland as early as the end of the 18th and the beginning of the 19th centuries. They were principally the manifestations of co-operative activities on the part of important philanthropic citizens and resulted in the foundation of the first co-operative bank on the initiative of Father Jordan at Pabjanice in 1715, which had the character of a loan and savings bank.

The real beginning of a co-operative movement in Poland is, however, to be found somewhat later, in the sixth and seventh decades of the last century, when co-operative credit banks of the type of Schultz-Delitsch began to be formed in the West of Poland. They were principally established for the purpose of supplying cheap credit to manufacturers and home industries. The greatest merit in the foundation of these institutions must be incontestably attributed to Father Augustus Szamarzewski, whose work was taken over and subsequently developed by Father Peter Wawrzyniak.

Co-operative stores were started somewhat later in Poland. The first of these was established in Warsaw under the title of "Mercury" in 1869. In the following year "Zgoda" ("Concord") at Płock and "Oszczędność" ("Economy") at Radom were founded. In the course of the subsequent thirty years upwards of fifty more societies were founded. Nevertheless, any great development of the co-operative movement that has taken place dates only from 1905, when the so-called first Russian Revolution greatly facilitated the establishment of such societies in former Russian Poland.

To the endeavours of two great pioneers, M. Stanisław Wojciechowski, to-day's President of the Republic, and M. Romuald Mielczarski, must be attributed in the first place the establishment of the Information Bureau for Food Supplying Associations belonging to Co-Operative Societies, the convening of the first assembly of these associations in Warsaw in 1908, and finally the organisation of the first Union of Food Supplying Associations in Poland, under the title of the Warsaw Union of Food Supplying Associations (after

the country gained its independence the title was changed to the "Union of Polish Food Supplying Associations") known universally under the title of "Spótem." In 1905, a co-operative periodical was also established under the same title and under the editorship of Stanislas Wojciechowski.

Co-operation in agriculture is the latest development of the movement. It dates from the time when the lately deceased prominent co-operator, Dr. Franciszek Stefczyk, founded the first savings and loan bank on the Raiffeisen system at Czernichów, near Kraków in 1890. This society speedily extended its activities throughout Galicia, and already in 1898, under the auspices of the Galician National Section, there arose the Central Savings and Loan Association in Lwów with Dr. Fr. Stefczyk at the head, which took under its control all the societies spread throughout the country.

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Somewhat later dairy co-operative societies began to be formed in former Austrian and Russian Poland. In this direction great activities were manifested by Zygmunt Chmielewski, later on Vice-Minister of Agriculture, and at present the successor of Dr. Stefczyk as director of the most important agricultural co-operative institutions.

Simultaneously, there arose in former Russian Poland the so-called "Rolniki" ("agriculturists"), whose aim was to acquire and control the corn market, and very soon it made great progress, not only organising the corn trade, but also supplying its members with agricultural machinery and implements, artificial manure and other articles necessary for agricultural production. Similar organisations began to be formed in Galicia, and also in former Russian Poland after its liberation, where they acquired the name of Agricultural and Trading Co-operative Societies.

The war ruined an enormous number of co-operative societies in Poland. Being the scene of actual warfare, the country suffered tremendously, and many co-operative societies were completely ruined; this was followed by the adverse influences of inflation consequent upon the post-War difficulties of a newly reconstructed State.

Credit co-operative societies were especially affected. Inflation diminished their assets to a minimum, and their activities, owing to their inability to save money, almost ceased.

The capital of nearly every kind of co-operative society decreased more than tenfold, owing to depreciation of currency during the period of inflation, and in consequence, the turnover of the societies diminished in proportion.

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Nevertheless, the independence of the country and the unification of the economic strength of what were formerly three distinct territories, brought an exceedingly favourable influence to bear on the development of co-operation after the war. An enormous increase in the number of co-operative societies can be observed, as also in the number of individual members, and the process of concentrating co-operative organisations.

This is especially remarkable in the case of Food Supplying Societies. The Union of Polish Food-Supplying Associations, which began its activities in 1911 with 176 societies and 21,618 members, comprised in 1914 297 societies with about 40,000 members, in 1918 this number had increased to 462 societies, with 600,000 members; and in 1919 to 626 societies with a membership of 175,000, while at present it numbers nearly 600,000 members.

After the period of inflation, the co-operative movement made very rapid strides. Working capital ceased to diminish, trade was considerably increased and credit societies revived. In spite of the economic crisis experienced in the country, co-operative societies developed rapidly. There followed the process of consolidating the various independent societies into three large groups:—the Union of Agricultural Co-operative Societies of the Polish Republic; the Union of Co-operative Associations in Poland; and the Union of Food-Supplying Co-operative Societies of the Polish Republic.

The Union of Agricultural Co-operative Societies of the Polish Republic, as the name itself implies, comprises Polish Agricultural Societies of all kinds. To this belong the following Central or Controlling Unions:—the Central Agricultural Co-operative Society in Lwów, the Controlling Union of Polish Agricultural Co-operative Societies in Warsaw, the Controlling Union of Agricultural Co-operative Societies in Kraków, the Commercial Agricultural Society in Lwów, the Union of Agricultural Co-operative Societies in Cieszyn, the Union of Polish-Silesian Raffeisen Co-operative Societies in Katowice. Of the Central Associations, the following belong to the Union: the Central Agricultural Co-operative Bank, the Central

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Commercial Agricultural Association in Warsaw, the Agricultural Syndicate in Kraków, the Galician Dairy Producers Union at Kracow, the Union of Milk and Egg Producers' Co-operative Societies at Warsaw, the Union of the "Jajo" Egg Producers' Association at Kraków, the Egg Producers' Union at Lwów, the Central Commercial Agricultural Co-operative Societies at Wilno, the Union of Basketworkers' Societies, "Lozina," at Lwów.

These unions and central societies comprise the following co-operative societies (Ianuary 1, 1925):

	Number of Societies.	Number of Members.
(a) Credit Co-operative Societies (Stefczyk Banks)	 1,927	500,000
(b) Dairy Producers' Co-operative Societies	 168	22,000
(c) Commercial Agricultural Co-operative Societies	 196	128,500
(d) Egg Producers' and other Societies	 95	35,500
Total	 2,359	687,000

The Union of Co-operative Societies, with head offices at Poznań, principally consist of credit associations of the Schultz-Delitsch system (People's Banks), and in addition of the majority of Food-Supplying Co-operative Societies of former German Poland and Agricultural Co-operative Societies in Galicia. It is composed of four Unions:—the Union of Workmen's and Labourers' Societies at Poznań, the Galician Union of Co-operative Societies (formerly the Union of Workmen's and Labourers' Societies) at Lwów, the Union of Polish Co-operative Societies (formerly the Polish Controlling Union of Credit Associations) at Warsaw, and the Controlling Union of Agricultural Societies at Kraków. It comprises the following economic centres: -Bank of the Union of Workmen's and Labourers' Associations, the Farmers' Centre, the Centre of Machine and Wholesale Food-Supplying Associations—all at Poznań-and the Economic Union of Agricultural Societies at Lwów,

The number of Co-operative Societies belonging to the Union are as follows:

A CONTRACTOR OF THE CONTRACTOR		Number of Societies.	Number of Members.
(a) Credit Societies		 474	246,175
(b) Food-Supplying and Agricultural Societies		 238	286,433
(c) Commercial Agricultural Societies		 74	13,619
(d) Various Co-operative Societies	. 4	 67	19,602
Total		 853	565,829

The most compact organisation is the Union of Food-Supplying Associations of the Polish Republic. This was founded by a combination with the oldest and strongest Union of Polish Food-Supplying Societies—and two other Centres and Controlling Unions: the Union of Food-Supplying Workmen's Societies and the Union of Co-operative Civil Servants Food Supplying Societies. Thus, it unites nearly all the food-supplying societies of the country numbering 906, with 590,000 members.

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The Union has under its control 23 branches in all the large towns of the Republic of Poland, and, in addition, 14 local unions (in districts or communes) which are actually branches of the Union. Agents in London and Danzig organise the foreign trade carried on by the Union on a large scale. The Union makes use of exports in order to acquire foreign currency for the importation of the large quantities of the necessary colonial products.

The Union plays an important part in the importation of articles of prime necessity, whose proportion to the total imports of Poland in 1924 was as follows:—

Soda	 	6-33 per	cent.	Cocoa		x · 64 per	cent.
Tea		4.7	22	Rosin (for soap)		1.62	11
Currants		4.06	23	Fats		1.48	F2
Rice	 	2 · 25	11	Herrings	 	1 05	2.0

As regards salts, petroleum and sugar of home production, the participation of this Union is still more important, and constitutes 10 per cent. of the whole consumption of the former article (salt) and its general turnover at present exceeds 3 million zlotys per month, nearly 5 per cent. of it being goods of its own manufacture.

In addition to the above-mentioned groups, there are in Poland four other groups: the Co-operative Societies of Ukrainian, German and Jewish nationals. Ukrainian Co-operative Societies, comprising about 700 different kinds, are concentrated in the counties of Lwów, Stanisławów and Tarnopol, and are united under the National Controlling Union at Lwów. German Co-operative Societies are united in five controlling groups, two of which are in Poznań, one in Pomerania, one at Łódź and one at Lwów. They are small organisations, and only embody credit and agricultural co-operative societies. German Food-Supplying Co-operative Societies in Silesia and also White Rutheuian Co-operative Societies in the county of Wilno, belong in the main to the above-mentioned

THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN POLAND.

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Bank Związku Spółek Zarobkowych

Union Bank of the Cooperative Societies.

Head Office:

15, Plac Wolności, Poznań.

Branches:

A/in Poland: Warsaw, Łódź, Toruń, Kraków, Bydgoszcz, Lublin, Radom, Piotrków, Kielce, Grudziądz, Zbąszyń, Katowice, Sosnowiec, Lwów, Wilno, Bielsko. B/Free City of Danzig. C/Abroad: Paris, New York.

Capital and Reserve Fund: over zł. 22,000,000

Established: 1886.

Board of Directors:

M. Hofman, S. Kucharski, T. Brzeski.

President of the Council:
S. Karłowski.

The Union Bank of the Cooperative Societies undertakes all banking transactions, and is financing the Industry and Commerce all over Poland. It is also the Central Office to finance the Cooperative and Economic Societies, united in the General Association for whole Poland.

IX FINANCE

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The financial history of the Polish Republic, which begins with the proclamation of Independence in November, 1918, cannot be properly appreciated without the initial statement that the Republic began her new career with the Treasury empty in the literal meaning of the word.

I.-Financial History (1918 1923).

1. Inflation.

The first five years of Poland's independent existence were marked by a continuous decline of the Polish mark which was introduced by the German authorities of occupation as the legal currency of the country. Attempts at stabilisation of the currency made prior to the year 1923-24 could not possibly achieve any measure of success. During the first two years a war with Soviet Russia was raging on the Eastern borders of Poland, and the administrative apparatus was but in a state of formation; the war has dealt a severe blow to the reviving country, and the necessity of maintaining a large Army made the balancing of the Budget impossible even during the years 1921-22. The unsettled questions of Upper Silesia and of Poland's Eastern frontiers further impeded the work of financial reform, for, until these questions were settled, Poland could not hope to receive a foreign loan of any importance. Efforts were made in 1922 to stabilise the currency on the basis of a balanced Budget; the plan of financial reform elaborated by the then Minister of Finance, M. Michalski, and based on a scheme of a capital levy, was doomed to failure. In such circumstances the drop in the mark was rapidly increasing, dwindling the gold value of notes in circulation as well as the State revenue from taxation. As will be noted from the appended table, the dollar exchange, which was 9.8 Polish marks per dollar in January, 1919, rose to 141.9 marks in 1920, to 770 marks in 1921, to 3,416 in 1922, to 32,778 in 1923, until in January, 1924, the dollar was quoted at 9,350,000 Polish marks! During the second half of 1923 the depreciation became particularly violent, and the value of currency in circulation was diminishing proportionately.

2. Monetary Inflation in Poland (1919, 1920, 1921, 1922, 1923).

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Date.		Indebtedness of the State Treasury in thousands of P. marks.	Notes in Circulation in thousands of P. marks.	Rate of the dollar.	Note circulation reckoned in dollars.
	_	3.11	1	1177	
1918				8	110,018,85
NOV. 12	4.0		150	8-50	109,465,560
30		13,930	930,457	9	113,812,70
Dec. 31		119,921	1,024,314	y	113,011,70.
1919. an. 31		203,885	1,098,147	11	99,831,614
an. 31 eb. 28		315,000	1,160,033	12	96,669,488
		400,000	1,223,196	13.50	90,607,130
dar. 31		575,600	1,345,983	15:421	87,259,88
April 30		925,000	1,548,295	15	103,219,720
day 31		1,125,000	1,784,564	17.50	101,975,11
une 30	• •	1,925,000	2,087,921	19 65	106,255,534
uly 31		2,525,000	2,466,612	28	88,093,29
lug. 31		3,225,000	2,964,709	35	84,705,99
Sept. 30	1.0	4,375,000	3,723,571	41 25	90,268,40
Oct. 31		5,375,000	4,236,211	77	55,015,72
Nov. 30		6,825,000	5,316,295	110-12	48,275,10
Dec. 31		0,025,000	3,310,293	110 124	7-,-7,3,1
1920.		8,275,000	6,719,870	144	46,665,76
Jan. 31		10,775,000	8,300,261	159	52,202,90
eb. 29		14,775,000	10,690,618	156-124	68,474,73
Mar. 31		19,375,000	16,027,865	181-25	88,429,60
April 30		22,375,000	17,934,653	180 - 25	99,498,77
May 31	• •	27,625,000	21,730,074	141.75	153,298,58
une 30		33,375,000	26,311,387	189.75	138,663,43
uly 31		39,625,000	31,085,843	214	145,260,95
Aug. 31		40,625,000	33,203,498	270	122,975,91
sept. 30		46,925,000	38,456,762	297.50	129,266,43
Oct. 31		49,625,000	43.236,181	510	84,776,82
Nav. 30		59,625,000	49,361,485	590	83,663,53
Dec. 31		39,023,000	49,301,403	390	031003133
1921.		65,625,000	55,079,451	790	69,720,82
Jan. 31 Feb. 28		77,125,000	62,560,416	890	70,292,60
		93,625,000	74,087,403	817.50	90,626,79
Mar. 31 April 30		106,625,000	86,755,339	820.50	105,734,72
		117,625,000	94,575,834	1,016	93,086,45
May 31 .		130,625,000	102,697,302	2,075	49,492,67
June 30 1.		140,625,000	115,242,280	2,000	55,139,84
July 31	* *	158,000,000	133,734,219	2,847.55	46,965,48
		178,000,000	152,792,056	6,550	23,327,03
Sept. 30		198,500,000	182,777,295	3,100	58,960,41
Nov. 30 1.		214,000,000	207,029,095	3,590	57,668,27
Dec. 31		221,000,000	229,137,560	2,922 50	78,541,50
1022.		1 - 1			
Igaz.		227,000,000	239,615,265	3,445	69,554,50
Feb. 28 .		230,600,000	247,209,505	4,060	60,889,04
1.0		232,100,000	250,665,463	3,867 50	64,813,30
		220,000,600	260,553,764	4,075	63,939,57
April 30 May 31		217,000,000	276,001,108	4,002.50	68,957,17

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	Indebtedness of the State Treasury in thousands of P. marks.	Notes in Circulation in thousands of P. marks.	Rate of the dollar.	Note circulation reckoned in dollars.
				1 1 1
				A STATE OF THE PARTY OF THE PAR
			6,075	55,214,260
			8,625	44,728,984
		463,706,446	8,865	52,307,500
		579,972,769	14,140	41,016,461
		661,092,352	17,320	38,169,304
• •	675,600,000	793,437,498	17,800	44,575,140
	799,500,000	909,160,306	35,650	25,502,392
	1,085,000,000			26,308,397
	1,752,000,000			43,527,319
	2,161,500,000			50,024,596
	2,377,000,000			51,702,961
				34,294,702
				22,763,451
٠.				27,597,496
				31,993,530
				14,317,867
				15.054.453
	111,332,000,000	125,371,955,360	6,375,000	19,666,189
				In the
	228 200 000 000	212 650 820 012	0.200.0.0	00 706 860
				33,726,863
				57,179,829
				64,350,725
			9,230,000	61,697,032
	- permits of the	Dunin of Torquit.		THE PARTY
		the State Treasury in thousands of P. marks. 360,000,000 285,000,000 342,500,000 453,500,000 75,600,000 1,752,000,000 2,161,500,000 2,965,500,000 10,265,500,000 10,265,500,000 10,265,500,000 12,854,000,000 111,332,000,000 291,700,000,000 291,700,000,000 291,700,000,000 291,700,000,000 291,700,000,000 291,700,000,000 291,700,000,000	the State Treasury in thousands of P. marks. 360,000,000 335,426,628 385,787,488 342,500,000 453,500,000 579,972,769 519,500,000 1,085,000,000 1,085,000,000 1,177,300,802 1,732,000,000 1,177,300,802 1,732,000,000 1,177,300,802 1,100,500,000 1,177,300,600 1,205,500,000 1,205,500,000 1,205,500,000 1,205,500,000 1,205,500,000 1,205,500,000 1,205,500,000 1,205,500,000 1,205,500,000 1,205,500,000 1,205,500,000 1,205,500,000 1,205,700,000,000 291,700,000,000 291,700,000,000 291,700,000,000 570,697,550,755,50	the State Treasury in thousands of P. marks. Circulation in thousands of P. marks. Rate of the dollar. 360,000,000 285,000,000 385,787,488 8,625 342,500,000 463,706,446 8,865 453,500,000 579,972,769 14,140 519,500,000 793,437,498 17,800 793,500,000 1,085,000,000 1,177,303,802 44,750 1,752,000,000 1,841,203,619 2,377,000,000 2,313,66,49,071 2,496,500,000 4,199,500,000 4,199,500,000 6,871,776,522 249,000 10,265,500,000 11,197,737,897 10,265,500,000 11,197,737,897 11,200,000,000 11,271,791,793 11,200,000 11,285,500,000 11,271,791,793 1350,000 11,285,500,000 11,271,791,793 1350,000 11,285,500,000 11,285,500,000 11,285,500,000 11,285,500,000 11,285,500,000 11,285,500,000 11,285,500,000 11,285,500,000 11,285,500,000 128,300,000 128,300,000 128,300,000 128,300,000 128,300,000 128,31,418,744 9,250,000 291,700,000,000 570,607,550,472 9,250,000

Thus, in December, 1918, the gold value of the currency in circulation was 670.8 million zlotys; in December, 1920, 422 million; in 1921, 403 million; in 1922, 230.5 million, and in 1923, 84 million zlotys. The revenue from taxation and monopolies in 1922 amounted to 73.4 per cent. of the estimated revenue, but this was due to the temporary stabilisation of the mark during the first six months of that year (M. Michalski's Ministry); in the following year the same revenue computed into gold currency represented but 39 per cent. of the Estimates, even though a sliding scale was applied to all public taxes and dues.

3. Stabilisation of Currency.

Thus the Government was confronted with an extremely difficult task. The mark had to be stabilised. In order to achieve this aim, the psychology of the public had to be influenced by an absolute discontinuation of further currency

emissions. All credits had to be stopped and the taxation machinery made more efficient. These measures alone could of provoke the public to throw into the market their stocks of Ac foreign currencies and bonds which would enable the Government to secure a considerable stock of gold currencies and Ja thus to control the money markets. Once this had been mi achieved, the Budget of the preceding Government could be the revised and based on figures expressed in a stabilised mo currency.

It is obvious that the measures described above could not and have been introduced without special emergency powers 12 being granted to the Government by the Seym. The usual Sto parliamentary routine would have been too protracted and in complicated for measures which required instant decision un and swift action. Such powers have been granted to the pro-Minister of Finance, M. Grabski, and, armed with them, he est could commence his work of financial reform. Fe

The work of the Seym as regards financial legislation, though gre often justifiably criticised, has always tended towards the for rehabilitation of the national economic life, in spite of the con acute political struggles and the difficulties arising therefrom. ref All projects of additional taxation submitted by the Government have always been voted by both legislative assemblies.

The passing of the Property Tax and Income Tax Bills, and the amendments in the Land Tax—all these are adequate proofs of the desire of Parliament to increase the revenue and improve the State finances. Attempts were even made to on safeguard the Treasury against depreciation and a consequent diminution of these taxes. Thus, the Government was of authorised to levy indirect taxes according to a sliding scale me and proportionate to the extent of devaluation.

When speaking of the great Financial Reforms undertaken du by the Prime Minister and the Minister of Finance, M. Grabski in the middle of January, 1924, it is no exaggeration to say de that the keystone of all such reforms was laid by the Seym and the Senate in passing three important Acts, viz.:-

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(1) The Property Tax Act of August 11, 1923.

(2) The Act of December 6, 1923, introducing a stable we unit for the purpose of calculating all public taxes and certain the other sources of revenue as well as loans granted by Govern- ba ment and municipal institutions. This was the so-called Lo "Stabilisation of Taxes" Act.

tion (3) The Finance (Improvement) and Monetary Reform Act ould of January 11, 1924, or the so-called "Emergency Powers of Act."

ern. The position in the money markets at the beginning of and January, 1924, was such that the dollar was quoted at 10 een million marks and transactions were made at 25 million for be the end of the month. M. Grabski chose this for an opportune ised moment for the commencement of his campaign. The absolute discontinuation of further emissions was announced, not and the whole gold reserve of the Treasury, amounting to some vers 12 million zlotys, has been thrown into the market. The sual Stock Exchange gamblers, who were at that time engaged and in a speculation on the fall of the French franc, were taken ion unawares. The fall of the mark was stopped and a reverse the process took place. Foreign currencies began to decline, he especially after the cessation of further emissions after February 2nd. The supply of foreign currencies was so igh great that the Treasury was able to collect a reserve sufficient the for the purpose of regulating the money markets of the the country. Thus, the most important part of the financial m, reform was accomplished. rn-

4. The Balancing of the Budget.

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lls, The next problem to be dealt with was the establishment ate and maintenance of a balanced Budget. The introduction nd of so-called "monthly Budgets" had a decisive influence to on the settlement of this problem. Credits allowed to particular Ministries for each month were fixed by the Minister of Finance according to the revenue expected. The establishale ment of a balanced Budget in February and March facilitated the collection of the Property Tax, an instalment of which fell cen due at that time. At the same time tax-payers had to settle ski their obligations in cash only and the alternative of mortgage ay debentures was abolished in view of the stabilisation of the nd mark. The expected deficit of the following months was to be covered by the extraordinary receipts of the Treasury in connection with the currency reform. Amongst such items ble were the bank-note issue during the first month of the year, in the issue of coin and subsidiary (currency) notes, and the n- balance accrued from the liquidation of the Polish State ed Loan Bank, whose activities were taken over by the Bank of Poland. The total revenue from these items was estimated

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at 701 million zlotys, as against the estimated deficit of 160 millions, plus the cost of liquidation of the mark currency which amounted to 315 million zlotys. In reality, the revenue was found to be smaller than the corresponding estimate and the deficit amounted to more than the estimated 160 million. In any case the Treasury entered the new financial year with a balance of Revenue over Expenditure amounting, according to the figures of the General Rapporteur of the Budget—Deputy Zdziechowski—to 88·7 million zlotys, exclusive of 205 million in overdue taxation and of 30 million represented by the difference between the issue of metal coin

allowed and that actually minted.

Needless to say, taxes and State dues have been increased generally up to their pre-war standard. The revenue from these sources has increased, in view of the simultaneous stabilisation of the currency. The Railway Budget, which was responsible for the greater part of the deficits of the former Budgets, has been separated from the general accounts. 35 million zlotys were granted to the railway administration in February, and only 5 million in March. These subsidies were granted under the express condition of enforcing the strictest economies. The railway administration was commercialised, i.e., placed on the same basis as private concerns. In order to meet the railways' needs for investments, a 10 per cent. Railway Loan has been issued. In addition, shorttermed 6 per cent. Treasury Bonds and a Dollar Premium Loan to the extent of 5 million dollars were issued. All these sources brought in a total of but 35.8 million zlotys.

Strict economies were introduced at the same time. Up to June, 1924, two Ministries were abolished, and the staff of the

Civil Service was reduced by 20,000.

5. Currency Reform.

The cessation of further issues of Polish marks notes, together with the establishment of a balanced Budget, have enabled the Government to execute the proposed reform of currency. The temporary Po ish State I oan Bank was liquidated, and a new Bank of Issue, the Bank of Poland, was set up without delay and all notes expressed in Polish marks were called in by the Bank. The public was called upon to bear an additional burden of finding 100 million zlotys for the capital of the Bank of Poland at a time when increased taxation was

absorbing the greater part of the public's capital available for investments. In spite of pessimistic prognostics the share issue of the Bank was over-subscribed by a surplus of over 10 per cent. In consequence the Bank was established as a private institution, with the Government's interest amounting to only 1 per cent. The statutory reserve of gold and foreign currencies for the Bank Note issue was fixed at 30 per cent. The State Treasury was statutorily forbidden to incur any loans at the Bank, with the exception of a credit of 50 million zlotys granted by the Bank to the Government in consideration of the privilege of Note issue. No interest is payable by the

Treasury on any sums drawn under this head.

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The appearance of the zloty concurrently with the Polish mark created a position which could not exist for long, in view of the rate of exchange of the zloty which was fixed in January at 1,800,000 Polish marks. An artificial increase of the value of the mark to 1,000,000 per zloty was impossible, for it would necessarily result in a still further development of the economic crisis, and in a decrease of the revenue from taxes and dues, which were, at that time, computed into zlotys at the above rate of exchange. The existence of two currencies simultaneously would sooner or later result in a repudiation of the weaker currency in favour of the stronger one. The only way out of the difficulty was the immediate withdrawal of the mark. Thus an additional financial burden was thrown on the shoulders of the public, which has but recently subscribed the issue of the Bank of Poland and paid the increased rates of taxes. The whole operation had to be performed by means of an issue of subsidiary Bank Notes which were covered by the surplus of the former Polish State Loan Bank, taken over by the Bank of Poland. As soon as metal coin was minted all subsidiary notes thus issued were exchanged for coin, and on and after January 1st, 1925, one and two zlotys notes were exchanged for silver coins of the same denominations. It is evident from the above that the year 1924 and partly 1925 formed a period of an almost incessant process of exchange of currencies. By the end of 1924 it was clear that the work of financial reform was completed. In spite of many shortcomings of the reform, the promptness and efficiency with which it has been executed must be emphasised.

The liquidation of the Polish State Loan Bank (P.K.K.P.) had an important bearing on the subsequent development

of Poland's financial affairs, as it supplied the Treasury with certain non-budgetary revenues.

A part of the assets and liabilities of the Polish State Loan Bank was taken over by the Bank of Poland on April 28, 1924. A further part of the assets was realised gradually between April 28 and December 31, 1924. Part of the liabilities, including the considerable item of 315,22 million zlotys for the conversion of the mark notes to the amount of 567,432,565,676,877 Polish marks, was covered gradually between April 28 and December 31, 1924.

The following table contains a statement on the above operations:—

Statement on the Liquidation of the Polish State Loan Bank on December 31, 1924.

Position on December 31, 1924.

Revenue from the realisation of the assets of the P.S.L. Bank.

A. At the time it was taken over by the Bank of Poland, April 28, 1924.

				zlotys.
1. For foreign curre	ncies			140,257,919.08
2. Bills discounted	** **			110,753,111.59
3. Immovable prope	erty			29,739,899.00
4. Real property				1,000,000 - 00
5. Short term loans				862,869-40
6. Balances on trans	sfer accounts			378,931 · 17
7. Balances on agen	ts' accounts			751,030.90
8. Bonus funds	44 44			451,336.67
9. Advances on sala	ries		4 +	273,764.49
10. Interest on depos				128,832 · 17
Total			**	284,597,694-47
B. From April 28, 19	24, to Decemb	er 31, 19	924.	
	** **	23	3.5	50,517,243.44
Total re	evenue			335,114,937.91

The Liquidation of Liabilities of the P.S.L. Bank.

X,

A. At the time it was taken over by the Bank of Poland, April 28, 1924.

2. 3.	Bills end Covering Bonus fu Arrears o	for balan	ces in	foreign	curren	cies	zlotys. 140,049,685·15 937,718·72 649,097·65 718,785·17
		Total		57		44	142,355,286-69
	From Apr Covering						
2.	Polish Conventi Conventi	State Lo on of Pol on of m	an Ba ish ma	nk ark not	es	2.5	31,056,204·28 315,240,314·26
	P.S.L.	Bank					4,297,694 · 44
		Total	0 0	• •	**		350,594,212·98 142,355,286·69
		Total lia	bilitie	s	**		492,949,499 67
		Total as	sets	++	4.4		335,114,937.91
		Balance	• •	**	. zlo	tys	157,834,561.76
T	his unfa	vourable	balan	ce was	cover	ed b	y means of:—
	(1) Gold	from the	Natio	nal Ind	enende	nce	zlotys.
	Tr (2) Rece		the s	ale of j	ew e ls		68,768,373 29,885,350

As will be seen from the above, the receipts from the issue of coins and small notes helped to carry through the proposed reforms. As shown in the following table, the total amount

59,180,838

157,834,561

coins ...

Sum total

of coins issued by the Treasury represented on December 31, 1924, a sum of 150,650,166 zlotys. Considering that the expense of the minting of coins and printing of small notes up to December 31, 1924, amounted to 12,106,222 zlotys the net value of the issue amounted to 150,650,166 zlotys less 12,106,222, i.e., 138,543,944 zlotys.

As already mentioned, part of the difference between the realised assets of the Polish State Loan Bank and its liabilities, amounting to 59,180,838 zlotys, was covered by the said issue and consequently there was left as non-budgetary revenue from the issue of coins and small notes the balance of

79,363,106 zlotys.

the testys tys he es, ue ue of 6. Statement on the Circulation of Silver Coins and Small Notes for the Year 1924 (in zlotys).

Silver and Metal Coins.

II II			35	H	57	200	27 1	23	24	99	 	30	22	90	24	24	24	22	23	32	30	5	93	36
lotal of small notes and meta	coins in circulation at the end of decade.	10 200 cM2 cz	16,174,042	28,714,482-11	37,520,265.57	51,422,768.28	93,155,958 82	110,/90,330 9/	134,246,789.97	133,676,571	129, 106,063 . 88	129, 106,063,88	129,267,804.57	122,528,478.80	131,736,179.24	137,837,279.24	138,237,179.24	152,546,540.22	152,390,919.83	141,903,957.32	151,285,728.8	145,407,614.45	138,063,464.93	150,650,166.36
S.	In circulation at the end of decade.	14.900 000	16,174,642.35	28,680,608 81	36,583,979.26	49,175,655 03	89,131,316.27	104,914,772.37	125,807,547 49	124,054,530.79	119,484,023 OI	119,484,023 01	115,718,601-53	108,458,079.10	107,281,582.58		107,281,582 58	112,545,843.56	111,710,823 17	96,335,110.66	99,855,136-22	91,859,167.79	83,528,084 83	88,758,045 07
SMALL NOTES.	Returned.	1 (1)		1	1	1	1		1	1,753,016.70	4,570,507.78	1	3,765,421 48	7,260,522 43	96.969.166.6	1	1	1	835,020.39	15,375,712.51	1	7,995,968 43	8,331,082 96	-
	Put in circulation.	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	3,390,665-64	12,505,966.46	7,903,370.45	12,591,675-77	39,955,661.24	15,783,450.30	17,417,165-84		-	1	1	1	8,815,200-44	1	1	5,264,260.98	1]	3,520,025.56	1	1	5,229,960.24
AL COINS.	In circulation at the end of decade.			33,873.30	936,286-45	2,247,113.25	4,024,642.55	5,075,550.40	8,439,242,48	9,622,040 87	9,622,040.87	9,622,040 87	13,549,203 04	14,076,399.70	24,454,596.66	30,555,696.63	30,955,596.66	40,000,696.66	40,680,096.66	45,568,846.66	51,430,646 66	53,548,446.66	54,536,380.10	61,892,121.29
SILVER AND METAL COINS.	Returned.			1	-	1	1		1	-	1	1	1	J			1	1	!	1	1	1	1	Y
SILVE	Put into circulation.	100 P		33,873 30	902,413.15	1,310,826.80	1,777,529 30	1,050,915 05	1,658,107.90	I, IR2, 798 39	1	1	3,027,162.17	521,196.66	10,384,196.90	6,101,100	399,900	9,045,100	679,400	4,888,750	5,861,800	2,117,800	987,933.44	7,355,741.19
10	3-1	1000	20/5		9/01	,, 20/6	9/08 "	70/7	31/7	B/oI	8/02	31/8	6/01 "	6/02 "	9 30/6	or/or "	101/02		II/OI	, 20/11			, 20,12	31/12
		1924.	1:0m 26,4 U	21/5			21/6	7/1	21/7	1/8	11/8	21/8	1/6/1	11/9	21/9	1/10	11/10	21/10 11	I/II 13	II/II	21/11 ,,	1/12 ,,	11/12 ,,	21/12
111111	1000		0:-				99	18	W. 5			6.	-	-	3.5	13		1.0	-	100	9.0	-	200	-

Including silver and nickel coins held by the Bank of Poland by virtue of Article 52 of the Statutes of the Bank of Poland.

II.—THE BUDGET OF 1924.

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1. The Execution of the Budget.

The credits for the year 1924 were authorised on the basis of the Treasury Act for 1924 ("Journal of Laws," 76, p. 747), and of the Treasury Act of December 19, 1924, for the supplementary credits for 1924 ("Journal of Laws," 10, 1925,

p. 75).

On October 24, 1924, the Minister of Finance presented to the Seym a draft of the Treasury Act for supplementary credits to the amount of 124,148,291 zlotys. Since it was obvious that the personal expenditure must be increased (in conformity with the rise of the sliding scale of the salaries and remunerations of the State officials and functionaries), and that therefore a new supplementary Treasury Act has become unavoidable, the legislative bodies when passing it incorporated in its text the credits in question so that the sum total of credits authorised for 1924 was increased:

Under the head A. Administration,	
by a sum of	123,443,373 zlotys.
Under the head B. Government's	
Undertakings, by a sum of	775,000 zlotys.
Under all other heads of the pre-	
liminary Budget Estimates by a sum	
of	85 801 566 zlotys.

The Revenue.

The State revenue in 1924 amounted to 1,453,858,361 zlotys. It must be admitted that the Budget Committee of the Seym estimated it very closely in June, 1924, fixing it in the preliminary budget at 1,422,525,410 zlotys, while the Budget Committee of the Senate estimated it with an excessive pessimism at 1,104,600,000 zlotys. A brief analysis of the relation between the actual and the estimated revenue, however, shows that while actual revenue under the head A. Administration amounts to 103.9 per cent. of the estimated revenue under this head, and the actual revenue under the head C. Monopolies amounts to 172.5 per cent. of the estimated revenue under that head—actual revenue from the State enterprises amounts only to 17.21 per cent. of the estimated revenue.

THE BUDGET OF 1924.

Taxation and Monopolies.

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Public taxes and monopolies yielded in 1924, 1,195,158,000 zlotys.

The Budget Committee of the Seym have estimated the same at 1,072,053,000 zlotys, while the Budget Committee of the Senate put their estimate only at 975 million zlotys, *i.e.*, 220 millions below the actual amount realised.

Only the revenue from direct taxation fell considerably short of the estimates. On this point the Budget Committee were justified in pointing out that it will be impossible to arrive at the estimated yield of 630,790,000 zlotys, and the Senate even put the yield as low as 458 million zlotys. In actual fact, it amounted to 492 million zlotys. On the whole, the levies and monopolies realised I,195,158,000 zlotys, i.e., III·5 per cent. of the amount estimated in the preliminary budget at 1,072,053,000 zlotys.

Revenue.

-	Estimated.	Actual.	Per cent.
Public levies and monopolies Public levies Public levies Direct taxes (excepting Property Tax) Direct taxes, including Property Tax Customs dues Export dues Indirect taxes Stamp dues Monopolies	 Polish zlotys. 1,072,053,000 983,038,000 297,798,000 630,790,000 120,000,000 9,568,000 173,750,000 48,930,000 89,015,000	Polish zlotys. 1,195,158,000 1,041,584,000 293,520,000 492,076,000 226,167,000 10,774,000 79,333,000 153,573,000	111·48 105·94 98·4 78 188 112 134 162

Provisional Figures.

	Ordinary Re Expend	
Groups and Parts.	Estimated in the Financial Bill of July 29, 1924.	Revenue.
Part. A. ADMINISTRATION.		
I. President of the Republic	165,730	97,298
2. Seym and Senate	2,799	7,236
3. Chief Audit Department	160.061	330 157,978
4. Prime Minuter's Office	460,364 7.039,200	8,984,858
5. Ministry for Foreign Alfairs 6. Ministry for War	11,200,703	6,056,161
7. Ministry of the Interior	5,818,543	20,278,054
8 Ministry of Finances	715,423,164	906,063,549
9. Ministry of Justice	6,644,809	19,692,903
10. Ministry of Industry and Commerce	83,070,023	83,316,563
rr Ministry of Railways	41,946	84,972
12. Ministry of Agriculture and State Domains	11,914,007	15,150,524
13 Ministry of Religion and Public Education	4,506,935	4,975,261
14. Ministry of Public Works	5,078,302	2,817,397
15. Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare	1,022,279	1,033,143
16. Ministry of Agrarian Reform	7,602,678	3,863,517
Total A	859,991,482	1,072,579,744
B. Undertakings (Net).		
4. Prime Minister's Office:	206 200	700 000
(a) State Printing Works	236,787	103,291
(b) Monitor Polski	207,182	530,512
(c) Polish Telegraph Agency		_
7. Ministry for the Interior: State Spas	855,165	127,933
8. Ministry of Finance: State money printing works	- 3370	-
10. Ministry of Industry and Commerce:		100
(4) Mining and smelting and industrial under		0.4
takings	10,593,520	1,948,644
(b) Works for the manufacture of telegraphic		
and telephone apparatus	46,485	122,245
(c) Radiotelegraph	20,954,000	
11. Ministry of Railways 12. Ministry of Agriculture and State Domains:	20,954,000	
(a) State lands	5,450,070	6,532,506
(a) State lands (b) State forest lands	60,161,717	7,628,889
is. Ministry of Labour and Public wenge.	1	
(4) Establishments for emigrants and technical		
schools for the disabled	58,109	105,606
(b) Mechanics' and joiners' works at Warsaw	_	_
(c) Re-emigration depôt at Dan/ic	55,012	_
(d) Emigration depôt at Wejherowo	1,043,695	
Total B	99,664,742	17,099,626
C. Monopolies (Net).		
8. Ministry of Finance:		96
Saccharine	15,000	86,391
Salt	70,000,000	16,324,514
Tobacco	70,000,000	433,700,330
Alcohol	4,000,000	3,517,435
m . 1 0	89,015,000	153,636,670
Total A. B. C.	1,048,671,224	11,243,316,040

Budget, 1924.

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Revenue.

Extraordinary Revenue and Expenditure. Estimated in the Financial Bill of July 29, 1924.		Estimated in Financial Bill of		Percentage of actual to estimated sum.	
		July 29, 1924, Ordinary and Extraordinary.	Total Revenue.		
10,000	=	175,730 2,799	97,298 7,236	55.3	
-			330	_	
-	-	460,364	157,978	34 3	
384,580	-	7,423,780	8,984,858	121.0	
4,506,620	430,745	15,707,323	6,486,906	41.2	
1,269,260	676,791	7,087,803	20,954,845	295.6	
334,066,596	199,589,341	1,049,489,760	1,105,652,890	105-3	
2,792,441	482,897	6,644,809 85,862,464	19,692,903 83,799,460	296.3	
4,792,441	402,09/	41,946	84,972	97 5	
		11,914,007	15,150,524	127.1	
_ [10]		4,506,935	4,975,261	110.3	
30,563,106	9,340,547	35,641,408	12,157,944	34 · I	
450,000		1,472,279	1,033,143	70'1	
		7,602,678	3,863,517	58.0	
374,042,603	210,520,321	1,234,034,085	1,283,100,065	103 9	
-		236,787	103,291	43 6	
100	_	207,182	503,512	256.0	
_	_	0			
=		855,165	127,933	14.9	
_	22,000	10,593,520	1,970,644	18.9	
_	=	46,485	122,245	262.9	
_	-	20,954,000	6,532,506	119.8	
		5,450,070	7,628,889	12.6	
-	-	60,164,717	105,606	181.7	
		58,100	_	-	
-	-	-	-	-	
	_	55,012	_	_	
		1,043,695			
	22,000	99,664,742	17,121,626	17.1	
			96		
	-	15,000	86,391	575.9	
		70,000,000	16,324,514	101.0	
	-	70,000,000	133,700,330	1 191 0	
_	-	4,000,000	3,517,435	87.9	
		89,015,000	153,636,670	172.59	
374,042,603	210,542,321	1,422,713,827	1,453,858,361	102·1	

Provisional Figures.

3. Execution of the

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_		1 0 2		Extra-
		Ordinary I	Expenditure.	ordinary
	Groups and Parts,	Estimated in the Fi-	Actual	Estimated in the Fi-
		nancial Bill	Expendi-	nancial Bill
		of April 29,	ture.	of July 29,
		1924.		1924.
Par			1	
	President of the Republic	1,112,142	1,053,294	_
	Seym and Senate	5,690,406	6,137,630	100,000
	Chief Audit Department	2,639,730	2,745,800	-
	Prime Minister's Office Ministry of Foreign Affairs	2,924,474	2,807,988	1,295,807
6.	Ministry of War	14,860,045 431,334,636	16,233,888	184,400,194
7-	Ministry of the Interior	126,403,235	134,509,260	3,869,387
8.	Ministry of Finances	224,056,823	181,595,832	3,963,137
9.	Ministry of Justice	60,935,241	61,134,112	1,000,000
	Ministry of Industry and Commerce	67,369,332	71,037,101	5,182,704
	Ministry of Railways	2,438,251	2,254,951	602,500
12.	Ministry of Agriculture and State Domains	15,921,514	17,339,767	
13.	Ministry of Religion and Public Edu-	241,525,267	234,702,433	95,870
14.	Ministry of Public Works	30,857,267	52,735,845	22,524,634
	Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare	16,915,358	14,237,732	1,506,885
16.	Ministry of Agrarian Reform	11,449,152	6,626,555	10,011,333
	Total A	1,256,433,192	1,314,683,545	234,552.451
	B. Undertakings (Net).			
4.	Prime Minister's Office:			
	(a) State Printing Works	-	200	400
	(b) Monitor Polski (c) Polish Lelegraph Agency	_	-	-
6	Ministry of War: Army Supply Works			10,606,000
7.	Ministry of the Interior : State Spas		-	10,000,000
8,	Ministry of Finances: State Money			
	Printing Works	-	_	_
TO,	Ministry of Industry and Commerce:			
	(a) Mining, smelting and industrial			
	undertakings	-		988,519
	(b) Works for the manufacture of			
	telegraph and telephone appar- atus			180 277
			-	489,372
TT.	(c) Radiotelegraph	_	_	89,000,000
12.	Ministry of Agriculture and State Lands:			09,000,000
	(a) State lands	_	-	
	(b) State forest failes	1000	-	179,650
15.	Ministry of Labour and Public Welfare:			
	(a) Establishments for emigrants			
	and technical schools for the			=0
	disabled (b) Mechanics' and Joiners' Works at	700		58,109
	Warsaw		1600	_
	(t) Re emigration depôt at Danzig		-	_
	(d) Emigration depôt at Wejherowo		-	_
	Total B			101,321,650
			- CP- F	
	Total A and B		1,314,683,545	

REMARK.—The total expenditure estimated in the Financial Bill luly 29, 1924, and did not authorise the Government to expend money to this amount, owing tothe reservathe maximum total of expenditure as passed by the Seym at 1,592,307,293 zlotys. The the hnancial and economic programmes for monopolies, and not in the Budget, and was ordinary expenditure amounted to 30,563,972 zlotys in 1924, and 5 millions during the

Budget, 1924.

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Expenditure.

Expenditure.	Total Estimate	d Expenditure.		Actual Expenditure.		
Actual Expenditure.	In accordance with the Financial Bill of 1924.	In accordance with Financial Bill of July 22, 1924, and the Sup. Credits Bill of Dec. 19, 1924.	Total Expen- diture in 1924 and during temporary re- lief period.	1924.	In 1925, and temporary relief period on account. of 1924.	
	1,112,142	60	1			
	5,790,406	1,113,462	1,053,294	1,030,524	22,770	
	2,639,730	6,177,038	6,137,630	6,066,998	70,632	
259,343	2,924,474	2,760,171	2,745,800	2,733,617	12,183	
1,542,577	16,155,852	3,358,156	3,067,331	3,002,479	64,852	
166,027,272	615,734,830	18,212,288	17,776,425	17,137,507	638,958	
18,141,886	130,272,622	688,919,959	675,558,629	636,820,797	38,737,832	
3,658,035		162,715,027	152,651,146	140,565,459	12,085,687	
979,887	228,019,960	250,009,776	185,253,867	180,937,900	4,315,967	
	61,935,241	66,640,660	62,113,999	60,337,639	1,776,360	
5,539,045	72,552,043	81,850,149	76,576,146	73,954,868	2,621,278	
152,772	3,040,751	3,073,959	2,407,723	2,407,530	193	
	15,921,514	25,319,045	17,339,767	16,697,800	641,967	
275,000	241,621,449	259,570,654	234,977,433	228,210,342	6,767,091	
9,996,016	53,381,901	71,469,020	62,731,861	60,435,283	2,296,578	
11,012,728	18,422,243	26,120,843	25,250,460	23,864,680	1,385,780	
18,212,053	21,460,485	32,920,375	24,838,608	22,496,449	2,342,159	
235,796,614	1,490,985,643	1,700,230,582	1.550,480,159	1.476,699,872	73,780,287	
*33179-14	-149019031043	1,700,230,502	1.550,480,139	1.270,099,872	/3,/00,20/	
300,000			200 000	300,000		
3,	-		300,000	300,000		
14,502,226	10,606,000	10,606,000	14,502,226	14,502,226	_	
_	988,519	988,519	_	_	-	
204,477	489,372	489,372	204,477	155,071	49,406	
61,663,705	89,000,000	89,750,000	61,663,705	61,663,705	_	
	_	25,000	_			
-	179,650	179,650	_	_	-	
_	58,109	58,109	_		_	
-		-	_	-	100	
	_	-		_	-	
-5.60			-			
76,670,408	101,321,650	102,096,650	76,670,408	76,621,002	49,496	
312,467,022		1,802,327.232		total of 1,802.3		

the Supplementary Credits Bill of December 19, 1924, to the total of 1,802,327,232 zlotys, tions laid down in Art. 2 of the law on Supplementary Credits of December 19, 1924, fixing extraordinary expenditure in monopoly undertakings is excluded, as it only heured in covered by extraordinary State revenue outside the Budget (Italian Loan). This extra-temporary relief period, making a total of 35,563,972 zlotys.

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The Budget Estimates for 1924.

The actual Budget of 1924 fully confirms the fact that the estimates for 1924 presented by the Government were in calculated with a considerable margin on the credit side.

It is enough to compare the State revenue in 1924, amounting to 1,453,858,361 zlotys, with the State revenue in 1922, equal to 420 million zlotys, or that in 1923, equal only to 414 million zlotys, in order to see the difference between the period of inflation and the short period of the monetary reform.

State Revenue and Expenditure during the Years 1922-1925. (in million alotys.)

-							
		Revenue.		Expenditure.			
7/2/17 (20)	Ordinary.	Extra- ordinary.	Total.	Ordinary.	Fxtra- ordinary.	Total.	
1st Quarter, 1922 2nd ", ", 3rd ", ", 4th ", ",	120·1 127·6 78·7 65·2	6·8 12·3 4·0 8·4	126·9 139·9 92·7 73·6		_	165·1 159·8 165·1	
l'otal, 1922	391 6	28 7	420 3	_	-	657.4	
1st Quarter, 1923 2nd " " 3rd " " 4th " "	69·3 134·3 100·5 74·4	10·1 23·6 9·0	79·4 157·9 109·5 74·4			229 5 258·5 261·4 219·3	
Total, 1923	378 · 5	35.5	414 0	-	-	961.5	
1st Quarter, 1924 2nd ,, ,, 3rd ,, 4th ,, ,,	241·7 339·1 355·1 517·6	26·0 143·8 41·4 38·2	267·7 482·4 397·1 555·8	287·9 300·5 332·4 389·6	66 0 73·2 108·9 102 4	353.9 373.7 441.3 492.0	
Total, 1924	1,453.5	249.3	1,702.8	1,310.4	350.5	1,660.9	
ist Quarter, 1925	410.8	180.0	599.8	442 9	86 o	528 9	

It will be seen from the above that as soon as the currency was stabilised the monthly revenue reached and in many cases exceeded the annual revenue of the preceding years. The receipts from all ordinary and extraordinary sources

THE BUDGET OF 1924.

during the first quarter of 1925 exceeded the sum of 600 million zlotys. It is true that this was due mainly to a great increase in extraordinary revenue, but even the Ordinary the receipt of that quarter exceeded the revenue of any preceding vere individual quarter, except the last three months of 1924. These facts fully justify the expectations of maintaining the Budget Balance, which is further safeguarded by the system of Monthly Budgets which enables the regulation of excessive expenditure.

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III.-THE BUDGET FOR 1925.

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The Estimates for the year 1925 were presented to the Seym on October 17, 1924. The first reading of the "Treasury Law" on the Estimates for 1925 took place at a sitting of the Seym on October 22, 1924. The details of the estimates, with comments and explanations, without which the Budget Committee could not start its labours, were placed before the Seym on November 20, 1924.

The Budget Committee started their debates on the Estimates on December 16, 1924. These debates were interrupted by the Christmas recess. On January 12 the Committee re-started their work. To speed up their labours the Committee worked out special rules, presented to the

Seym, which included:

(1) The appointment of members and deputy members of the Committee;

(2) Fixing the limit of five hours for each political party in the general discussion of each part of the Estimates;

(3) Debating the details in two sub-committees.

In order to analyse the Estimates the Budget Committee had 84 full meetings and 27 meetings of the sub-committees (14—the political sub-committee, 13—the economic sub-committee).

Not unlike the Budget for 1924, the Budget for 1925 suffers from the lack of an absolute balance in the estimates of

ordinary revenue and expenditure.

The ordinary revenue in three groups — Administration (gross), undertakings, and monopolies (net)—is estimated at 1,658,599,130 zlotys. The extraordinary budget provides a

surplus of about 36 million zlotys.

In gross-budgeting the expenditure estimates would reach the figure of 3,459,713,600 zlotys. In this sum, personal expenditure amounts to 1,272,001,400 zlotys, i.e., 36.5 per cent. of the gross budget, and the expenditure on investments 407,560,000 zlotys, i.e., 11.7 per cent. of the gross budget.

The fact that in many parts of the estimates there was no need to increase the personal expenditure in connection with the increase of the scale index of salaries from thirty-eight, with which the budget was estimated, to forty-one, which is now in use in view of the higher cost of living, shows with

THE BUDGET FOR 1925.

what margin the personal expenditure of the budget was estimated.

The estimates of the budget of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs in Poland show that this budget is very modest. It amounts to 20.8 million zlotys, while in France it amounts to 36.6 million zlotys, and in Czechoslovakia to 21.9 million zlotys.

Our budget of the Ministry of Agriculture is also very modest in comparison with France and Czechoslovakia. In Poland it amounts to 36.7 million zlotys, in France to 70.4 million zlotys, and in Czechoslovakia to 33.8 million zlotys. Altogether different is the proportion as regards the estimates of the Ministry of Education; in Poland they amount to 373 million zlotys, in Czechoslovakia to 135 million zlotys. Taking into consideration the educational expenditure in the whole budget (including the expenditure for this purpose in the budgets of the Ministry of Agriculture and of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry), we find that in Poland the educational expenditure per head of the population amounts to 11 zlotys 77 groshes, in France to 12 zlotys 60 groshes, and in Czechoslovakia to 9 zlotys 16 groshes.

The charge on account of the National Debt of Poland is very low; it amounts to 1 zloty 99 groshes per head of the population, while in France it amounts to 110 zlotys 53 groshes per head, and in Czechoslovakia to 23 zlotys 60

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1. Budget Estimates for the Year 1925.* Statement according to groups and parts of the estimates.

)tys).	.Fotal.	2,131,268 9,237,063 4,622,008 1,747,078 20,814,609 20,814,609 20,913,000 20,913,000 31,913,92 31,529,93 2,858,92 3,544,349,367 8,444,349,367 34,348,608	43,852,150 2,020,064,689 119,380 142,428 15,000,000
Expenditure (in 2lotys).	Extra- ordinary.	928,625 1,600,000 750,000 23,77,883 183,42,000 183,42,000 183,43,485 12,290,743 12,290,743 34,575,339 34,575,339 500,000	361,859,376 361,859,376 142,528
Expe	Ordinary,	1, 202, 643 7, 73, 064 3, 873, 064 1, 747, 658 18, 647, 168 194, 668, 184 194, 68, 184 194, 68, 184 194, 68, 184 195, 185, 184 196, 188, 188, 188, 188, 188, 188, 188, 18	17,634,150 1,658,245,313 Deficit. 119,380
9),	Total.	134,380 26,590 96,590 16,590 16,188,862 16,188,882 16,188,882 1337,786,248 36,193,349 141,600 2,043,241 8,813,241 8,813,241 8,813,241 8,813,241 8,813,241 8,813,241 8,813,241	11,027,612 1,617,279,780 239,210 538,143
Revenue (in zlotys)	Extra- ordinary.	1,007,400 250,000 350,000 3,84,000 495,000 22,179,137	501,945,863
Re	Ordinary.	134,360 20,508 9,5,501 15,501 21,78,401 863,037,912 36,193,370 117,962,902 117,962	11,021,642 F,115,333,917 Net profit. 239,210 538,143
Parts.		President of the Republic Seym and Senate Chief Audit Dept. Council of Ministers Munistry of Foreign Affairs. Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Pinance Pinance Industry and Commerce Railways Railways Railways Domains Edwardon Public Works Labour and Public Velare	,, Agrarian Reform Total A, B,—Undertakings, Council of Ministers; (a) Polish Triegraph Agency (b) State printing works (c) Monitor Polyki Ministry of War: (a) Army supply works
		500	16.

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b, Ministry of War:
(a) Army supply works ...

		1	HE BU	DGEI	FO	R I	925.			
1,057,554	20,000	3,396,388	li,	62,450		972,813,111		2,295,000	44,795,000	2,176,772,968
1,057,554	20,000 590,542	3,396,388	1	62,450	11	111,519,462		7,295,000	44,795,000	518,173,838
	274,437	1. 1		1	1	393,817	Delicit.	11111	Acres (1,658,599,130
1,057,554	70,534	90,821,000		62,450	78,122	140,499,589		28,769,500 167,295,000 197,500,000 4,032,000	397,611,500	2,155,390,869
	11	51,000,000	ik	1		53,030,030		FILL	1	554,945,863
1,057,554	70,534	37,821,600		62,450	78,122	87,499,589	Net profit.	28,769,500 167,295,000 167,500,000 197,500,000	397,611,500	1,600,415,006
7. Ministry of the Interior: (a) State watering places. 10. Ministry of Industry and Commerce: (a) Mining and smelting and industrial undertakings	(b) Telegraph and telephone fac- fories (c) Radiotekgraph 11 Ministry of Railways.		15. Ministry of Labour and Social	(1) State technical schools for war invalids at Piotrkow. (b) Workshops for war invalids	ar warsaw (c) Emigration Depots	Total B.	C.—Monopolites.		Total C	lotal A + B + C

Budget estimates as voted by the Committee.

2. Estimated Receipts from Public Taxes and Monopolies (zlotys). 1925. Numbers according to 1925 Estimates.

	Voted by the Budget Committee of the Seym.	1,499,246,500 1,101,635,000 633,085,000 331,085,000 55,000,000 165,000,000	8,000,000 75,000 75,000,000 2,000,000 10,000,000 300,000,000 1,730,000 1,730,000 1,730,000 1,1,730,000 1,1,100,000 1,1,000,000 5,000,000 5,000,000
	Subsequent changes introduced.	111 1111	+ γ, οσο, οσο +
	Estimates for 1925.	1.358,226,800 1,0,16,635,000 648,085,000 325,085,000 58,000,000 78,000,000	75,000 2,000,000 10,000 10,000 333,000,000 98,55,000 6,500,000 5,000,000 5,000,000 5,000,000 5,000,000
	Per cent. of actual receigts to the Esti- mates.	105.941 66.43 66.43 98.4c 87.74 203.64 118.04	66 05 52 42 135 64 204 99 167 83 167 83 167 83 167 83 168 66 1126 866 1126 866 1141 866 1141 866 1141 866 1141 866 1141 866
	Actual receipts	1,195,158,517 1,051,584,898 492,077,393 293,052,608 48,261,699 8,145,902	66,034 40,000,000 2,170,3C7 1,70,3C7 199,044,785 133,050,468 5,746,576 5,726 5,726 5,726 5,726 5,726 5,726 5,726 5,726 5,726 5
	Budget estimates for 1924.	1,072,033,000 983,038,000 630,709,330 207,7000000 55,000,000 4,000,000	10,000,000 1,500,000 1,500,000 10,000 11,000,000 131,000,000 100,000
	Specification.	Public taxes and monopolies Public taxes Total of direct taxes Cluding property tax Land tax Tax on buildings Industrial tax Industrial tax Counts, tax on the sale of	
I	livii.	наем	3 4870 VOC H 4124 NA
5	Paragraph.	10	M M
	-Section.	0	
		500	

200,000	3,000,000	265,000,000 100,000 4,000,000	1,000,000 2,000,000 2,000,000	3,000,000 3,000,000 9,260,000	10,000,000	2,000,0000	397,011,500 28,769,500 167,295,000 197,500,000
1	11	45,000,000	1111	1111	1111	1 1	11111
200,000	3,000,000	200,000,000 85,000,000	1,000,000 2,000,000 13,000,000	2,000,000 2,000,000 40,000 6,460,000	8,000,000 20,000,000 23,000,000	1,000,000	311,591,80c7 15,0c0 28,769,500 145,807,300 135,000,000
144.77	327.18	174.95 188.49 162.13	91.87 318.84 164.90	148.44 402.85 585.66 127.56	174.30	206.62	566-30 109:77 190:72 87-93
217,159 144.77	7,043,382	1,399,615 226,167,809 79,333,156	1,556,541 13,192,346 2,382,000	1,486,478 234,285 7,653,8265	15,776,802 15,776,802	2,066,280	158,573,019 84,945 16,465,964 133,505,270 3,517,440
150,000	1,200,000	\$00,000 120,000,000 48,930,000	300,000 8,000,000 1,000,000	1,000,000 500,000 46,000 6,000,000	10,000,000 10,000,000	1,000,000	15,000 15,000 70,000,000 70,000,000 4,000,000
Patent dues on the manu- facture of alcoholic drinks	and yeast Interest, lines Arrears of repealed taxes in 1924 (the salt tax in the	came under this heading) Customs and other duties Charli duty	Duty on bequests Insurance duty Duty on bills of exchange Luxury tax	Stock exchange tax Duty on hills of lading , playing cards , receipts	Cost of procedure before the Supreme Court of Appeal Aliens tax Other dues Other dues Sale of stamps Fines, cost and interest on	G G	Accharine monololy Salt Totacco "Acchoil State lottery
V-00	0 01	н	4 kJ 4 kJ	00000	H H H H		
		13 13					
						12	H H H H H H H G G S S S S S S S S S S S

• Without the local licences for the sale of liquors amounting to 72,234 2l.

↑ After deduction of all expanditure (48,019,000 2l.).

4. Execution of the Budget during the First Six Months of 1925.

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The Financial Bill for 1925, together with the administrative budget and the financial-economic plans for State undertakings and monopolies, was published on July 7 of the present year, that is when the first half of the financial year 1925 had elapsed. During this period the Revenue and Expenditure of the State operated on the one hand on the Budget Estimates which were passed three times: first of all for January-February, subsequently for March-April and finally for May-June; on the other hand, they operated on the monthly budget estimates as fixed by the Ministry of Finance.

The results of this half-yearly financial administration compared with the Budget Estimates permit one to judge of the accuracy of the budget estimates and to gain an insight into its probable execution during the course of the whole year.

Actual State expenditure and revenue during the first half of the current year compare with the Budget Estimates as follows:

		Budget Estimates for 1925.	Execution of the Budget during the first six months.	Proportion of the first half yearly amount to the Budget Estimates.	
Expenditure		2,165,900,221	952,478,887	43.9 per cent.	
Revenue	-	2,157,389,305	971,714,171	45 per cent.	
Deficit or Surplus		- 8,510,916	+ 19,235,284	-	

We see, therefore, that during the firts six months neither the expenditure nor the revenue reached half the amount estimated for the whole of the year 1925, but the proportion of the revenue (45 per cent.) was higher than that of the expenditure (43.9 per cent.)

The budget for 1925 has no deficit: the deficit of 8,511 thousand zlotys will be covered by the exercise of corresponding economies in expenditure and the necessary diminution in expenditure will be obtained by fixing a monthly rate of the use of credit. As the above table shows, the Budget was not only balanced by this means during the first half year, but even showed an excess of revenue over expenditure to the amount of 19,235 thousand zlotys. It is true that in January and February, which months come under the so-called relief period, the expenditure was covered by the credits estimated in the 1924 budget so that during the first half of the present year the total expenditure amounted to 1 031,528 380 zlotys and the above-quoted expenditure from the

1924 budget to the sum of 79,049,493 zlotys was completely covered by the excess of revenue over expenditure in 1924.

In proportion to the sums estimated in the monthly budgets the actual revenue amounted to 112.40 per cent., while the actual expenditure amounted to 93.3 per cent., as the following computation shows:

	 -		Estimated in the Monthly Budgets.	Actual.
Expenditure	 	11	 1,021,036,972	952,478,887
Revenue	44		 864,622,513	974,714,171

During the individual months of the past half year the amounts of revenue and expenditure varied considerably and this, in the case of revenue, was to a certain extent due to the period of the payment of direct taxes falling due in a given month.

Revenue and Expenditure in the Individual Months.

HUNDER CO.			Reve	ENUE.	EXPENDITURE.		
1	- 1949		Estimated,	Actual.	Estimated.	Actual.	
January February March April May June			155,637,197 140,717,770 131,371,116 147,052,202 160,005,782 129,838,446	140,104,810 156,687,362 166,474,1892 180,150,694 159,370,566 171,925,847	183,075,487 148,419,043 165,768,429 180,448,976 179,459,233 163,865,804	125,713,793* 156,837,603† 167,348,704 161,977,078 152,136,232 188,465,477	

In addition 78,146,369 zlotys were expended on account of the 1924 Budget.
 In addition 903,124 zlotys were expended on account of the 1924 Budget.

The most favourable months in regard to revenue, therefore, were April and June, while at the same time the maximum expenditure was incurred in June, which month closed with the largest deficit, whereas the previous months show an excess of revenue or else a very insignificant deficit.

Public levies, as also net receipts from monopolies, formed the basis of revenue. During the first half-year these sources brought in a combined revenue of 662,646,391 zlotys, or 44.1 per cent. of the sum estimated from these sources in the budget for 1925, the total for the year being 1,503,846,500 zlotys.

The ordinary receipts from public levies and monopolies were actually considerably larger than half the sum estimated in the budget for 1925; only the extraordinary receipts from taxes,

namely, from the property tax, fell below half the sum estimated in the budget, as is seen from the following table:---

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Put	olic T	axes.		Receipts during 1st half year.	Sum estimated in the Budget.
Ordinary taxes			 	453,146,630	803,635,000
Direct taxes			 	167,839,082	335,085,000
Indirect taxes			 	53,500,827	98,550,000
Stamps and dues			 	57,069,881	100,000,000
Customs duties			 	174,736,840	270,000,000
Monopolies			 	174,302,159	400,211,500
Property tax			 	35,197,602	300,000,000

Thus, during the first half of the present year ordinary taxes brought in over 56 per cent. of the sum estimated in the budget for the whole year, whereas direct taxes gave little more than half the sum estimated for 1925 under this head; indirect taxes brought in 56 per cent. of the corresponding budget sum, stamps 57 per cent. and customs duties 65 per cent. The receipts (net) from monopolies only amounted to 43.5 per cent. of their budget estimates. This must be ascribed to the diminished receipts during the first two months of the year, for during the second quarter the monopolies gave nearly the full 25 per cent. of the budget estimates. Property tax on the other hand did not bring in quite 12 per cent. of the budget estimates. Receipts from peoperty tax during the first half of the year consisted mainly of arrears, the remainder of pay-

ment of the third instalment made in June.

On the basis of the above figures, it may be assumed in the first place-according to almost universal opinion-that the paying ability of the population has by no means diminished. In spite of the fact that the larger portion of direct taxes falls due in the second half of the year, they gave half of the sum estimated so that the receipt of at least a similar amount is assured for the second half of the year. It may also be looked upon as certain that receipts from indirect taxes and stamps will exceed the sum estimated in the budget. Receipts from customs will be lower owing to the expected decrease of imports, but on the other hand the higher tariffs and the abolition of customs relief give one to presume that the receipts from this source will, at any rate, not be lower than their estimates in the budget. To judge from the increasing receipts from monopolies in the individual months for the first half of the year, these receipts will also at least reach their estimates and thus we may infer that the excess of ordinary receipts from public taxes and monopolies will cover the greater part of the eventual deficit in the actual receipts from property tax. What the amount of this deficit will be is absolutely impossible to tell from the first half-year's receipts. This will depend mainly on the attitude of the Government towards the property tax bill as

also on the economic situation of the country during the second half of the year. In any case, it will not be necessary to have recourse to credit operations to cover any eventual deficit from these sources in order to balance the budget; all credits are earmarked for investment purposes and for the assistance of private traders.

As regards direct taxes, the largest amount was derived from industrial taxes during the first half of the present year, which gave 97.4 million zlotys; income tax brought in 28.2 million zlotys and land tax 19.4 million zlotys. The total receipts from direct taxes only amounted to 17 per cent. of the total receipts and if we consider that the industrial tax is mainly of the nature of a consumption tax, the actual direct taxes constitute a much lower percentage of the total receipts.

Direct tax receipts from the individual sources during the first

half of the present year are as follows :-

or the prosent year	COLC. CL.	3 TOTTO W	3 .		
Land tax				 	19,434,865
Property tax		4.4		 	7,971,522
Turnover tax	0.0			 	97.415.454
County tax on the		liquor		 	1,663,056
Tax on deposit safe	S			 	90,578
Income tax	- +			 	28,183,890
Tax on capital				 	3,193,855
Arrears of repealed				 	30,336
Interest on arrears,	fines,	etc.		 	9,855,526

167,839,082

The receipts from the different monopolies showed great variations, especially those derived from the alcohol monopoly. In January this source only accounted for 5.3 million zlotys, in February 12.3 million zlotys, in March 15.2 million zlotys, in April it gave the maximum returns—16.9 million zlotys, in May 13.3 million zlotys and finally, in June, 12.8 million zlotys. Receipts from the tobacco monopoly varied from 11.6 million zlotys (in January) to 18 million zlotys (in June).

The total receipts from monopolies amounting to 174.3 million

zlotys, was composed of the following :-

		-		Receipts in the first half of the year.	Sum estimated in the Budget for the whole year 1925.
Saccharine			 	88,025	115,000
Salt			 	13,560,606	28,769,500
Tobacco			 	83,555,938	169,795,000
Alcohol		* *	 	75,811,801	197,500,000
State Lottery	• •		 	1,285,789	4,032,000
Т	otal			174,302,159	400,211,500

Administrative receipts other than levies gave 299,262,862 zlotys. A table showing the revenue, together with the corresponding amounts of the budget for 1925, is set forth as sollows:

	Receipts in the first half of the year.	Sum estimated in the Budget for the whole year 1925.
ADMINISTRATION:	787,607,091	1,605,912,679
President of the Republic	108,016	134,386
Sevm and Senate	10,367	20,900
Chief Audit Department	-	96,958
Council of Ministers	13,679	15,501
Ministry of Foreign Affairs	4,043,269	8,785,400
Ministry of War	5,004,081	16,188,862
Ministry of Interior	10,820,203	19,380,551
Ministry of Finance	669,157,679	1,339,781,915
Ministry of Justice	17,212,855	36,193,370
Ministry of Industry and Commerce	61,978,681	121,710,374
Ministry of Railways	69,091	140,600
Ministry of Agriculture and State Domains	8,100,434	15,043,241
Ministry of Education	2,849,498	8,813,723
Ministry of Public Works	7,914,085	27,896,412
Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare	246,220	689,210
Ministry of Agrarian Reform	69,997	11,021,642
UNDERTAKINGS (net receipts)	12,804,918	151,265,126
MONOPOLIES	174,102,150	400,211,500

From the above statement it is obvious that the cause of the revenue only reaching 45 per cent. of the estimated amount is to be found in the considerable deficit (in relation to the budget estimates) in the receipts from State undertakings. The budgetary receipts from this source, to the amount of 151.3 million zlotys, include extraordinary revenue to the amount of 53 million zlotys, which was to be derived from the investment loan on the railways. Of the estimated net revenue (ordinary) from undertakings, estimated at 98.3 million zlotys, 43.8 million zlotys consist of receipts from the exploitation of railways During the first half of the year neither the one nor the other yielded any receipts. Nevertheless, this occasioned no serious deficit, for out of the estimated extraordinary expenditure on undertakings, of 90.8 million zlotys, for construction and investment expenditure on railways, only 13 million zlotys were assigned during the first half-year. Another item that caused the diminished revenue from undertakings was the net revenue from the exploitation of forest lands, which, though estimated at 46.4 million zlotys for the whole of 1925, only yielded 12.2 million zlotys for the first half of the year.

Revenue may be divided into ordinary and extraordinary, as

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follows :--

	Receipts during first half year.	Estimated in the Budget for 1925.		
Ordinary revenue Extraordinary revenue	1	#	788,005,049 186,709,122	1,602,429,765 554,959,540

To the budget revenue must be added the extraordinary revenue derived from credit operations during the first half-year. Net receipts from internal loans (i.e., after deducting the payments effected) amounted to 4,962,220 zlotys. Receipts from Italian loans, 1,051,026 zlotys; payments effected, 5,720 zlotys. Receipts from the American loan realised 123,946,233 zlotys. Of this loan 19,900,000 zlotys were utilised by the Ministry of Railways and 78,819,577 zlotys by the State Economic Funds.

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-y 15, 8, 16 1-75 16 LY ut of re it st lė F. 3.5 State expenditure to the amount of 952,478,887 zlotys is divided

grand enco	Receipts in first half year.	Estimated in 1925 Budget.
Ordinary expenditure	 812,918,330	1,662,506,383
Extraordinary expenditure	139,560,557	503,393,838

The following is a statement according to the different budgetary groups and items of the expenditure incurred during the first half of the year together with the amounts estimated in the budget for the whole year 1925:

to a della d	Expenditure in first half year.	Estimated in the Budget for 4925.
ADMINISTRATION: President of the Republic Seym and Senate Chief Audit Department Council of Ministers Ministry of Foreign Atlairs Ministry of War Ministry of the Interior Ministry of Finance Ministry of Justice Ministry of Railways Ministry of Railways Ministry of Railways Ministry of Education Ministry of Education Ministry of Public Works Ministry of Dublic Works Ministry of Labour and Public Welfare	931,875,741 757,962 3,800,827 1,635,421 787,724 11,632,773 331,842,943 92,077,709 175,739,983 35,489,258 48,154,114 1,425,260 9,163,960 152,577,918 35,898,436 19,749,958 11,081,486 20,603,146	2,016,156,408 2,131,268 9,444,253 4,472,006 1,747,628 20,794,267 710,100,000 207,148,937 329,413,920 90,610,636 114,669,055 2,858,920 36,848,848 323,316,258 84,295,653 34,388,608 43,886,150 111,948,813 37,795,000

From the above statement it will be seen that, whereas administrative expenditure during the first half of the year constituted 46 per cent. of the amount estimated for 1925, extraordinary expenditure and deficit in the exploitation of undertakings, only 18 per cent.,—as also credit allocated in the budget under extraordinary expenditure on monopolies were not utilized at all. As we already stated in our discussion on revenue, the receipts from

undertakings during the first half of the present year were excessively small in comparison with the amount estimated in the budget for they only reached 8 per cent. of that sum.

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The individual administrative agents whose expenditure reached more than half the sum estimated in the budget for 1925 were the Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Finance and Labour and Social Welfare; the expenditure incurred by the remaining agents was lower, more or less, than the corresponding sums in the budget for the whole financial year. The Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare made the greatest use of credits during the first half of the year (57 per cent.), the Ministry of Agriculture and State Domains the least (25 per cent.).

Expenditure from the budget for 1924 incurred during January and February, as we noted in the beginning of this article, amounted to 79,049,493 zlotys. Of this amount, 73,878,228 zlotys come under the head of administration, 171,265 zlotys under undertakings and 5,000,000 under monopolies. Nearly half the above sum (39,024,547 zlotys) was expended by the Ministry of War; 12,266,069 zlotys by the Ministry of the Interior, 6,806,454 by the Ministry of Religion and Public Instruction, whereas the amounts expended by the remaining agents were much smaller.

The sums expended during the different months showed a tendency to increase. As compared with the sums estimated in the monthly budgets, the sums expended were on the whole lower than their estimates, with the exception of March and June, when the expenditure incurred was higher.

Below is given a statement of the expenditure incurred during the individual months of the first half-year:

	Personal.	Administra- tive.	Investment.	Special.	Total.
January February March	 73,517,827 67,680,539 65,355,773 67,204,891 65,315,377 66,835,267	38,740,200 48,467,957 28,575,206 50,152,472 45,499,487 41,209,129	12,069,050 15,962,621 38,590,958 25,645,502 31,521,961 25,968,748	23,025,031 26,152,565 32,141,623 35,914,017 35,648,821 47,567,203	148,419,043 163,865,804 165,768,429 180,448,976 179,459,233 183,075,487
Tot ₄ l	 405,909,674	252,614,451	149,758,840	200,449,260	1,021,036,972

This statement gives an insight into the nature of the expenditure. As can be seen, personal expenditure does not constitute the greater part, only 40 per cent. of the total expenditure, whereas expenditure, on investments constitutes a significant percentage—15 per cent.

The results of the financial administration for the first six months of 1925, as set forth in the above, give ample opportunity of judging the accuracy of the budget and afford also, once more, a convincing proof of the excellent system of the monthly budgets, by means of which the permanent equilibrium of the budget is effected.

5. CUSTOMS AND EXCISE.

As regards Import Duties, these are at present regulated by the Customs Tarin of June 26th, 1924, published in the "Journal of

Laws," No. 54/1924.

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Export Duties are at present levied on the strength of the "Regulation of Customs Tariffs Act" on July 31st, 1924 (Journal of Laws, No. 80, p. 777). The Minister of Finance, in conjunction with the Ministers of Trade and Industry and of Agriculture, is authorised to impose export duties and to regulate them by temporary orders so as to conform them with economic requirements.

Excise Duties were levied in 1925 on the following goods:

Goods.		Unit and description of goods.	1	Excise Duty.
Wines Sparkling wines		Grape wines Fruit wines Full beer	tle	20 per cent. of retail price. 2 20 zlotys. 1 10 , 6-6.60 zlotys.
Beer		Strong beer > per 100 li	tres	50 per cent, more than on.
Sugar Yeast		Per 100 kgs. Polish Imported		35 zlotys. / i zloty.] i 30 zl.
Mineral oil (per 100 k	g.)	Consistency up to 750° 750°–865° 865°–885° over 885°		15-80 ,, 10-50 ,, 1-80 ,,
Matches	4.	Per box of 60 matches per 2 booklets of		
Vinegar acid	4. 1	matches each Per 1 kg. of dry acid	1.	0.01 ,,

In addition to these excise duties (i.e., indirect taxes) certain license duties are also levied. The latter include licenses for the manufacture of alcoholic beverages, yeast, matches, sugar, cigarette papers and also for the sale of spirits.

The following duties were in force in 1924, but were subsequently

abolished :-

Coal tax—now abolished;

Tax on alcohol—this amounted to 2·20-2·30 zlotys per litre of pure alcohol (100°); now substituted by the spirit monopoly. The government profits consist of: (1) a duty of 3·30 zlotys per litre of pure alcohol (an additional 0·80 zlotys per litre is charged for the benefit of local government authorities) and (2) the nett profits on the sale of alcohol.

Salt tax—was levied only in the former German provinces (7 zlotys per 100 kg.); now abolished and substituted by a general salt monopoly in force throughout the Republic.

In addition to the monopolies mentioned here, viz., the spirit and salt monopolies, the following are also in force:—Monopoly for the sale of saccharine, for the manufacture of tobacco, and the State lottery.

6. LOCAL GOVERNMENT TAXATION IN POLAND.

According to provisional estimates the amount of local taxes raised in Poland (exclusive of the County of Silesia) per head of population is 8 zlotys.

The total revenue from taxation of all local governments in Poland (exclusive of Silesia) amounted approximately to 213.5 million zlotys; out of this about 95.5 million was raised by rural councils, and about 118 million by municipalities. The main sources of local revenue consist of special local duties added to various direct State taxes, such as the land, house and industrial taxes, the tax on foodstuffs, a surcharge of 0.80 zlotys on each litre of alcohol (being in addition to the Government tax of 3.30 zlotys per litre), additions to stamp duties in connection with the transfer of real property, death duties, and also the quotum due to local governments from the proceeds of the State income tax.

Apart from these additions to State taxes, the local government authorities are empowered to levy autonomous taxes on coal, oil or salt mines, if such are found within their jurisdiction (excepting salt pits under Government control); the most important autonomous taxes in rural districts are the road tax and a special tax of I zloty per acre imposed by an Act of July 31st, 1924, in order to meet the deficits of local administration. The latter tax has not been sufficiently exploited in 1924.

In towns, the chief autonomous levies are the taxes on dwellings and on entertainments.

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IV. NATIONAL DEBTS OF POLAND.

1. Total Indebtedness.

The following table shows that among the countries of Europe Poland's indebtedness is the smallest.*

Position of Public Debts in various Countries.

	Date of Tabulation of Debt.	Amount of debt in millions of the currency of the respective countries.	Amount of debt in millions of Polish zlotys.	Amount of debt per head of popu- lation in zlotys
England (without Ireland) Italy France United States of America Holland Switzerland (to the Confedera-	Mar. 31, 1924 May 31, 1924 Dec. 31, 1923 Aug. 31, 1924 Jan. 1, 1923	£7,782 194,005 lire. 411,534 Fr. frs. 21,245 dollars 3,371 florins	174,316 42,680 115,229 110,574 70,791	4,042 1,094 2,954 1,019 1,022
tion and the Railways) Belgium Poland (with the American Loan amounting to 35 million dollars)	Dec. 31, 1923 Sept. 30, 1924 Mar. 1, 1925	4,699 Swiss frs. 40,684 Belg. frs.	4,699 10,577	1,174

The Rate of Exchange is that on the Warsaw Exchange on December 31, 1924.

fine above table shows all public debts, i.e. the total internal and external indebtedness for each country.

* Extracted from : "Rapport sur le Budget de Belgique" in "Bulletin de Statistique et de Législation comparée." Paris, 1924.

2. Internal Debts.

The years of inflation did not favour the accumulation of savings in the form of buying State Loans.

Everybody who has invested money in State securities must have lost considerably through the depreciation of the mark and, unfortunately, the legislation as regards the conversion of State Loans in marks did not take sufficient account of the importance of protecting as much as possible the interests of the investors.

Since the introduction of the new currency, the progress of investments made in State securities has been very slow. Quite recently this progress has been still more handicapped by the economic crisis and the abnormally high rate of interest in private discount bills.

The following table shows that the internal debt was :-

On January 1, 1924.—84,951,170 zlotys.

On January 1, 1925.—146,133,703 zlotys.

THE DEBTS OF POLAND.

3. Internal Indebtedness on January 1, 1924.

1. 5 per cent. 1918	Certificates		P.m.	128,264,058	ZI.	5,130,562.32*
2. 5 per cent. long-	term Liberty Lo	an	**	3,225,497,900	12	32,254,979 00°
3. 5 per cent. short	-term Liberty L	oan	111	1,370,340,900	3.7	13,703,409.00
4. 4 per cent. Prem	nium Loan		112	4,944,485,000	+4	9,888,970.00*
5. 8 per cent. Gold	Loan in Polish	marks	in	11,661,660,000†	+0	
8 per cent. Gold	Loan in zlotys		Z1.	11,661,660		11,195,193.60§
6. 6 per cent. Treas	ury Bonds, Serie	s I and II	19	13,817,950	81	12,691,787.08
7. 5 per cent. Trea	asury Bonds, Ser	ries I, II,	P.m.	155,285,436,000	,,	86,269 · 69
				Total	Z1.	84,951,170.69

^{*} Reckoned at the rate fixed by a decree of the President of the Republic on March 17, 1924 (" Journal of Laws," No. 27, paragraph 274, 1, 2, and 3).

THE FINANCES OF POLAND, 1923-1925.

Report of GEORGE ZDZIECHOWSKI, Chairman of Parliamentary Budget Committee of the Seym of the Republic of Poland. Published by order of the Polish Government. (1925).

3s. 6d.

REPORT ON FINANCIAL CONDITIONS IN POLAND. Presented to the Prime Minister of Poland by The Rt. Hon. E. HILTON YOUNG, 1924.

2s. 6d.

Sold by: POLISH INDUSTRIES & PEASANT ART, 24. Great Russell Street, London, W.C.I.

[†] The marks issue has not yet been calculated in zlotys.

² A "Polish zloty" in the 8 per cent. Gold Loan equals the average exchange rate of 1 Swiss franc and 0·195 dollar. The exchange rate is reckoned as 1 Polish zloty of the loan = 0·96 zloty (gold franc).

^{§ &}quot; Zloty" in the 5 per cent. Treasury Bonds equals a Swiss franc, the rate of exchange being 1 bond zloty = 0.9185 zlotys (gold franc).

[¶] Reckoned at 1,800,000 Polish marks = 1 zloty.

4. Internal Debts on January 1st, 1925. Internal Interest-bearing Loans.

1. 1918 5 per cent. State Loan Currencies Tre,554,368 Fol. mks. 4,422,175 10 1925. 2. 5 per cent. State Loan 1,133,50,00 1,133,50,70 1,133,70	Interest.	Coupons of these bonds are paid for at the rate of 121—87,800,000 Pol. mks. 758,344.5 zl. coup, 1/1V & 1/X 4,769,750 zl. %pre-605,475 mum 647,500	8,285,481 5
Debt in Polish Marks and Golden Currencies. 11.75,554,368 Pol. mks. 11.43,590,000 11.43,590,000 11.43,590,000 11.44,690,000 11.44,490,000 11.44,490,000 11.44,900,000 11.44,000	Funded Debt in 1925.	94,780:5 zl.	125.002.551
I I I A C D 4	In Zlotys.	4,422,175 26,310,156 11,235,570 (6,455,720 9,476,030 9,182,846 24,257,440 24,257,440 24,237,440 24,237,440 24,237,440 24,237,440 24,237,440	140,133,703.0
I	Debt in Polish Marks and Golden Currencies.	2,631,015,600	1
1 4004 N 0 0000 0 0 M = NOV	Loan.	H. A. D. C.	

The Conversion Loan increased in January by 6,057,202, thus raising the interest by 302,860, which is included in the amount of 1,504,512. † Amount in March, 1925.

THE DEBTS OF POLAND.

Internal Loans (January 1, 1925).

LONG-TERM LOANS.	SHORT-TERM LOANS.
Mark loans to be converted 48,452,363 5° 2. 8 per cent. gold loan (zloty issue) 9,478,050 0 3. 10 per cent. railway loan . 24,257,195 0 5 per cent. conversion loan . 24,474,893 0	1. Treasury bonds mark issue 2,648 3 2. Treasury bonds zloty issue 15,000,000 0 3. 5 per cent. dollar loan . 12,121,207 8 4. Treasury and taxation bonds . 12,347,346 0
Zlotys 106,662,501.5	Zlotys 39,471,202 · I

Total zlotys 146,133,703.6

* This is the sum which should have been given in for conversion if all the obligations in Polish marks had been presented for conversion within the period fixed. Obligations of the mark issue, however, presented only totalled 6,057,202 zlotys. The remaining mark obligations not presented for conversion within the period provided for in the Orders of Marca, 17 1924 (" Journal of the Polish Republic," No. 27, par. 27,4) and December 28, 1924 (" Journal of Laws," No. 114, par 1021), i.e., up to January 31, 1925, represent a total of 6,209,861,098 Polish marks. In accordance with par. 6 of the Order of March 17, 1924, these obligations are no longer cligible for cash payment at the rate of 1,800,000 marks for one zloty, which imposes a single charge on the Treasury amounting in all to 3,455 zlotys. In view of this fact the sum of 48,452,363 possesses an exclusively theoretical character.

5. INTERNAL INDEBTEDNESS OF THE POLISH STATE ON JULY 1, 1925.

Description of Debt.	Marks and other Currence	Zlotys.	
1918 5 per cent. State Loan	 89,990,892	mks.	3,599,635
1920 5 per cent. long term Liberty Loan	 624,091,400	71	6,240,914
1920 5 per cent. short term Liberty Loan	 269,350,000	22	2,693,500
1920 4 per cent. Premium State Loan	 2,330,345,000	1)	4,660,690
1922 8 per cent. State Gold Loan	 6,619,770,000 9,480,080 z	lotys	9,546,277
ro per cent. Railway Loan s per cent. Conversion Loan :	 47,285,800	22	47,285,800
Obligations	 54,866,400	12	56,414,091
Premium Dollar Loan		ollrs	13,835,313
per cent. Treasury Bonds, Series I	 11,928,000 P	nks.	
per cent. Treasury Bonds, Series II	 24,400,000		
per cent. Treasury Bonds, Series III.	 681,480,000	72	244,659
5 per cent. Treasury Bonds, Series IV 6 per cent. Gold Treasury Bonds, Series A.	 3,686,050,000	11	***
C. D	 276,090 2	lotys	276,090
6 per cent. Gold Treasury Bonds, Series IIA	 1,853,980	22	1,853,980
B per cent. Treasury Bonds	 21,782,850		21,782,850
Taxation Bonds	 39,530 gc	old frs.	39,530
Total			168,231,118

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THE DEBTS OF POLAND.

Debt (free Bank of Polar	of interest)		ted v		
Table of Inter	est-bearing D	ebts:			
	14,337,405 47,325,330 2,670,910 89,807,091	gold fi	ks. rancs		Zlotys. 168,231,118-77
Debts free	of interest				50,000,000 00
	Total			Zlotys	218,231,118.77

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6. EXTERNAL DEBTS.

As will be seen from the following table, Poland's external debts when compared with the debts of other European Countries are quite insignificant.

External Debts of Poland.

st, 1925.	Position,	5 + 908,313 4 + 87,880,em	7 + 88,788,313	0 + 97,527,263 5 + 20,50,44 2 - 334,838 2 - 334,838 7 + 3,73,692 3 + 3,72,180 1 - 2,31,349 1	691,698,091+	5,413,308 + 5,413,308 - 13,350	8 - 5,375,060
POSITION ON JANUARY 1ST, 1925.	Zlotys.	100,726,395 1,750,322 87,880,000	190,356,717	024,040,800 121,508,745 269,779,442 16,47+,500 16,472,300 10,472,002 398,691 22,56,847 22,56,847	1,381,025,531	26,418,558 843,750 656,960	27,918,268
Position	Foreign Currency.	19,445,250 dollars 337,900 dollars 400,000,000 liras	1	178,560,000 dollars 64,953,105/13/11 959,215,793 36 trans 75,000,000 liras 20,327,591 98 trowns (5,356,21 6,537,144.25 crowns 434,160,1631.68 formis 10,601,631.68 formis 93,812.75 francs	1	5,100,107°80 dollars 3,000,000 francs 2,990,258 liras	
	Zlotys.	1,750,322	101,568,404	827,413,537 101,422,512 231,2422,517 16,812,338 12,544,615 2,405 5,405 2,405 2,405 327,842 24,864 24	1,220,156,365	11,811,866 792,152 670,310	33,291,328
Position on January 151, 1924.	ency.	19,269,900 dollars 337,90c dollars	J	159,732,342.99 dollars 44,530,815 gB trans 75,000,000 liras 75,000,000 liras 16,22,637 47 crowns 3,910,580 crowns 3,910,580 crowns 138,849 tl crowns 173,500 to florins	1	6,145,147 80 dollars 3,000,000 francs 2,990,258 liras	
Position on J	Foreign Currency.	A.—Public Issue Louns. 6 per cent. 1920 gold dellars loan 8 per cent. Johlar foan 7 per cent. Joan in Italian Jiras	Total A	B.—Indebtainess to Foreign States. United States of America Great Britain France Italy Norway Norway Sweden Deminark Holland Switzerland	Total B	C.—Indebtelless to Prwete Institutions. United States of America France	Total C

Statement of Total Indebtedness.

Position.	+ 88,788,313 + 160,869,166 - 5,375,060	4 244,282,419
On January 1st, 1925.	7101ys. 190,3\$6,717 1,381,025,531 27,919,268	1,599,301,516
On January 1st, 1924.	Zlotys. 101,588,404 1,220,156,365 33,294,328	1,355,019,097
nuary	243	12
On Ja	111	:
	100	**
	::::	:
	Group A Group B Group C	A, B, C

Position of Relief Debts on January 1st, 1925.

Number of Bonds.	19-56 57-84 85-112 113-140 141-168 169-196
Amount due for Amortization.	£4,770,000 20,340,000 COWNS (£1,500 520,000 Growns 90,000 Growns 280,000 Grancs 280,000 Grancs 420,000 Grancs
Odd amounts paid on January 1st.	£8.69211/6 7,533.88 crowns 466/21/1 490 florins 5,000 crowns 3,812.75 francs 9,456-33 francs 4,540.58 crowns
l'otal sum.	44,778,692/11/6 20,327,593-88 crowns 41,55/21/1 520,400 florins 485,000 crowns 93,812-75 francs 280,467-33 francs 434,540-53 francs
	:::::::
	:::::::
tor.	:::::::
Creditor	:::::::
	England Norway Hoʻland Sweden Sweden Switzerland France Denmark

Position of Interest on Relief Debts.

Payable on July 1, 1926.	052'6113'	Sadioan crowiis	£37/10	13,000 Horins	12,000 crowns	2,250 francs	7,000 francs	Id,7 fa crawns
Payable on January 1, 1926. Payable on July 1, 1926.	£119,250	Sod, odo crowns	£37/10	13,000 กิดเกิด	12,000 CrOWINS	2,250 francs	7,000 france	10,250 crowiis
Payable on July 1, 1925.	£119,250	Sob, ood crowns	637/10	13,000 florins	I2,000 Crowns	2,250 francs	2,000 francs	10,750 crowns
	:	77	:	:		:	:	:
	:	:	:		:			:
1.	:							:
Creditor.	:				:			:
	England	Norway	11	Holland	Sweden	Switzerland	France	Denmark

NOTE.—Payment of the capital of the relief debts will begin on July 1, 1926. In the Budget estimates for 1925 provision is made for the payment of halk-yearly instalments of interest due on July 1, 1925; the interest due on January 1, 1926, will be included in the Budget for 1926.

7. Payment of Capital and Interest of External Debts estimated for 1925.

	zlotys.	5,072,288 147,027 2,64,374 2,64,374 3,3372,031 4,021,04 4,021,04 1,021,04 1,031,04 1,031,04 1,031,04 1,04 1,04 1,04 1,04 1,04 1,04 1,04	5 42,409,43x
TEREST ON	In zlotys.	2,667,624 2,667,624 3,620 35,220 35,220 35,220 2,035 2	22,461,426
PAYMENT OF INTEREST ON FOREIGN DEUTS.	In the currency of the relevant country.	28,383 · 6 dollars 7,000 francs† £179,250 · 00 4,320 · 00 firas† 568,000 crowns† 573 108,7 174,500 crowns† 10,750 crowns† 10,750 crowns† 11,500,000 dollars* 32,200,000 liras*	ı
PITAL OF	In zlotys.	5,072,288 2,644,218 (65,008 1,645,008 1,645,008 1,456 1,396 2,311,866 3,611,2008	19,948,005
PAYMENT OF CAPITAL OF FOREIGN DEDTS.	In the currency of the relevant country.	979,206 26 dollars 9,456 23 francs 10,102,400 francs 17,205 135, 6d. 7,205,003,503 for forms 7,593,86 crowns 7,593,86 crowns 5,000 crowns 4,540 58 crowns 4,540 58 crowns 9,800,000 firas* 16,000,000 liras*	1
		:::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	:
			i
	CREDITOR.	United States of America Service Motor Truck Co. France (Relief Debt) France Italy. Holland (Relief Fund) Holland (Relief Fund) Norway Swedon Dommetr Switzerland	Total

Estimated interest on the relief debts calculated at the rate of the half-yearly instalment due on July 1, 1925.
 Interest on the Swedish relief debt calculated at 5 per cent. of 6,100,000 crowns.

8. EXTERNAL INDEBTEDNESS OF THE POLISH STATE ON JULY 1, 1925.

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		Zlotys.
A. Public Issue Loans:		354,220,232
6 per cent. Dollar Loan	19,574,500 dollars	101,395,910
8 per cent. Dollar Loan		
(Service Motor Truck		
Čo.)	337,900 dollars	1,750,322
7 per cent. Italian Lira	1*	
Loan	400,000,000 liras	73,400,000
1925 8 per cent. Dollar		6-, 000
Loan	34,300,000 dollars	177,674,000
B. Indebtedness to Foreign S	tates:	1,332,345,231
United States of		
America	178,060,000 dollars	922,350,800
Great Britain	£4,922,036.18.5	124,675,195
France	954,155,137 07 frs.	225,180,612
Italy	75,000,000 liras	13,762,500
Norway	20,320,000 crs.	18,689,726
	£1,500	37,995
Sweden	6,532,144.25 crs.	9,109,075
Denmark	430,000 crs.	437,679
Netherlands	8,617,508.35 fl.	18,010,592
Switzerland	90,000 frs.	91,057
C. Indebtedness to Private In	istitutions in:	27,610,468
United States of		
America	5,087,597.80 dollars	26,610,468
France	3,000,000 frs.	708,000
Italy	2,990,258 liras	548,712
and the same	TABLE.	773
		Zlotys.
Total A		354,220,232
Total B		1,332,345,231
Total C		27,610,468
Grand Total		1,714,175,931

9. THE FUNDING OF THE DEBTS.

In 1924 the Polish Government arranged a settlement as regards the funding of the American Debt, the British Debt, and the so-called Relief Debts. By means of the Washington Agreement of November 14, 1924, and the London Agreement of December 10, 1924, the repayment of practically 70 per cent. of the Polish external debts was spread over a considerable period of time on the terms set out below.

The United States of America.

Arrangements have been made to refund the debt to the United States of America by means of a progressive scale of instalments in the course of sixty-two years; and the date of funding was fixed retrospectively for December 15, 1922. The interest arrears at the rate of 4½ per cent., amounting to 18,898,053 60 dollars, were added to the capital, which is fixed at 159,666,972 39 dollars. The yearly instalments of the sinking fund are to be paid on December 15 of each year; the first instalment amounts to 560,000 dollars, the last one, payable in 1984, to 9,000,000 dollars; and the dates of paying the interest are fixed for June 15 and December 15.

A moratorium is granted to Poland in respect of the repayment of the capital and payment of the current interest, until 1930. On account of some 42 million dollars due at that date, according to the funding settlement, Poland is to pay an advance of 10 million dollars in the following instalments, on June 15 and December 15 of each year :-

1925	June 15, December	15,	500,000		illars)	 	18	1,000,000	dollars
1926						 		1,500,000	22
1927	+ 1			1.1		 		2,000,000	11
1928	+ 1		0.0			 		2,500,000	21
1929		0.0				 		3,000,000	71

It has been arranged, apart from the general settlement, that the sum of 70,833 74 dollars, realized by the United States Grain Corporation from the Insurance Companies, will be deducted from the 1925 instalment, which in this case will amount only to 929,166.26 dollars.

The instalments due after 1929 cannot be postponed for more than two years.

The yearly rate of interest is 3 per cent. from December 15, 1922, till December 15, 1932, and 3½ per cent. from December 15, 1932, onward.

The ratification of the Funding Settlement was voted by the Seym on January 25.

Relief Credits.

The funding of Relief Debts was arranged at a Conference in London, in which the representatives of Great Britain, Norway, Holland, Sweden, Denmark, France, and Switzerland took part. The final draft of the suggested agreement was presented to the Polish Delegation on December 10, 1924; and it was approved in writing by the President of the International Committee of the Relief Credits on December 11, 1924. The main principles of the funding agreement are:

(1) The amounts of the debt owed to each State, including capitalised interest at the yearly rate of 6 per cent, up to January I, 1925, are fixed as follows

	at the jear, that or o per control of the jear of the									
Great Britain						117,316,902				
Norway				Crowns 20,327,593 - 811,	8.0.	16,028,307	24			
Norway				£1,565 28. 1d.,	14.	38,423	-			
Holland				Florins 520,490,	i.e.	1,094,851	10			
Sweden				Crowns 485,000,	i.e.	679,000	10			
Denmark				Crowns 434,540 58,	Lt.	398,691	Dia.			
France				Francs 289,456 23,	\$.C.	81,410	10			
Switzerland			* *	Francs 93,812.75	150	94,774	0.0			

Sum total 135,732,358 2lotys.

THE FUNDING OF THE DEBTS.

The Relief Debt owed to Sweden, amounting to 6,052,144.25 crowns, i.e., 8,473,002 zlotys, which falls due on January 1, 1930, will be prolonged for another ten years on terms identical with the original agreement; and a suggestion similar to that presented to Poland by the representatives of the Creditor States on December 10, 1924, will be presented to the Swedish Government by the Polish Government before the date on which the bonds in question are to be redeemed.

- (2) The Debt as fixed above is to be refunded on the following terms:
- (a) On January 1, 1925, such amounts must be paid as would leave the remaining debts due to each State as specified below in round figures:

Great Britain	 	 	 £8,692 118. 6d.
Norway	 	 	 7,593.88 crowns
Norway	 	 	 £65 25. 1d.
Holland	 	 	 490 florins
Sweden	 	 	 5,000 crowns
Denmark	 	 	 4,540 · 58 crowns
France	 	 	 9,456.23 francs
Switzerland	 	 	 3,812.75 francs

- (b) The round figures thus obtained are subject to amortisation from July 1, 1926 by 28 half-yearly progressive instalments in accord with the plan of funding contained in the suggestion of December 10, 1924, which is to be announced by the Minister of Finance in a special Decree.
- (c) The interest must be paid in half-yearly instalments due on July 1 and January 1, at the rate of 5 per cent.
- (3) A regular payment of interest and capital instalments is guaranteed as a first charge on the whole property and revenue of the Republic.
- (4) The capital and the interest on the Relief Debts shall be free from any taxes stamps, charges and duties, whether already operative in Poland, or those to be introduced in the future.
- (5) Poland undertakes to treat her obligations towards the Creditor State represented on the International Relief Credits Committee as a collective obligation this means that each payment on account of the capital and interest of the Relie Debts is to be divided in proportion to the individual debt to each State, in accordith the plan contained in the suggestion of December 10, 1924.
- (6) The Relief Bonds included in the suggestion of December 10, 1924, which fal due on January 1, 1925, will be replaced by new bonds defined in the agreement an bearing various dates from July 1, 1926, to January 1, 1940.

Great Britain.

The debt owed to Great Britain, apart from the Relief Debt, and fixed at £174,413 23.54 is made up of the expenses of the English Government in connection with the repatriatio of Polish Nationals both military and civilian, and also with the transport of the Polis military organizations from Siberia. The advances made to the Polish National Committee in Paris were added to the Relief Debt. The sum of £138,353 13.44, include in the above debt, has been recognised by the British Government as an Inter-Allie Debt. The Funding of the British Debt has been agreed upon by an interchange dorrespondence between the Polish Delegation and the representatives of the Treasury of November 14, December 8 and 10, 1924. The particular points of the Funding Agreement are as follows:

- (1) The advances made to the Polish National Committee in Paris, amounting together with capitalised arrears of interest till January 1, 1925, to 696,591 45.66 are to be refunded in accord with rules drafted for the Relief Debts. The Polis Government undertakes to hand over to the British Government Relief Bonds for the said amount.
- (2) The sum of £4,095, representing the transport expenses of the Polish refuget on the British ship War Pointer from Constantinople to Marseilles, is cancelled b the British Government.

THE FUNDING OF THE DEBTS.

- (3) The sum of £174,413 2s. 5d., representing the expenses of repatriation of Polish military and civilian nationals, and including the transport expenses of Polish military organisations in Siberia amounting to £138,353 1s. 3d., is to be repaid during ten years with the interest of 5 per cent. and twenty half-yearly instalments of £11,188 2s. od. each. To cover this debt the Polish Government will hand over to the British Government twenty promissory notes, the form of which is to be settled by agreement.
- (4) The capital and the interest of the funded debt shall be free from any taxes, stamps, and charges now existing in Poland or to be introduced in future by the Polish Government or any other political or fiscal authority within the frontiers of the Polish State.
- (5) The British Government declares that the said amount of £38,353 15. 34. represents a share of the Polish Republic in the Inter-Allied expenses in Siberia.
- (6) The amount of £174,413 2s. 5d. is fixed as the final claim of Great Britain in respect of the repatriation of Polish military and civilian nationals, and the British Government undertakes to make no further claims in this respect in future.

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The "August Schmelzer" Cotton Manufacturing Joint Stock Company in Myszków.

Established in 1883. Owns 36,000 spindles.

The Company has the largest spinning-mills in Poland for white, unbleached and dyed vigogne yarn, on reels and in hanks, for the manufacture of woven, knitted, hosiery and fancy goods, as also for the manufacture of carpets and kilims.

All communications to be addressed to the head offices of the August Schmelzer Joint Stock Company at Warsaw, Zelazna Brama No. 1.

Telegraphic Address: "Wigonja," Warsaw.

V.—THE TREASURY LAW FOR 1925.

Article I.

The enclosed budget of administration for 1925 estimates the amount of ordinary expenditure at 1,658,205,313 zlotys; the amount of extraordinary expenditure at 361,859,376 zlotys, and the total sum of State administration expenditure for 1925 to the amount of 2,020,064,689 zlotys.

Article 2.

The financial and economic plans attached to the budget for 1925, estimate:

(a) For State undertakings: ordinary expenditure amounting to 996,808,876 zlotys, to cover which the ordinary revenue of the undertakings of 1,083,914,648 zlotys, is to be used, and the extraordinary expenditure of 111,519,844 zlotys;

(b) For State monopolies: ordinary expenditure of 307,907,844 zlotys, to cover which the ordinary revenue of Monopolies of 705,519,344 is to be used, and extraordinary

expenditure of 44,795,000 zlotys.

Article 3.

As cover of the expenditure for administration fixed in Article 1, of the extraordinary expenditure of State undertakings and monopolies, fixed in Article 2, (a) and (b) and the deficits of some of the State undertakings amounting to: 393,817 zlotys, thus of a total sum of 2,176,772,968 zlotys, which sum ought to be reduced for the sake of a balanced budget by means of economies effected through fixing the credits from month to month as ruled in Article 4—will serve as estimated in the budget for 1925: ordinary revenue of administration of: 1,115,339,917 zlotys, extraordinary revenue of administration of: 501,945,865 zlotys, extraordinary revenue of State undertakings of: 53,000,000 zlotys, net profits of State undertakings and monopolies of: 485,111,089 zlotys, thus a total sum of 2,155,390,869 zlotys.

Article 4.

All State expenditure can be executed only for the purposes named in the columns of State budget and within the limits of credits fixed in these columns, and all credits estimated in the budget for 1925 can be opened only with the consent of the Minister of Finance by way of fixing the limits of the credits from month to month. The Minister of Finance has the right to open the credits, estimated in paragraphs, in items, and in this case to transfer, if need be, the credits from one item to another, within the paragraph. The rule of this Article does not concern Parts 2 and 3 of the budget.

Article 5.

The opening of credits outside the budget can take place only upon the advice of the Minister of Finance and by way of legislation, under the condition that new and sufficient sources to cover these credits will be found.

Article 6.

In case of need, the Ministry of Finance has right, on the advice of a proper central authority:

(1) To transfer the credits between paragraphs comprising the departmental and administrative expenditure within every section of a particular Part of the budget of administration respectively within the limits of every section of the economic and financial plans of State undertakings and monopolies;

(2) To increase the ordinary expenditure as estimated in economic and financial plans of Undertakings and Monopoles of saccharine, salt, and State lottery, with the exception of administrative and personal expenditure estimated in the form of permanent posts, and on condition that it would not cause a reduction in net profits, or an increase of the

deficit of a given State undertaking or monopoly;

(3) The stipulations under (2) of this Article apply as well to the expenditure estimated in the financial and economic plans of the tobacco and alcohol monopoly with this alteration, that the Minister of Finance has the right to increase also the extraordinary expenditure of the tobacco monopoly up to one million zlotys, provided this would not reduce net profits, and also to increase personal expenditure of the tobacco and spirits

THE TREASURY LAW FOR 1925.

monopolies to the limits not exceeding 10 per cent. of the sums estimated as personal expenditure in economic and financial plans of these Monopolies. The powers granted to the Minister of Finance under (1) of this Article are granted as regards Part 2 of the budget for 1925, to the Speakers of the Seym and the Senate with this alteration that the Speakers of the Seym and the Senate with this preakers of the Seym and the Senate have right to transfer credits from paragraphs and into paragraphs, comprising personal expenditure. The powers granted to the Minister of Finance under (1) of this Article, are granted with regard to part 3 of the budget to the President of the Supreme Chamber of Control.

Article 7.

The credits estimated in the enclosed budget are valid until December 31, 1925. After that date they can be used during a period not exceeding one month on terms to be fixed by the Minister of Finance.

Article 8.

All State expenditure effected on the basis of the law of December 19, 1924, with regard to provisional budget for the period from January 7, to February 28,7925 [Journal of Laws No. 114, p. 1013], and of the law 3, of March 1925, with regard to provisional budget for the period from March 1 to April 30, 1925, (Journal of Laws, No. 23, p. 159) has to be put on record in appropriate columns of the enclosed budget.

Article 9.

The Minister of Finance is authorised to grant short-term loans on interest :

(r) To State banks with the reservation that the financial means of the bank ought make possible to refund at a moment's notice at least one half of the sums borrowed from the State Treasury;

(2) To local government authorities with a security on the revenue from their supplementary taxes collected by Treasury "Caisses."

The sald loans can be granted out of Treasury supplies in so far as these supplies exceed in a given month the sum of 60 million zlotys necessary for the indispensable State expendiin a given month the sum of so million zlotys necessary for the indispensable state expenditure, which sum being a reserve comprises too, the free-of interest State credit in Bank of Poland (Art. 52, d. of the Statute of Bank of Poland—the enclosure of the decree of the President of the Republic, of January 20, 1924, Journal of Laws, No. 8, p. 75].

Apart from the above resolutions, advances, free of interest, will be made out of the supplies of the "caisses" on account of the endowment as provided in Article 15 of the

law of October 9, 1923, on the endowment of State functionaries and Army. (D.U.R.P. No. 116, p. 924).

Article 10.

The revenue realised from the American Dollar Loan (the decree of March 3, 1925 Journal of Laws, No. 22, p. 159) and payments effected out of this revenue will be foun in a separate account in the Central Treasury "Caisse," apart from the budget.

Article II.

The Minister of Finance is authorised to sell by private agreement the premises at 12 Rue Marignan, in Paris, the seat of the Polish Embassy on terms most favourable to the State.

Article 12.

The present law comes into force on the day of publication with validity from January I, 1925. At the same time all laws quoted in Article 8 lose their validity and the validity of the law on the authorisation of the President of the Supreme Chamber of Control with regard to transfer of credits within the limits of the whole budget of State Control (paragraph 3, Art. 29, of the law of June 3, 1921, on State Control, Journal of Laws, No. 51, p. 314) is suspended for the duration of this law.

Article 13.

The execution of this law is entrusted to the Minister of Finance.

BANKING IN POLAND.

I. General Position of Polish Banks.

In Poland the development of banking was strictly dependent upon the currency of the country. The policy of inflation as carried out by the Government from the time the Polish State regained its independence to the end of 1923 made the creation of liquid capital exceedingly difficult. The continual depreciation of the mark currency compelled capitalists to convert their marks into a stable currency which led, comparatively speaking, to an annihilation of liquid capital on the Polish money market. The suddenness of this annihilation is shown by the deposits in the various banking institutions: On December 31, 1913 they amounted to 717 million zlotys, while on January 31, 1924 they were barely 21'5 million zlotys. In the same measure in which deposits diminished, all banking operations were limited. Loans in the form of discount and open credit amounted to 736 million zlotys on December 31, 1913 but on January 31, 1924 they barely reached 17 million zlotys.

1. Increase of Deposits.

The currency reform introduced by the Prime Minister, M. Grabski, in 1924 brought with it new conditions for economic reconstruction, and, in particular, of the money market which had been completely ruined by inflation. The increasing confidence of the public in the zloty on the one hand and on the other the high rate of interest caused by the inequality of supply and demand on the money market, encouraged capitalists to keep their savings liquid. As a consequence we may observe a steady increase of bank deposits throughout the whole of 1924, as indicated by the table given below comprising the deposits of the 43 banking institutions affiliated to the Union of Banks in Poland.

	Deposits.
(In	thousands of zlotys.)

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January 31, 1924		 21,554
February 29, 1924		 35,283
March 31, 1924		 48,785
April 30, 1924		 64,595

BANKING IN POLAND.

		1	Deposits.
	(In	thou	sands of zlotys.)
May 31, 1924			86,657
June 30, 1924			94,261
July 31, 1924			110,305
August 31, 1924			128,855
September 30, 1924			152,915
October 31, 1924			175,863
November 30, 1924			190,583
December 31, 1924			201,272
January 31, 1925			224,570
February 28, 1925			241,055
March 31, 1925			287.330

2. Growth of Credit Operations.

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In proportion as deposits increased, so also did the credit operations of the banks increase as shown by the following table:

Date.				Discount.	Open Credit.	Total (in thousands of zlotys).
January 31, 1924				3,456	13,669	17,125
February 29, 1924				6,865	22,101	28,966
March 31, 1924				24,899	30,841	55,740
April 30, 1924				41,494	42,186	83,680
May 31, 1924				54,317	57,796	112,113
June 30, 1924				66,211	61,257	127,468
July 31, 1924				87,586	76,558	164,144
August 31, 1924				108,303	77,282	188,585
September 30, 1924				117,797	97,502	215,266
October 31, 1924				134,263	110,393	244,656
November 30, 1024				143,504	118,476	262,060
December 31, 1924				144,002	121,934	266,736
January 31, 1925				158,692	133,962	291,654
February 28, 1925			4.4	176,872	138,536	315,408
March 31, 1925		64	100	198,483	177,309	375,792

The Bank of Poland is not included in these figures. If we complete this total of credits granted by private banks, adding those granted directly to industry by the Bank of Poland to the amount of 221 million zlotys, the aggregate total of credits utilised in the economic life of the country up to March 31, 1925 will reach 596,792,000 zlotys.

Polish Export and Foreign Credit.

This sum, however, is not sufficient to meet the needs of Polish production. According to the calculations of the Central Union of Polish Industry, Mining, Trade and Finances, the credits required in Poland amount to about 1,500 million vit zlotys. This being the state of affairs and since the home capital is not yet in a position to meet the economic needs of the country, the only recourse is to seek credit abroad. Large fields of activity are open to foreign capital in Poland, whether in the form of investments or as short term export credits.

To give an idea of the dimensions of Polish exports, we adduce below the most important items of the 1924 trade balance:

		In tho	usands of zlot	ys
Agricultural products			86,596	
Seeds			26,201	
Flax and Hemp			10,713	
Horned cattle and pigs			41,055	
Eggs			16,178	
Sugar			163,009	
Timber			109,638	
Wool and woollen yarn			99,172	
Woollen textures			19,319	
Cotton textures			60,809	
Petroleum, mineral	oils	and		
products thereof			75,082	
Coal and coke			264,883	
Iron and iron goods			57,527	
Zinc			66,687	

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The total exports of goods from Poland in 1924 represented 1,265,873 thousand zlotys.

If certain branches of industry were enabled to obtain cheap credit abroad, the exporting capacity of Poland would be

The chief obstacle which discourages foreign capital from financing Polish export is the lack of knowledge of local conditions and the fear of taking risks. These obstacles could be overcome by placing foreign capital through the medium of the more important banks, which have an accurate knowledge

of local conditions and could protect foreign capital from any eventual loss.

Farsighted Policy of the Banks.

greatly enhanced.

As we have already observed, banking operations are showing steady progress in Poland, which proves on the one hand the

BANKING IN POLAND.

llion vitality of the banks and on the other hand their far-sighted ome policy which enabled them to retain the confidence of the s of public. The following figures showing the liquid assets of the arge various banks testify to the caution they have shown in their ther operations:

Proportion of liquid assets (ready money, foreign currencies, discounted bills, accounts with other

Name of Institution.	ba	nks).	
Mortgage Bank Joint Stock Co.		72 per	cent.
Discount Bank of Warsaw			37
Bank of Commerce in Warsaw		65	
Bank of Galicia		92	44
Western Bank		91	48
Bank of the United Territories of Polar	nd		881
Bank of the Union of Workmen's Ass	0-	51	
ciations		54	
Polish Commercial Bank			41
Deliah Industrial D			**
		9	9.5

Thus the average liquid assets of the Polish banks is expressed by 67 per cent. while in foreign banks it is no more than 30-50 per cent. This policy of caution on the part of the Polish banks saved them from ruin in spite of the crises they experienced during the European war and later during the period of inflation. The stabilisation of currency effected in Poland by the notable reform of the Prime Minister Grabski, gives every reason to hope in a future favourable development of Polish credit conditions.

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II.- THE BANK OF POLAND.

The Bank of Poland was officially opened on April 28th, 1924, on which day the temporary Bank of Issue, the Polish State Loan Bank, ceased its activities.

The Bank of Poland was created by a decree of the President of the Republic, dated January 20th, 1924, and issued on the strength of the Treasury (Improvement and Financial Reforms Act) of January 11th, 1924, which granted to the Bank of Poland a special Charter. The main principles of the Charter are, on the whole, similar to those of the Austrian National Bank. The Bank of Poland is established as a private institution, subject to the control of the Government, who appoint the President of the Bank and approve the appointments of Directors.

The Bank of Poland is a limited liability company, with a capital of 100,000,000 zlotys, divided into one million shares of 100 zlotys each. The Bank enjoys the sole privilege of issuing bank notes which are legal tender throughout the territory of the Polish Republic. The privilege expires on December 31st, 1944, but may be extended with the approval of Parliament. Against the notes issued, the Bank of Poland is obliged to maintain a reserve either in gold (coins or ingots) or foreign currencies and balances with foreign banks. The free exchange of bank notes against gold is foreseen in principle, but is temporarily suspended. Credit operations of the Bank in favour of the Government are excluded with the exception of a credit of 50 million zlotys in exchange for the privilege of issuing bank notes, which credit cannot be overdrawn.

The subscriptions for the capital of the Bank of Poland were opened on January 25th, 1924 and closed on March 31st, 1924, and in spite of the stringency of money, the whole capital of 100,000,000 was subscribed by the public, so that the Government, which intended originally to participate in the capital of the Bank to the extent of 40 per cent., had to be content with 1 per cent. only. The Bank of Poland is therefore a purely private institution and its capital is exclusively Polish.

1. THE POLICY OF THE BANK OF POLAND.

2. Currency.

The most important object of the Bank of Poland, the maintenance of a stable currency, has not been defined in the constitution of the Bank. The articles of association expressly repeal the duty to exchange notes for gold, but do not contain any guarantees as regards the stabilisation of the zloty. Even general provisions, such as were contained in the statutes of the former Austro-Hungarian Bank, were omitted from the constitution of the Bank of Poland.

The omission does not, in any way, relieve the Bank of its responsibilities in this respect. It does, however, enable the Bank to form such a basis of stabilisation and to employ such means and methods, as the Governors may think

necessary for the time being.

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It is obvious that the Bank of Poland could not precede other European banks of issue in the introduction of the gold standard. It could only adopt as a measure of the value of the zloty a currency which is exchangeable into gold. The U.S.A. dollar was adopted as a basic exchange. The principle of the dollar standard had to be strictly defined; it was necessary to decide whether the rate of the dollar expressed in zlotys should be absolute, or an allowance should be made for certain fluctuations from the established par.

Amongst European currencies which are similarly based on a fluctuating par is the Czecho-Slovak crown, whose fluctuations for the last two years do not exceed 3 per cent., and these will probably be maintained even now, after the establishment of a new Bank of Issue. The draft articles of the Bank do not contain a fixed rate of exchange of the crown in relation to gold or to any currency. They contain but a general recommendation that the rate of the crown exchange should not exceed the limits maintained during the last two years, from 2 '90 to 3 '03 U.S.A. dollars per 100 crowns.

The Bank of Poland could not adopt such a principle, both for psychological and economic reasons. The violent fluctuations of the mark exchange during the period of inflation were still fresh in the mind of the public, and the introduction of an unsteady dollar exchange could not have inspired the public with the confidence it was to show, both in the practicability of the financial reforms and in their permanent character.

dollar exchange might be but insignificant and of no great economic consequence, an absolute stability was necessary in order to induce the public to throw into the market their stocks of foreign currencies which were subsequently, during the year 1924, bought up by the Bank of Issue as a reserve for the emissions of bank notes.

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During the first year of its existence the Bank was selling its dollars in the shape of remittances on New York at the rate of 5 18½ zlotys per dollar, i.e., at par. Since the Bank was in a position to cover all demands at this rate, all unofficial quotations lost their raison d'être. Thus, the international value of the Polish zloty was established and has been maintained. It must be added, that the fluctuations which were still noted in the prices of goods had no connection with the rate of exchange, but were due to general industrial conditions.

The maintenance of a stable zloty exchange was made possible by two important factors, viz., the steady and adequate flow of foreign currencies into the Bank, and the cautious policy of the Bank, which aimed at securing a high percentage

of cover for the issue of bank notes.

The supply of foreign currencies during the year 1924 was so abundant that it enabled the Bank not only to cover its current obligations in foreign monies, but also to increase its reserves which grew by 74°4 million zlotys during the period April 28th—December 31st, 1924. This increase further enabled the Bank to extend the issue of notes, whilst the cover in foreign currencies was maintained at the same high percentage. Whilst the constitution of the Bank provided for a minimum cover of 30 per cent., the actual percentage was considerably higher, varying from 50 to 70 per cent.

The necessity of maintaining such high reserves for the cover of note issues, and generally a very cautious currency policy, is warranted by both economic and psychological reasons. The Bank's report for the year 1924 contains the remark that "the period of inflation is still too recent and the confidence of the public in the new currency of too short duration to be deprived of its basis, i.e., of strong foundations for the zloty. During a period, when the new currency is liable to be attacked in the international and home markets, the strongest possible reserves must be maintained."

The very method by which the reforms were established in Poland has warranted such policy. The operation had to be performed in such a way as to put the restored organism r

of Polish finance on a firm and unvielding basis, and to prevent the recurrence of abnormal conditions. For this reason the note issues during the first period of the Bank's existence had to be covered by a high percentage of foreign currencies and bonds, and the Bank's authorities took full cognisance of the fact that these reserves might be diminished, when and as soon as the public confidence in the new currency was firmly established. It is true that other Banks of issue have adopted a different principle. Thus, the proposed constitution of the Bank of Czechoslovakia provides for a minimum cover of 20 per cent., but this must be gradually increased by at least I per cent. per annum. This principle is, however, but the logical consequence of the whole Czechoslovakian financial policy, which differs entirely from the Polish administration of finance. Poland had to reform her finances by what may be termed a surgical operation, whereas the Czechs have improved their monetary system by an organic evolution, and are therefore in a position to adopt the principle of gradual increase of their gold and currency reserves.

Apart from these reasons, the Bank had to take into consideration the important fact that its currency reserves were replenished not exclusively from normal economic sources, but, to a large extent, from non-recurring items, such as the Italian Loan, the sale of Russian jewels, and the American Loan in 1925, Furthermore, it had to be remembered that the trade policy of the Government was moulded with a view to contend against high prices at home by means of facilities for the importation of goods from abroad. Not until April 1925 had the Government decided to revise its policy and to restrict the imports in view of certain undesirable features appearing in connection with the adverse trade balance.

The task of the Bank in this respect is very difficult. The Bank is entrusted with the duty of maintaining the zloty exchange, but it has no control over factors which primarily affect this exchange. The only means whereby the Bank can influence the character of Polish foreign trade is its credit policy. This means was employed successfully: whenever an efflux of foreign curencies from the Bank took place, the demand was decreased artificially by restrictions of loans on the part of the Bank. On the other hand, the exporting industries were aided by increased and easy credits.

Twice already had the Bank resorted to this measure. In September 1924, all further loans had to be stopped owing

to a sudden efflux of currencies from the Bank. The normal situation was soon restored, and the temporary restrictions on loans abolished.

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The decrease in gold and currency reserves observed since the beginning of the current year was of a different nature, and the situation caused thereby was more serious. In consequence the Bank had to resort to far-reaching measures

restricting and limiting its credit.

As regards the other method of influencing the character of the trade balance, by supporting and encouraging exports, the Bank has already introduced a number of facilities for the industries concerned. Foreign remittances in settlement of exports are purchased by the Bank on very favourable terms. Thus, for instance, larger credits are granted to Polish exporters for the discount of foreign bills, than those afforded for the discount of Polish bills. The discount of foreign acceptances enjoys special facilities. The Bank's rate amounts to only 1-2 per cent. over and above the rate of the country in whose currency the acceptance is drawn. Thus, for instance, dollar bills accepted in America are discounted at 41 per cent., and similar bills accepted in European countries at 51 per cent. per annum. In addition, the Bank grants 3 to 6 months' loans on foreign acceptances at a privileged rate of interest. Thus, even 6 months' foreign acceptances may form security for loans granted by the Bank.

In view of these facilities a certain development can already be observed as regards credit transactions in connection with the export trade, as well as a greater supply of foreign accept-

ances.

As regards the more special question of the composition of the Bank's reserves, i.e., the respective strength of gold and foreign currency reserves, it must be remembered that the Bank is compelled to hold large stocks of U.S.A. dollars owing to the fact that the dollar has been adopted as a basic currency for the zloty. The purchases of gold in foreign markets could not, therefore, be of any great importance, since the constant demand for dollars forced the Bank to make reserves of this currency, in preference to any other security. In 1924 gold was purchased to the value of only 3'9 million zlotys. Further purchases of gold could only be made, when and as soon as the total reserves had increased very considerably.

The purchase of gold in Poland in exchange for the zloty bank notes is naturally of a different character. The strength. ening of the gold reserve by this means increases the Bank's capacity for issuing notes. In consequence, the Bank spares no efforts in order to make satisfactory purchases of gold in the home markets. All branches of the Bank throughout the country are authorised to purchase gold, paying I per cent. over the strict par rate for lots of the value of over 500 zlotys. Small quantities purchased by the Bank in this way. have mounted up to the considerable sum of 10.7 million zlotys during the last 8 months of 1924. The total gold reserve amounting to 70.3 million at the end of April, advanced to 103.3 million zlotys at the end of 1924 to 120.1 million at the end of June, 1925, and to 131.9 at the beginning of September 1925. The net reserve of foreign currencies at the end of April 1924 amounted to 118.9 million zlotys. After an advance until the end of that year, this has declined again to 119.8 million at the end of June 1925.

3. Credits and Loans.

At the time of the constitution of the Bank of Poland, Polish trade and industries were practically without any credit assistance from private banking institutions. Most banks prior to the war operated with the investments of their customers; these were withdrawn in consequence of the depreciation of the Mark and the complete cessation of savings and investments which was its natural result. The Banks' own capital was being hurriedly located in real property or in shares of industrial concerns. On January 31, 1924, the total of all balances held by Polish Banks federated in the Bankers' Union amounted to only 21.5 million zlotys. With the stabilisation and reform of the currency the capitaldestroying process was checked, and conditions favourable for saving and investment activities were established. It must be remembered, however, that the reconstruction of Capital cannot be achieved as rapidly as it can be destroyed by inflation. In consequence, in spite of the increase in savings and investments, the total balance held by all Polish Banks to the credit of their customers at the end of 1924 amounted to 190.5 million zlotys—a very small figure compared with pre-war standards. In addition, the greater part of this balance was held on Current Accounts, whereas the amount of Deposits was but 26.8 million zlotys. Under such

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circumstances it was, of course, impossible for private banks to meet even the most urgent requirements of trade and industries. It is therefore not surprising that as soon as the Bank of Poland was established with a Capital of 100 million zlotys, the trading community of the country looked forward to the Bank for the necessary credits to relieve the stringency of the money markets. The Bank realising the position attempted to satisfy all such requirements as were justified by urgent necessity and the economic position of the country. In fact, the amount of credits and loans granted increased considerably during the year, and the value of Notes in circulation amounting to 103 million zlotys on January 1, 1924, advanced to 675.8 million by the end of the year, and to 754.7 million on April 1, 1925. In spite of this, the difference between supply and demand has been still considerable, and the demand for Credits from the Bank of Poland has not abated for a moment.

The totals of credits granted by the Discount Department

were as follows (in million zlotys):-

					Cred	its granted
April 28, 1924 -	-	-	~	-	-	92'4
May 31, 1924 -	-	-	-	-	-	129.8
June 30, 1924 -		-	-	-	-	173.8
July 31, 1924 -	-	-	-	-	-	219'9
August 31, 1924	-	-	-	-	-	266.7
September 30, 1924	-	un.	-	-	-	281.3
October 31, 1924	~	-	-	-	-	285'9
November 30, 1924	-	-	-	•	-	291'4
December 31, 1924	-	-	-	-	-	315.6
January 31, 1925	-	-	-	-	1111	345.01
February 28, 1925	-	-	-	**	-	372.9

Thus, the amount of credits granted since the constitution of the Bank until March, 1925, has increased by 280.4 million zlotys.

Considered independently, the amount is not large. When, however, the conditions of the period prior to the reforms are taken into account, the progress made is considerable. It is true that the credits granted by the Bank were not always exhausted owing to the lack of adequate securities in the shape of Bills and acceptances, although the methods applied by the Bank in accepting securities were particularly lenient. Commerce, Industry, and, in the first place, Agriculture, are

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in need of long-term credits for investment purposes; it is obvious, however, that the Bank of Issue is not in a position to grant credits in this form.

The Bank also gave assistance to commercial and industrial concerns against Bonds and Securities bearing interest at a fixed rate and quoted on Polish Stock Exchanges in accordance with Article 63 of its Constitution. Even this form of credit cannot form a satisfactory substitute for long-term mortgage ioans, especially as the amount of such credit is strictly limited, since balances accruing from loans against securities cannot be employed as cover for Bank Note issues. The Balance Sheets of the Bank show a steady growth of these credits. Whereas on May 10, 1924, loans under this head did not even reach the sum of 1 million zlotys, the corresponding amounts for December 31, 1924, and February 28, 1925, were 21 7 and 24 5 million zlotys respectively.

The following Statement shows the proportion of Discount Credits granted to the various branches of Trade, Industry and Finance.

		Amount of Credit granted March 31, 1925.	Percentage of Total.
		(In ooo's zlotys.)	
1. Banking and Credit institutions	4.	162,313	42.3
2. Coal Industry	2.4	24.378	6 4
3. Oil industry	1.4	5,302	1.4
4. Mining industry		1,443	0-4
5. Mineral industry		3,864	1.0
6. Smelting industry	1.	24,700	6.5
7. Metal industry		6,356	1 7
8. Engineering and Electro-tech	nnical	735-	1
industry		9,548	2.5
9. Building industry		8.41	0.3
to. Textile industry		33,005	8.7
11. Wearing Apparel and fancy	goods	221002	0,
trades		1,243	0 3
12. Chemical Industry	-	16,810	4.4
13. Tannery trade		3,948	1.1
14. Paper industry	, .	4,134	1.1
15. Printing trade		1,565	0.4
16. Timber industry		3,368	0.0
17. Foodstuffs		4,086	1.1
18. Works of public utility	4.	352	0.1
19. Agriculture proper	- 11	16,953	
20. Special agricultural credits :		10,933	4.2
Plantations	4.	7,968	0.7
21. Sugar industry	4.	26,000	2.1
22. Distilleries		11,185	6 9
22 Co operative equiption		5,209	2.9
24. Commercial concerns.	1.		1.4
l control officering.		4,350	1.5
Total	10.0	378,861	100.00

Realising that the chief difficulty of Polish industries was the dearth of credits, the Bank spared no efforts to maintain the rate of interest at the lowest level possible under the circumstances. On the other hand, the great disproportion between the official Bank Rate and that of private Banks had to be taken into consideration, and the Rate could not, therefore, be as low as that of West European Banks of Issue. At the commencement of its activities the Discount Rate was 12 per cent., and the rate of interest on loans against Bonds and Stocks—16 per cent. On August 16, 1924, the Loan rate was reduced to 14 per cent., and on November 28, the Discount Rate was lowered to 10 per cent., and the Loan Rate to 12 per cent.

The Bank has also used its influence to counteract usury and to maintain the Private Bank Rate at the lowest possible level. Rediscount credits were granted to banking institutions on the express conditions that the latter will, under no circumstances, charge higher rates to their customers than double the official Bank Rate.

In view of these measures and also in view of the general improvement in the financial situation, a considerable reduction in the private rate of interests on loans took place. Prior to July 1st, 1924, the rate charged by private banks often amounted to 5-6 per cent. per month, and even more. Private moneylenders were lending money against securities at 10 to 15 per cent. per month. At present the maximum rate fixed by the Bank of Poland is seldom exceeded. Undoubtedly cases of usury still occur, but the rate charged by established private banks is not excessive under the circumstances.

The future influence of the Bank as regards Credit facilities will depend entirely on the state of its gold and foreign currency reserves, and in consequence, on the character of the Foreign Trade Balance. That is why the Bank extends special facilities to exporters, both as regards loans and discounts of foreign bills paid in settlement of their accounts. Thus, it is obvious that the future of the Bank's credit activities depends entirely on the success of the joint efforts of the Government and of the Bank.

4. First Balance Sheet of the Bank of Poland on May 10th, 1924.

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Assets.		Zlotys.	Zlotys.
1. Gold, at par 2. Foreign currencies and balances with foreign	ign banks.		70,374,462 42
according to their value in zlotys			207,169,244.61
3. Bills discounted	14 15		118,185,430.33
4. Loans against securities	put to be		928,986.80
5. Other assets			46,506,625.22
			443,164,749 · 38
Liabilities.			
1. Capital subscribed			100,000,000 00
2. Bank notes in circulation			111,116,880.00
3. Current accounts and call money: A. Current Account—			
(a) State "Caisses"		14,707,353 96	
(b) Private accounts B. Immediate obligations due:	H	52,454,238.47	
(a) Ministry of Finance, special account		131,904,532 14	
(b) Obligations in foreign currency as	count to		
value in zlotys	4.0	27,028,019.29	
(c) Other accounts		3,334,067-15	
4. Other liabilities			230,028,211 01
4. Other habilities	1.1	3.9	2,019,658-37
			443,164,749 38

Rate of Interest: 12 per cent. on the discount of bills of exchange; 16 per cent. on loans against securities.

Note.—The notes of the Polish State Loan Bank on May 10, 1924, amounted to 543,622,728,851,249 Polish marks. Gold deposits of the State Treasury with the bank of Poland on May 10, 1924, amounted to 15,156,837 67 gold marks.

LIABILITIES. 5. Final Balance Sheet of the Bank of Poland on December 31st, 1924.

ASSETS.

Zlotys. Gr.	100,283,057.03 14,963,807.44 1,1963,807.44 1,1963,807.71	751,250,101.52
Zlotys. Gr.	6,418,558-01 50,7110,45:34 201,381-47 2,899,78-55 4,89,1016-50 948,501 70 5,133,333-33 2,666,666-67 2,719,877-45 5,210-77	
	Subscribed capital Notes in circulation Call money: State current accounts Other current accounts Drafts Sundry Accounts Postorial Post Office Savings Bank Foreign currencies Pensons fund. Net print for distribution according to Article 73 of the Statutes: In per cent. of the reserve funds at 8 per cent. per annum on capital subscribed or 133 per cent. for eight months Superdividend State Treasury Superdividend State Treasury Superdividend Superdividend State Treasury Superdividend State Treasury	
Zlotys. Gr. Zlotys. Gr	29,045,551°27 27,543,698 25,954,833°22 20,77,500 20,77,500 20,937,333 70 1,189,045°13 4,189,856°89	751,250,101-52
Zlotys. Gr.	25,091,659-61 23,34,220-54 23,419,664-12 21,51300 23,161,010-85 23,677-15 1,388,706-41 388,706-41 1,502,050-27 1,502,050-30 1,502,050-30 1,502,050-30 1,502,050-30 1,502,050-30 1,502,050-30 1,502,050-30 1,502,050-30 1,502,050-30 1,502,050-30 1,502,050-30 1,502,050-30 1,502,050-30	
	Gold in bars and coin Foreign currencies and balances with foreign banks Balances with foreign banks Balances with foreign banks Polish silver and metal coin Bills discunned Guarantees against security. Guarantees against foreign Written off in the current year Real property Written off in the current year Real property Written off in the current year Written off in the current year Written of in the current year Written of in the current year Written of on the current year Written of in the current year Written of on the current year Written of on the current year Written of on the current year Written of the	

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THE POLICY OF THE BANK OF POLAND.

6. The Bank of Poland.

751,250,101.52

1751,250,101-521

Statement concerning changes of the principal items in particular decades.

De	cade.		Gold.	Foreign currency balances with foreign banks.	Obligations in foreign currency.	Circulation of Banknotes.
				1924. Mill	LIONS OF ZLOTYS.	
10. V			70.3	927. I	27.4	111.1
20. V				203.5	28.2	136-0
31. V			71.6	214 · 1	27.5	244.0
io. VI			72.3	223.4	31.6	256 9
20. VI.			82.8	224.4	31.2	267·I
3c. VI			83.3	256.0	59.8	334.4
to. VII			83.7	258.9	47.3	351.8
20. VII			92 7	250.6	40 0	
ar, VII			93 0	272 1	54.2	344'5
to. VIII			95.0	280.5	62.2	394.2
o. VIII			93 9	278.3	70 · 1	390 3 377·8
31. VIII			93 2	266.7	66 0	
IO. IX		4				430'2
20. IX		• •	99 4	256.4	27.3	419.4
30. IX			99.5	237'9	26 8	463 °C
10. X			99.9	233 6	18.8	460.3
20. X			100.0	240 5	22.6	451.4
			100.3	237.5	22.0	438.4
31. X			100.6	241.8	14.4	503.7
10. XI			101.3	245.4	14.3	473.8
20. XI			101 9	249.3	16.0	442 7
30, XI			102.8	247.0	17.5	497-6
to. XII			102.0	266·I	25.9	484°I
to. XII			103.1	260.6	17.8	480.4
31. XII			103 3	269.0	14-9	550.8
					1925.	
to. I	2.0		_	265.1	14.8	497.4
20. I			104-1	252.3	13.2	488.0
31. I			104.3	242.1	12.6	553.I
to. II			104.3	237.9	12.8	528.8
30. II			104 4	217.1	9.6	514.0
18. II			107.0	206.3	8-5	549.6
to. III			112.9	205.2	8.7	527.6
lo. III			113.1	243.5	7.9	517.3
ar. III	4.4		116.6	259.3	9.6	563·I
to. IV			116.6	256.6	12.4	561.6
je. IV			117'4	216.1	10.4	567.1
11. V			118.6	172.5	6.0	557.0
o. VI			120 · I	119.8	5 · I	503·I
ir. VII			121.6	91 5	6.5	461.6
o. VIII			121.7	72.6	6.8	443·I
Ix. VIII			131.8	62.0	6.3	439.5
o. IX			131 9	65-9	7.1	439 5
			.5 9	03-9	/ · A	41/0

Bank Gospodarstwa Krajowego

(National Economic Bank)

Incorporated and constituted by Decree of the President of the Republic of Poland, dated 30th May, 1924.

Head Office: WARSAW, Poland

Chairman: Dr. J. K.Steczkowski. General Manager: E. Korwin-Szymanowski

Abridged Statement of Condition per May 31, 1925, in zlotys.

ASSETS.

. Cash in Vault and with Bank of Poland and Balances	
with other Banks	21,615,020-53
2. Bills and Commercial Paper	78,848,300.56
3. Polish Government Obligations and Municipal Bonds	39,330,244.94
4. Advances to Customers	31,864,173-99
5. Short Term Loans	33,268,496.52
6. Mortgages	117,417,681.28
7. Other Items	5,985,599.70
8. Bank Premises at Head Office and Branches	9,432,325.36
9. Liabilities of Customers for Acceptances and Engage-	
ments (Zl. 97,211,000 reguaranteed by Polish	
Government)	109,251,625.45
2	1. 447,014,468.43

LIABILITIES.

1.	Capital Stock	_		-	-	-	-	-	35,000,000.00
2.	Reserves -	-	-	-	-	-	-	~	4,804,591.15
3.	Balance of Profit	t and	Loss .	Accou	nt for	1924	-	-	1,119,360.96
4.	Profits brutto, p	er Ma	ıy 31,	1925		-	-	-	4,615,931.89
5.	Deposits -	-	-	-	~	-	-	**	149,180,084.44
	Rediscounts	-	-	-	-	-	-		17,711,784.82
7.	Bonds and Oblig	gation	s issu	ed	-	-	-		117,359,034.17
8.	Other Items	_	-	-		-			7,972,055.55

- 109,251,625·45 21, 447,014,468·43 To by

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The Bank grants Long Term Credits by issuing Mortgage, Municipal, Railway and Bank Bonds, the latter for requirements of Polish industries, receives for collection Bills of Exchange, issues Draft and Telegraphic Transfers and Letters of Credit on all places in Poland, and transacts General Banking Business.

SPECIAL FACILITIES FOR INVESTMENTS in Poland.

9. Acceptances and Engagements (Zl. 97,211,000 re-

guaranteed by Polish Government) -

Deposits of Money are received for fixed periods or at call at terms which may be ascertained on application, interests payable half-yearly, 30th June and 31st December. Bonds issued by the Bank and BANK'S DEPOSITS are GUARANTEED by the GOVERNMENT.

BRANCHES in all the principal towns in Poland.

III.—STATE BANKS IN POLAND.

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General Remarks.—The year 1924, i.e., the period of financial reforms, became the turning point in the organisation of State banking institutions. Not only have the conditions in the Money Markets altered entirely, but the activities and organisation of banks had to undergo a thorough revision.

During the first years of Poland's independent existence, establishments and institutions inherited from the former Partition and Occupation Powers had to be reconstituted and adapted to new conditions. Seven banking institutions of an official character were taken over by the Polish Administration, viz., the Polish State Loan Bank, which was the Bank of Issue established by the German authorities of Occupation, and liquidated in 1924; the National Bank in Warsaw, which formerly had its headquarters in Lwów; the Bank of Galician Towns in Kraków—an institution granting long-term loans to municipalities; the State Agrarian Bank, established for the purpose of financing the Agrarian Reform and of supporting agriculture in general; the National Economic Bank, and finally the Post Office Savings Bank. The last three institutions were established by Polish authorities.

The growing depreciation of currency and the consequent disorganisation of money markets hindered the activities of these banks, and their credit activities were gradually reduced to an absolute minimum. It is obvious that the financial reforms, in order to be successful, had to secure a rational basis for the development of State banking institutions.

The first to be affected by the reforms was the Polish State Loan Bank which was officially liquidated on April 28, 1924, and taken over by the Bank of Poland, which was then established. The Agrarian and Post Office Savings Banks were re-organised in May; their Statutes were revised, and their authorities re-constituted.

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The most important measure was the fusion of the National, Reconstruction and Galician Cities Bank into one institution under the firm of "National Economic Bank."

The establishment of the new Bank of Issue on the basis of a private joint stock company relieved the Government of their duties as regards the regulation of the rate of exchange of the currency. The bank could not, however, undertake certain transactions which were hitherto effected by the Polish State Loan Bank. These included credit on goods, as well as the co-operation in the issue of State Loans, and the financing of Government and municipal enterprises. All these activities were taken over by the National Economic Bank.

The merits and shortcomings of the new State Banks cannot be fully appreciated yet, after so short a period of the bank's existence. They were called up to fill a most important position in Polish economic life and had to commence intensive activities at once, in spite of the difficulties arising out of new conditions and new organisation. There is no doubt that the reform of the State banking institutions was successful, and its beneficial results are experienced already to-day.

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Compared with the period of inflation, the Banks have developed their credit activities considerably. The total of credits granted by the Polish State Loan Bank up to January 1st, 1924, amounted to 17 million zlotys; other Government banks granted credits to the extent of 2.5 million and 41 private banks—17 million zlotys. Thus over 50 per cent. of all credits were granted by State banks. Taking into consideration the fact that private banks discounted Bills only to the extent of the re-discount credits which were granted to them by the Polish State Loan Bank, it may be safe to assume that the participation of State institutions formed at least 90 per cent. of the total credit granted. Compared with pre-war standards the figures quoted above are inadequate. It is sufficient to mention that the total amount of credits granted by banks situated within the present territory of Poland up to December 31, 1913, was equivalent to a sum of 735 million gold francs.

During the last phase of the inflation period credit transactions were almost entirely eliminated from commercial dealings. Credits, if granted, were expressed in foreign currencies, and such dealings were made direct between the creditor and the debtor without any participation of banking institutions. The position at the end of the year 1924 was different. The amounts of credits

granted by State and private banks are set out below (in million zlotys):—

Bank of Poland	• • •	257
National Economic Bank	***	72*
State Agrarian Bank		13
P.O. Savings Bank		17
Forty-one private banks	• • •	267
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Total ... 626 million zlotys.

Forty per cent. of the total were granted by the Bank of Poland, 16 per cent. by State Banks and 42 per cent. by private banking institutions.

The proportion has, therefore, altered in favour of private banking institutions, which shows a gradual return to normal conditions.

The average rate of interest charged by State banks is approximately 14 per cent. and by private institutions from 18-20 per cent. per annum. A reduction in the **Bank Rate** can only take place after the present industrial crisis has abated.

1. The National Economic Bank.

This bank has been established by an Order of the President of the Republic of May 30, 1924, giving legal sanction to the fusion of existing Government Credit Institutions. The programme of activities of the bank has been defined as follows:—

- (a) To grant long-term loans by means of Mortgage Debentures, Municipal and Railway Stocks;
- (b) To co-operate with and support Municipal Banking Institutions;
- (c) To encourage financially building and reconstruction activities throughout the country;
- (d) To transact ordinary banking business and generally to support Government and Municipal undertakings.

Thus the National Economic Bank is the State's Central Credit Institution; it executes the Government's credit policy and

Exclusive of guarantees for credits granted by foreign firms to the extent of 60,000,000 zlotys.

represents its interest in various undertakings. In relations with foreign countries the bank represents the financial interests of Polish economic communities by establishing connections with the World Money Markets. In order to facilitate the activities of the Bank it has been established as a Joint Stock Company of a particular kind. Apart from the State, all Local Government authorities can participate in its capital and in its activities.

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The following résumé of the bank's monthly balance sheets gives an idea as to the progress of the bank's developments:—

National Economic Bank.

Returns from May 31 to December 31, 1924.

	Мау 31.	September 30.	October 31.	November 30.	December 31.
Assets		(In th	ousand zlo	1 /5.)	
0 1 1 1 1	5,085	4,955	4,752	3,755	5,740
Bills discounted	9,600	41,373	38,791	43,205	42,183
Advances on goods	9,000	16,811	17,008	16,247	15,934
Banks	3,464	27,671	21,677	21,182	10,827
Branches	684	5,575	13,070	15,118	17,708
Securities	331	770	1,678	8,340	22,804
Short-term advances	17	3,754	4,293	6,646	8,126
Debtors	2,915	1,697	1,665	1,937	6,861
Current accounts, etc	343	1,506	13,566	3,486	6,047
Advances on mortgage	7	7	7	7	23,938
Movable property	5	26	31	37	66
Immovable property	2 \$ 7	508	620	832	938
Bills in collection	546	1,822	2,412	3,640	3,373
Guarantees	6,284	47,372	49,603	49,003	59,686
Total	29,588	153,847	169,173	173,435	223,231
1					
LIABILITIES.	15,210	49,689	70,092	73,785	62,561
Deposits	2,984	13,735	7,165	8,040	2,735
Branches	514	4,470	8,146	10,600	11,317
Current accounts, etc.	658	4,562	2,690	3,498	1,431
Share issues	8	7,302	8	8	2,43
Mortgage creditors	3	3	3	3	25,000
Re-discount "A"	3,197	13,393	12,506	10,314	17,415
Re-discount "B"		16,316	13,391	10,604	15,768
Oapital	87	136	136	136	20,130
Profits.	97	2,341	3,021	3,804	3,806
Bills in collection	546	1,822	2,412	3,640	3,376
Guarantees and endorsements	6,284	47,372	49,603	49,003	59,689
Total	29,588	153,847	169,173	173,435	223,231

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The capital of the bank is formed primarily by grants from the State Treasury, which has also located in the bank certain sums which were at the disposal of the Ministry of Finance. Government undertakings, such as Monopolies, and Local Government authorities deposit their current takings in the bank. Deposits of private individuals and corporations form a smaller, though considerable, item in the bank's working capital, especially in the head office and in the Galician cities, where the clientèle of the former National Bank has been retained. Deposit accounts are also developing rapidly. In spite of this, however, sufficient capital for long-term advances cannot be found in the country. consequence, the bank has to look for further capital in foreign countries. An important transaction has recently been concluded in the United States, where 10,000,000 dollars of 8 per cent. Municipal Bonds had been located. The proceeds from this issue are earmarked for sanitary and drainage purposes, also for the erection of modern slaughter-houses in four towns of the former Congress Kingdom. The location of further issues is being negotiated for. Finally, the bank enjoys a re-discount credit at the Bank of Poland.

As regards the bank's active operations, the bulk is formed by various transactions in connection with the discount of trade bills. Advances on goods and bills of lading also constitute an important share of the bank's business. Considerable advances were granted to the various industries of the country; furthermore, financial support had to be given to farming and agriculture, which were severely endangered by the crop failure of 1924. In this respect the bank co-operated with the private Land Bank. A systematic campaign has been conducted in order to enable farmers and landowners to purchase the necessary supply of artificial manure and fertilisers. The bank took part in financing and reorganising the Potassium Salts Company of Kalusz, and initiated the constitution of the Phosphorite Producing Company in Niezwiski. The latter should supply the necessary raw material for the manufacture of superphosphates, which have hitherto been imported from foreign countries.

The building and reconstruction campaign has also been financed by the bank. Credits have been granted to brick and cement

works as well as to building contractors.

As regards local government authorities, credits have been granted to these for investment purposes. These advances were secured on the revenue from rates and other municipal taxes. The establishment of Communal Savings Banks has been encouraged and supported by the Bank. As a result of this campaign nearly 20 new savings banks have been established, mainly in former Russian Poland.

The bank's activities were also extended to the establishment of independent transport means for the benefit of Polish overseas

trade. The Polish Maritime Navigation Company has been established with the financial aid of the bank. This company will maintain regular communication between Danzig and other Baltic ports, also between the latter and trans-Atlantic harbours.

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As regards financial relations with foreign institutions, the Bank of National Economy took over the activities of the former Polish State Loan Bank in connection with guarantees for credits granted to Polish merchants and industrialists by foreign establishments. In order to establish a close connection with the most important money market of to-day—viz., the United States—a branch of the bank will shortly be opened in New York.

2. Post Office Savings Bank.

The development of cheque and Money Order transactions as well as the encouragement of saving are the main objects of this institution. Its progress was made possible after the stabilisation of currency and, generally, after the establishment of normal financial conditions. The following balance sheet of the Post Office Savings Bank shows the development of this institution:—

Balance Sheet of Post Office Savings Bank,

from January 1, 1924, to January 1, 1925.

		(In th	ousand zlot	ys.)	
	January 1, 1924.	April 1, 1924.	July 1, 1924.	October 1, 1924.	January 1, 1925.
Assets.					
Cash in hand and at the				. 0	4.504
Bank of Poland	4,762	2,916	3,602	4,843	4,594
Post offices	4,114	7,089	11,855	13,670	19,833
Guarantees	1,965	7,399	11,633	11,443	17,190
Own securities Securities of the Pensions	2,982	5,431	4,875	5,074	11,434
D	I	T	540	604	640
D - 1	1,145	1,570	3,045	5,770	19,542
	1,145	553	1,146	1,011	875
Sundry assets	588	2,203	3,204	5,926	6,235
Total	15,642	27,153	39,900	48,341	80,343
LIABILITIES.			23,818	31,365	37,486
Current accounts	10,112	16,773	2,464	4,807	7,555
Savings accounts	936	4,528	6,622	8,403	12,364
Transfers Branches	1,001	4,5 ²⁰	1,873	1,016	12,304
O 6. 1.	127	583	600	600	4,617
Sundry liabilities	3,464	2,774	4,523	2,141	18,321
Total	15,642	27,153	39,900	48,341	80,343

The new Constitution of the Post Office Savings Bank enacted by the Order of the President of the Republic dated June 27, 1924, enabled the bank to develop its activities. The amount of cheque transactions in the head office and in the 2,736 post offices which constitute branches of the bank has increased considerably. The following figures give the returns from May 1 to December 31, 1924:—

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No. of Accounts.	Total Balance to Credit.	Total Amount of Cheque Transactions.	Amount of Cheque Transfers.
44,016	37,485,579:71	3,124,270,822-74	1,664,728,300

A comparison between the amount of cheque and cash transactions shows a gradual return to normal banking conditions.

Circulation of Bank notes in Poland as compared with Cheque Transactions in 1924.

(See Table, page 552.)

It is evident from this table that the volume of transactions effected has grown even during months when the total balance outstanding to the credit of current accounts has declined. The number of accounts has also increased by 5,589. The total amount of transactions effected was 3,124,270,822 zlotys and 1,404,164,185 million Polish marks. Most of the transactions were effected for or on behalf of the Government.

It must be remembered that the protracted period of inflation has destroyed the sense of saving in the public, and this state of affairs cannot be remedied at once. The industrial crisis and the resulting unemployment had also a detrimental influence on savings, However, in spite of these unfavourable conditions the increase in the total amount of savings is considerable, and amounted to 7.555.079.31 zlotys at the end of 1924, as compared with 1.580.906.75 at the beginning of that year The number of savings accounts has similarly increased from 28.086 to 57.793, and the average amount deposited from 65.5 zlotys to 130.7 zlotys.

The largest proportion of accounts is held by civil servants and military persons (19·2 per cent.). These are followed by workmen (15·4 per cent.), liberal professions (12·1 per cent.), and children (7·7 per cent.). The average sum held per savings book in the first group was $87\cdot3$ zlotys; in the second, $130\cdot4$; in the third, $210\cdot1$; and in the last, $37\cdot3$ zlotys.

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Circulation of Bank notes in Poland as compared with Cheque Transactions in 1924.

Cheque Cheque to Bank notes to Cheque to the total forms fers of in the P.K.O. circulation.	(In millions of marks.)	87,481,971 Per cent. 12,570,271 Per cent.	141,079,386 32.2 20,388,073 4.7	218,709,759 36-7 29,792,553 5.0	278,942,293 48 9 46,727,085 8.2	(In zlotys.)	136,793,369 Per cent. 56 0 28,389,552 11.6	145,639,849 43.6 24,336,724 7.0	169,216,303 42 9 26,037,274 6.6	172,348,948 40·I 27,482,914 6·3	188,921,339 41 0 30,914,082 6.7	291,205,006 57 8 32,089,190 6	269,107,227 54 I 34,135,094 6.8	0.7
Percentage of cheque transactions to notes in circulation.	(In million	Per cent.	59.5	70.5	8 86	(In	Per cent.	82.3	6 I8	75.3	6.08	6.101	100 5	0 00
Total cheque Transactions,		161,887,624	258,900,177	420,007,762	\$63,368,619		264,629,843	283,799,019	322,669,519	323,721,982	371,983,449	\$12,793,303	499,827,560	544 847 143
Total of Bank notes in Circulation.		313,659,830	437,331,700	595,244,205	570,597,550		244,977,010	334,405,730	394,262,550	430,263,045	460,383,770	503,701,830	497,600,470	440 872 ofo
		*	4	:	:		•	;	:	:	:	:	-	
Month.		January ?	February	March	April		May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December

Other activities of the Post Office Savings Bank include the purchase of Government stocks and bonds; advances are also granted against such securities. The considerable stock of Government bonds forms an important reserve in case of a drop in the number of current and deposit accounts. Furthermore, the credit and loan activities of the bank are being developed and bring in a considerable revenue in the shape of commission and revenue, This enables the bank to charge lowest possible rates of commission in connection with the collection of cheques and other negotiable instruments for its customers. Loans and advances are usually made to small landowners, traders, officials and workmen.

Post Office Savings Bank in Poland

POST Office Savings Bank, established in 1919, on the initiative of Mr. H. J. Linde, then Minister of Posts and

Telegraphs.

The Post Office Savings Bank works through all the Post Offices in Poland, which collect and effect payments in the service of cheques and of savings.

This Bank is acting by virtue of the statute of June 27, 1925, sanctioned by the Presi-

dent of the Republic of Poland.

At the head of the P.S.B, stands the Chairman (President) and a Board of Directors. The Chairman is Mr. H. I. Linde, the creator of P.S.B. in Poland.

The Committee of Management consists of two Deputies of the Diet, two delegates of the Ministry of Finances, and two delegates of the Ministry of Trade and Commerce.

Head Office: WARSAW.
Branches: Poznań, Kraków, Katowice.

The act vities of the P.S.B. comprise:
lished l. Accepting savings at
interest.

2. Money Orders and Current Accounts (Polish

and Foreign).

3. Carrying out of order of the depositors of the Bank regarding purchase, sale and conversion of such securities (bonds and shares) as are quoted on the Polish and foreign Stock Exchanges.

4. The execution of orders of depositors for the collection of trading bills, bills of lading and other

amounts due.

5. The hire of safes.
6. Purchase and sale on own account of government and municipal securities taking part in the emission of government municipal loans.
7. The hire of safes.

7. The granting of credits.

Basking Business f every descriptionis giv uprompt and careful attention.

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The State Land Bank created by the decree of the Chief of the State, dated February the 5th, 1919, as Polish State Land Bank has been reorganised by the order of the President of the Polish Republic the 14th May, 1924. Notwithstanding the recent date of its creation the Bank has already played an important part in Poland's agricultural and economical activity, in spite of the fact that the first few years following the great war catastrophe, with the subsequent inflation period, have not only furthered the development of the Institution but hampered considerably its activity, mainly based on long-term credit operations checked by the collapse of the Polish Mark currency. The stabilisation of the currency skilfully carried through, as well as the introduction of the Zloty, will, no doubt, influence in a most effective way the further development of the State Land Bank conceived as a financial institution in the widest meaning of the term. The Bank's chief object is to satisfy the most essential needs of small and middle size rural property, to carry through the state agrarian programme by means of purchasing land estates for parcelling purposes, taking over such estates for parcelling in commission, to grant long-termed redeemable loans in mortgage bonds for the purchase of small holdings for melioration and agricultural investments. Further to the sphere of activity of the State Land Bank belongs: Organisation and financial support of the agricultural credit co-operation and of agricultural unions, granting of specie loans to the small and middle-sized rural property, furthering the military and civil colonising action, managing the rural rebuilding funds.

Besides these special lines of activity the State Land Bank transacts any

kind of banking business.

The issue of mortgage bonds now in the course of realisation will enable

the Bank to extend considerably its activity.

The above mentioned 8 % mortgage bonds, issued in Zlote, in gold standard, are guaranteed by the State and are free of any capital and rent tax. The mortgage bonds of the State Land Bank are first-line securities both regarding the degree of security—the bonds being based on rural small and middle-sized property—and the regular payment of capital sum and interests, the State Land Bank guaranteeing them, according to its Status, with all mortgages, with all its movable and immovable property as well as with any other assets and reserved funds, irrespective of the guarantee offered by the State Treasury.

The State Land Bank's mortgage bonds, offering all the advantages of privileged securities, can be accepted as cautions, guarantee deposits and as

payment of property tax.

The foundation capital of the Bank, fixed at Zl.25,000,000, forms State Treasury dotation free of interest and not liable to withdrawal.

The State Land Bank is a juridical body.

The Bank is in the course of establishing branch offices at Poznań, Lwów, Wilno and Łuck.

The organisation of this bank received legal sanction by the Order of the President of the Republic dated May 14, 1924. The bank develops its activities in two independent directions. One is to finance the execution of the Agrarian Reform, and the other

to grant credits and advances to landowners and farmers.

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The bank has received little financial support from the public in the shape of deposits or securities. It has, therefore, to rely for its capital almost entirely on the Treasury. During 1924 the working capital of the bank was increased by 3,000,000 zlotys by means of a Treasury grant. The sum of 7,000,000 zlotys has been earmarked in the Budget of the Ministry of Agriculture as the bank's capital for the purpose of financing the execution of the Agrarian Reform. Furthermore, 1,000,000 zlotys had been granted for the institution of rural savings banks and 4,000,000 zlotys for advances in connection with the crop failure and floods. A further 6,000,000 zlotys has been granted for the same purpose by the Ministry of Finance. The following statement of balance sheets shows the development of the operations referred to above:—

Balance Sheet of the State Agrarian Bank. From December 31, 1923, to December 31, 1924.

	Dec. 31,	March 31, 1924.	April 31,	Sept. 30,	Dec. 31, 1921.		
Assets.		nillions of arks.)	(In the	usands of zi	otys.)		
Cash in hand Balances at the Polish Loan Bank or Bank of Poland	5,090	104,539	148.4	526-1	227.0		
respectively Balances at the P.O. Savings	6,812	81,296	3,331.8	1,260.0	1,851.8		
Bank Securities, foreign balances,	21,032	166,215	105.7	346 0	931.5		
etcConstruction of building	17,116 300 8,320	18,195 300 123,390	19·8 0·2 2,990·4	19·7 0·2 9,485·3	1,046·4 0·2 5,640·4		
Bills	102,609 67,536	533,181	1,814 6	3,878.1	4,225·3 6,132·3		
Pomerania Merchandise and fishing	541	32	- 1	-	34 · 2		
instruments Movable Property	389	926	- o·8	- 1.4	13.8		
Frade Costs Sundry Accounts	27,761	137,460	144.7	277·9 46·5	100 4		
Ministry of Agriculture Account	5,705	1,094	0.2	0.5	0.2		
Sundry Debtors and advances to District Land Offices	178,092	155,862	1,945.0	5,091.9	6,424.8		

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	Dec. 31, 1923.	March 31, 1924.	April 31, 1924.	Sept. 30,	Dec. 31, 1924.		
Assets—cont.	(In millions of marks.)		(In th	(In thousands of slotter)			
Fransitory Accounts	25,714	-		-	25-1		
Shares in concerns Ministry of Agriculture Funds	2	2					
administered by the Bank Estates for parcellation		54			409		
Total LIABILITIES.	467,019	1,350,162	10,513.1	22,997:3	27,080 - 5		
Paid-up Capital	2,600	2,600	1.4	1,101.4	3,060-9		
Statutory Reserve Capital Other Reserves	206	206	_	40.0	-		
Valuation Fund for Loans advanced	- 1	32,969	22 0	27-8	-		
Amortisation Fund for Mov- able Property	I	40	-	_	1.8		
Current and Deposit Accounts	91,828		4,168 8	6,023 3	7,750-0		
Returnable Treasury Grants Re-discount of Bills Funds administered on behalf	1,619	-	-	-	7.730		
of the Ministries of Agri- culture, Agrarian Reforms,							
and Public Works Ministry of Agriculture	75.478	431,932	2,103.4	4,270.3	7,453-2		
Current Account	5,705	1,094	0.2	0.5	0.6		
Ministry of Agriculture Agents Administered Funds disposed	485	696	0.6	0.9	1.3		
of	161,436	142,384	1,937 9	5,084-8	6,417.0		
Agrarian Reform Funds Creditors and Purchasers of	-				163.8		
parcellated estates			_	-	66 - 2		
Parcellation costs	_	-	-		11.7		
Sundry Accounts	-	17,299	17:4	5 0	3 0		
Transitory Accounts.	98,677	417,453	2,008.6	5,466.6	421 9		
Interest and Commission	28,045	58,832	204.3	668· I	-		
1923 Profit and Loss Account		87,325	48.5				
Merchandise and Fishing	939	8	_	-	_		
Profit and Loss Account		-	-	-	477 - 8		
Total	467,019	1,350,162	10,513.1	22,997 3	27,680		

The activities of the agrarian department of the bank can be classified as follows :---

(a) The purchase of estates for the bank's own account;

(b) Parcellation of estates on commission;

(c) Loans granted to purchasers of lots parcelled privately bu

(d) Advances in cash or in kind to settlers lacking the necessary means for the national administration of lots purchased po by them.

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17.9 63.8 66.2 11.7 3.0 21.9

After the initial period of organisation the bank proceeded with the execution of this programme. The area of land offered to the bank for parcellation was 138,755.6 hectares, distributed in 66 estates. Two estates of a total area of 176.4 hectares were offered for parcellation on commission. In addition, the bank dealt with 12 applications from owners of parcellated estates for advances for the purchasers of lots thus formed. Out of these, the bank had 69 estates valued, and has already purchased nine of a total area of 6,217.7 hectares, including the Strzelce estate in the Kutno district with an area of 4,510.3 hectares. The price per hectare ranged from 178 to 900 zlotys. One estate (157.4 hectares) was accepted for parcellation on commission. The majority of estates submitted to the bank are situated in the eastern counties, and include a large (nearly 80 per cent.) percentage of forests and waste lands.

The credit activities of the bank show a more satisfactory rate of development. Credits were granted primarily to aid farmers and small landowners, either directly or through the medium of agricultural co-operative societies.

A special loan scheme had to be adopted in connection with the crop failure and floods. Furthermore, the bank granted financial aid to the fisheries along the Polish seaboard, to dairy and poultry farms, and to practically every branch of agriculture and its kindred industries. The total of advances made was distributed as follows:—

ı				Zlotys.	Per cent.	
ı	(a) Credit institutions and co-op, societies			7,692,600	47.0	
ı	(b) Agricultural credit and co-operative institution	18		55,000	0.5	
ł	c) Communal organisations			1,748,800	10.0	
ı	(d) Commercial-agricultural produce societies			841,752	5 0	
i	(e) Social agricultural institutions			250,300	1.5	
Ĭ	(/) Parcellation offices			60,000	0.5	
ı	(g) Agricultural-commercial concerns			1,351,660	8 0	
ŀ	(h) Small agricultural holdings under to acres			2,257,134 88	13.0	
ľ	(i) Small agricultural holdings under 45 acres			1,103,226.95	6.5	
ı	()) Small agricultural noldings under 200 acres			576,750	3 5	
Į	(t) Large estates over 200 acres			575,026.25	3.5	
	(1) Tenants			184,300	1.0	
	Total		-1	16,966,550.08	100 0	

The constitution of the bank further provides for an extension of the bank's long-termed credit activities. It authorises the bank to advance loans on mortgages to the extent of 75 per cent. of the value of the property. In this respect little has been done so far, but a considerable development is expected in the nearest future.

ssary The administration of special Government funds forms an imnased portant branch of the bank's activities. These funds were created by virtue of statutes dealing with the various aspects of the country's

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economic life. In 1924 the bank was entrusted with the administration of 29 different Government funds, of which 12 were at the disposal of the Ministry of Agrarian Reforms, two of the Ministry of Public Works, and 15 at the disposal of the Ministry of Agriculture and National Estates. Most of these funds were established during the first years of the country's independent existence and were in consequence depleted by inflation. A computation of loans granted under these heads will take place during the current year. The more important of these funds are the Agrarian Reform Funds and the Reconstruction Funds.

With the development of the bank's activities the question of establishing branches of the bank became one of considerable importance. Preparations have been made during 1924 for the establishment of a branch in Poznań and of other branches or agencies in the eastern counties. In some parts of the country the bank was instrumental in the constitution of communal savings banks and similar credit establishments.

4. Credit Operations of State Banks during the First Quarter, 1925.

The credit activities of State banks have considerably increased during the first months of the current year. Loans and credits granted by the Bank of Poland, the National Economic Bank, the Agrarian Bank and the Post Office Savings Bank have advanced rapidly during that period, in proportion to the securities and cash deposited at these banks. Short-term loans formed the majority of these transactions, although considerable sums were advanced for longer periods. Four municipal organisations were granted loans of a total of 50,031,000 zlotys for sanitary and drainage purposes. This transaction was made by the National Economic Bank as a result of the bank's agreement with the Ullen Company of New York.

The reserve of Bills at the Bank of Poland on March 31 reached the total of 306.6 million zlotys; the amount of securities held against loans was 25.5 million. At the National Economic Bank the total of credits granted up to March 31 amounted to 99.9 million. The amount of securities and Bills held against loans by the Agrarian Bank was considerably smaller. It must be remembered, however, that the majority of the bank's creditors are small landowners and farmers, and the bank often accepts simple promissory notes as security against advances, especially against those granted in connection with the crop failure or floods.

An analysis of the credit operations of all State banks will show that the largest amount of credits and advances was granted to agriculture and its kindred industries. This was due primarily to

the natural disasters referred to above. Credits advanced to agriculture were distributed as follows:—

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_			Bank of Poland.	National Economic Bank.	Agrarian Bank.	Post Office Bank.	Total.
April 1, 1925 January 1, 1925	4.	::	54·7 26·4	17·4 8·3	39.4	7.6	110·1 59·3
Increase			28 3	9 1	17.1	5.3	59.8

The advances granted by the Bank of Poland include loans to planters of sugar beet (7.9 million), to sugar refineries (25.4 million), and to distilleries (9.3 million). This leaves 12.0 million for agriculture in the proper sense of the word.

Credits advanced by the National Economic Bank benefited mostly small landowners and individual farmers. The organisation of Rural Savings and Loan Banks is being proceeded with and will greatly facilitate the activities of the National Economic Bank.

Advances made to industrial concerns during the first quarter of the current year are represented by the following figures:—

_			Bank of Poland.	National Economic Bank.	Post Office Savings Bank.	Total.
April 1, 1925 January 1, 1925	**	12	111·2 98·7	53·9 32·7	5 ⁻⁷ 3·8	170.8
Increase			12.5	21.2	1.9	35.6

Credits were readily granted to those industries which export most of their produce and to those being of national importance, such as engineering and chemical industries. By the end of March advances were also made to the building trade, brick and cement works, etc.

The extent of loans advanced to commercial undertakings is considerably smaller. The following credits were granted by the respective banks:—

					Bank of Poland.	National Economic Bank.	Total.
April 1, 1925 January 1, 1925	p 4	:4	**		3.61	7.71	11-32 7.97
Increase	4.0		* *	0 .	0.81	2.21	3 35

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The amount of loans granted by the Post Office Savings Bank cannot be taken into consideration, since it did not exceed the sum of 500 000 zlotys. The general crisis in the trade and the consequent epidemic of bankruptcies warranted a cautious policy on the part of State banks. The timber trade alone was favoured by the bank in connection with its growing export activities.

Co-operative Societies enjoyed but a small proportion of Govern

ment credits, which were granted as follows:-

_			Bank of Poland.	National Economic Bank.	Post Office Bank.	Total.
April 1, 1925 Jahuary 1, 1925	• •	0 0	4:3 6:2	2.9	7·7 5·0	14.1
			- 1.9	_	2-7	+ 0.8

It must be noted that these figures do not include credits grants by the Agrarian Bank to the various Agricultural Co-operative Societies.

Credits advanced to Savings Banks and municipal organisations were distributed as follows:—

			National Economic Bank.	P.O. Savings Bank.
April 1, 1925		 	 2 3	3.1
lanuary 1, 1925			1 9	2 0
Increase	1-	 1.1	0.4	I.I

Loans granted by the Post Office Savings Bank to educational and artistic organisations amounted to about 600 zlotys.

The credits enumerated above include only those which were granted direct by the respective banks to the creditors concerned.

In fact, however, the extent of credits actually received was considerably greater, since the figures do not include the amount of credits granted by the Bank of Poland and the National Economic Bank in connection with the re-discount of bills submitted by private banking institutions. The discount credits advanced by the Bank of Poland to private banks amounted to 122.6 million zlotys on December 31, 1924. The returns for March 31, 1925, show this item as 132.5 million, i,e., an increase of 9.99 million zlotys. The corresponding figure in the returns of the National Economic Bank for March 31, 1925, is 7 million zlotys.

It is noteworthy that the amounts of deposits in Government Banks have also increased. This was due not only to the Treasury monies deposited in the banks but also to increased sums being paid

in by private concerns and individuals. The following figures show the amounts deposited at various periods:—

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		Including				
	Treasury.	Local Government.	Co-operative Societies.	Private.	Total.	Savings Deposits.
January 1, 1925 February 2, 1925 March 1, 1925	42 7 45 4 68 5	12·0 12·7 10·6	0·7 0·8 1-6	15 2 11·7 19 0	62·6 70·6 70·6 99-7	0·75 1·20 1·45 1·99

It is evident from these figures that savings deposits have increased during the first quarter of the current year by nearly 300 per cent., and reached the considerable amount of nearly 2 million zlotys. The increase in Savings Deposits is best seen from the returns of the Post Office Savings Bank, which exists primarily for the purpose of collecting and encouraging such deposits. The amount of deposits on savings and current accounts during the first quarter was as follows:—

			Current Account.	Savings Account.	Total
January 1, 1925			37 5	7.6	45 1
February 1, 1925			40.8	9.3	50.1
March 1, 1925	29.	64	39.5	10.9	50· I
April 4, 1925			43.7	11.0	55.6

The balances on current accounts are, as usual, subject to considerable fluctuations, whereas savings deposits have increased during the first three months by nearly 4.5 million zlotys.

Monies deposited at the Agrarian Bank are, for the most part, composed of Treasury or Ministry of Agriculture funds. Private deposits form an insignificant percentage of the total. The increase of deposits at the Agrarian Bank was as follows:—

_	January 1.	February 1.	March 1.	April 1.
Sundry deposits	1.2	1.3	3.8	13 7
Freasury grants	7.7	10.2	17-7	17.7
Administered funds	7-5	7.3	7-0	11.6
Agrarian Reform Fund Ministry of Agriculture Current	1.0	0.7	1.0	1.3
Account	_	-	-	9 6
Total	16.5	19.5	29 5	53.9

By Administered Funds are meant all funds created by special statutes for strictly defined purposes such as reconstruction of devastated farms, aid to farms affected by floods, or crop failure, etc.

The actual administration of these funds is in the hands of the Central Authorities, so that the bank is only called upon to perform the usual banking operations and to keep accounts in connection with such funds.

IV .- FOREIGN BANKS IN POLAND.

The relations between Polish and Foreign Banking are as yet undeveloped. The immediate operations of foreign Banks in the Polish Money Market and their influence were instrumental in establishing three banking institutions of a purely foreign character. These are :—

1. The Franco-Polish Bank with headquarters in Paris and branches in Warsaw, Katowice and Danzig, acting in conjunction with the "Banque de Paris et des Pays Bas." The bank concentrates its activities in Upper Silesia.

2. The "Banque de Silesie" with headquarters in Katowice is supported by the French group "Credit Industriel et Commercial."

3. The Anglo-Polish Bank; the controlling interest in this bank is vested in the British Overseas Bank, London.

The Anglo-Polish Bank will, no doubt, greatly increase its activities in the nearest future in view of the adhesion of a number of representatives of the "Union of Sugar Manufacturers in the former Kingdom of Poland."

The fusion of this important group with the Anglo-Polish Bank was the result of the policy of the British Overseas Bank in allowing considerable credits to sugar manufacturers.

Apart from these three foreign banks, we have to mention those which were established by the naturalisation of local branches of several Viennese institutions which before the war extended their operations to Austrian Poland. Banking relations with the Viennese—and through their agency with the Western European institutions, have been established either by converting the former branches of Austrian banks into independent home institutions (this was done largely with the aid of Austrian capital), or, through the acquisition of these branches by the already existing Polish banks. The latter are represented by the Polish "Discount Bank" which has acquired all Galician branches of the "Oesterreichische Kreditanstalt für Handel und Gewerbe" (belonging to the Rothschild group). In consequence, the Austrian "Kreditanstalt" having already an interest in the "Amstel Bank" of Amsterdam, acquired a large number of shares in the Polish "Discount Bank."

As regards those branches of Austrian banks which have subsequently become independent institutions, the most important ones are:—

r. The General Credit Bank (Powszechny Bank Kredytowy) originating from the Austrian Land Bank. The latter has been acquired after the war by a French concern and is now known as

FOREIGN BANKS IN POLAND.

the "Banque des Pays de l'Europe Centrale" with headquarters in Paris.

2. The Polish "Alliance Bank"; the controlling interests of this Bank are still in the Alliance Bank of Vienna.

3. The General Union Bank (Société Générale de Banque en Pologne) which has acquired all branches of the former "Wiener Bankverein." The General Union Bank is also supported by the "Banque Belge pour l'Etranger" (of the "Société Genérale de Belgique" group) and by the Swiss "Banque Commerciale de Bâle."

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Of other Viennese banks, the "Boden Kreditanstalt" has large interests in the Galician Bank (Bank Malopolski) of Kraków and the Kraków Commercial Bank is supported by the Viennese "Merkurbank,"

Belgian banking in Poland is represented by the "Banque de Bruxelles" which owns about 20 per cent. of all shares in the Warsaw Bank of Commerce.

German banks concentrate their activities in Upper Silesia where the following German institutions have their branches:—"Deutsche Bank," "Dresdner Bank," "Darmstatter Bank," and the "Diskonto-Gesellschaft." Their activities are practically confined to the coal and metallurgical industries. The "Diskonto-Gesellschaft" of Berlin has also a branch office in Poznań.

Other foreign banks operating in Poland through the agency of Polish banks, act but sporadically and confine themselves almost exclusively to current accounts, transactions, etc.

Generally speaking, the relations between Polish and foreign banking are maintained mostly by Austrian banks, then, in order of importance, by banking institutions of Belgium, Germany, Great Britain and France.

Polski Bank Przemysłowy.

Polish Industrial Bank — Banque Industrielle de Pologne—Polnische Industriebank, Warsaw, 42 Senatorska Street.

The head offices of this banking institution is still in Lwów, Lemberg, Little Poland formerly Galicia, Poland, but will be transferred to Warsaw. The bank was established in 1910 by the Diet of the former Kingdom of Galicia, as a part of the former Astro-Hungarian Empire, with a net capital of 10,000,000 Austrian gold crowns, and possesses sixteen branches in the principal Polish industrial centres. Eighty-five per cent. of the bank's shares are owned by citizens of the Polish Republic, and 56 per cent, are controlled by a group of Polish financiers. Moreover, the bank owns splendid palatial premises in Lwów, Kraków, Drohobycz Piznań, and Danzig, as well as in Stryj, Kroso, and Rzeszów, including valuable real estate in Warsaw, Lwów, and Kraków. In addition the bank possesses considerable interest in several well-known Polish industrial undertakings which it has either established or financed and controls. This forms the bank's backbone as well as the basis of its importance in Polish economic life.

During the period of its activity, covering nearly fifteen years, the bank has created over a hundred different industrial undertakings; some of them it has reorganised and enlarged, while others it has financed and assisted in such a way as to assure their prosperity for many years to come. Over 50,000 workers and other employees are engaged in the institutions controlled by the bank and the value of goods produced by them in 1923 is estimated at 80,000,000 gold francs. The most important of these undertakings are: Petroleum and Oil Gas Co., Ltd., Coal Mines, "Jawerzno" Ltd. Company for the exploitation of potassium salts in Kalusz, Ltd. Portland Cement Manufactory "Gorka," Ltd., "Wysoka," Ltd., Warsaw Locomotive Building Co., Ltd., Locomotive and Railway Car Building Co., "Zieleniewski" Ltd., Timber and Building Co., "Oikos," Ltd. Canned Food Manufacturing "Sigm. Rucker" Co., Ltd., Sugar Manufacturing and Refining Co., "Chodorow" Ltd., "Guzów" Co., Ltd., "Strzyzów" Co., Ltd., Sweetmeats, Chocolate and Malt Manufacturing Co., "Karo Machlejd" Ltd., Warsaw, "Pocisk" Munition Factory, Ltd., "Nitrat" Chemical Works, Ltd., "Gafota" Shoe Manufacturing Co., Ltd., Electric Overland Central in Grodek Co., Ltd., "Cmielów" Porcelain Manufacturing Co., Ltd., "Atlas" Geographic and Cartographic Institute Ltd., and several others.

The Polish Industrial Bank, which up till 1919 was active in Little Poland (former Galicia) has since 1920 greatly enlarged its sphere of activity over the whole territory of the Polish State and manifests increasing interest in the revival of the Polish industries through assisting them with advice and financial aid.

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V.—THE POLISH MONETARY SYSTEM.

In virtue of Art. 1, § 8, and Art. 8 of the State Finances (Improvement) and Currency Reform Act of January 11, 1924 ("Journal of Laws," No. 4, § 28), and in conformity with a resolution of the Council of Ministers of January 17, 1924, and with an Order of the President of the Republic of April 23, 1924 (Journal of Laws, No. 37), the zloty has been fixed as the monetary unit of the Polish Republic containing 9.31 parts of a gramme of pure gold. The zloty is divided into 100 groszes.

The minting of money forms the exclusive right and privilege

of the State. The coins minted are:

1. Gold: 100-złoty, 50-złoty, 20-złoty and 10-złoty pieces.

2. SILVER: 5-zloty, 2-zloty and 1-zloty pieces.

3. NICKEL: 50-grosz, 20-grosz and 10-grosz pieces.
4. Bronze: 5-grosz, 2-grosz and 1 grosz pieces.

Gold coins are minted from an alloy containing 900 parts of gold and 100 copper per 1,000 of the total weight. One kilogramme of this alloy is converted into 3,100 gold zlotys. The weight of a 100-zloty coin is 32'25806 grammes with a diameter of 35 millimetres; the weight of a 50-zloty coin is 16 12903 grammes with a diameter of 28 millimetres; the weight of a 20 zloty coin is 6 45161 grammes, diameter 21 millimetres; the weight of a 10-zloty coin is 3 22580 grammes with a diameter of 19 millimetres.

SILVER COINS are minted from an alloy containing 750 parts of silver and 250 of copper per 1,000. The weight of a 5-zloty coin is 25 grammes with a diameter of 37 millimetres. The weight of a 2-zloty coin is 10 grammes with a diameter of 27 millimetres. The weight of a 1-zloty coin is 5 grammes with a diameter of 23

millimetres.

NICKEL COINS are minted from pure nickel. The weight of a 50-grosz coin is 5 grammes with a diameter of 23 millimetres. The weight of a 20 grosz coin is 3 grammes, its diameter 20 millimetres. The weight of a 10-grosz piece is 2 grammes and its

diameter 17.6 millimetres.

Bronze Coins are minted from an alloy containing 950 parts of copper, 40 of tin and 10 of zinc per 1,000 of the total weight. The weight of a 5-grosz coin is 3 grammes with a diameter of 17.6 millimetres. The weight of a 1 grosz coin is 1.5 grammes

with a diameter of 14.7 millimetres.

In the minting of gold and silver coins any fluctuation from the standard weight and fineness as given above, whether for more or less, may not exceed: In the case of gold coins: in respect of fineness 0.002 parts and in respect of weight—for coins of 1-zloty and 50-zlotys—0.001 parts of their weight; 20-zloty and 10-zloty pieces—0.002 parts of their weight. In the case of silver coins: in respect of fineness—for 5-zloty pieces 0.002 parts, 2-zloty and 1.zloty coins—0.003 parts; in respect of weight—for 5-zloty coins 0.003 parts of their weight, for 2 zloty and 1-zloty pieces 0.005 parts of their weight.

As regards nickel and bronze coins, the Finance Minister shall define the fluctuation permissible, whether for more or less, from

the given standard.

Coins issued in accordance with the present Order are legal tender: in the case of gold without restriction as to the amount; silver coins to the amount of 100 zlotys at any one payment; nickel and bronze coins, as also coins issued in virtue of an Order of the Minister of Finance, (see below) are legal tender to a combined amount of 10 zlotys for any one payment. State banks will accept coins of every kind to any amount in all payments excepting such where it is stipulated that the payment shall be made in gold.

The State mints gold coins as required without restriction as to the amount; in the case of silver coins, to the amount of 8 zlotys per head of population of the Republic, and finally nickel and bronze coins and such coins as are issued by an Order of the Minister of Finance to the amount of 4 zlotys per head of the population. Gold coins are minted for the State, as also for such private individuals as apply for the minting of coins with a quantity of gold not less than 100 pure gold. Upon conditions stipulated by the Minister of Finance such gold coins are minted for private individuals at the cost of minting which the Minister of Finance deems necessary for circulation.

Coins of other metals are minted exclusively for the State.

The model of coins has been fixed by the Finance Minister by way of an Order giving a facsimile of the effigy of the relevant coin. No one is obliged to accept coins whose effigy is completely defaced or such as are worn, or gold and silver coins whose weight has diminished by use, in the case of gold coins by more than 0.005 parts and of silver 5-zloty coins by more than 0.01 parts and of 2 and 1-zloty coins by more than 0.05 parts below the lowest weight permissible when minting. Gold and silver coins which have lost more than the above given parts of their weight shall be withdrawn from circulation by the Treasury at a payment for every remaining gramme of their weight—in the case of gold coins 3 zlotys and 10 groszes—in the case of silver coins, 20 groszes if the effigy of the coin is not completely defaced and it is not damaged.

Until further notice by way of an Order of the Minister of Finance, 5-grosz and 2-grosz pieces shall be of an alloy containing 600 parts of copper, 305 of zinc and 5 of tin per 1,000 of the total weight. The total value of such coins in circulation does not exceed the sum of 4.5 million zlotys.

The Warsaw Locomotive Building Joint Stock Co.

The Company's workshops were founded in 1920 by virtue of a contract with the Polish Railway Ministry for the construction of new locomotives and locomotive repairs for the State Railways. According to this contract the Company pledged itself to supply 350 new locomotives and effect 510 main repairs up till July 1st, 1930. At the last General Meeting the Stock capital of the Company was fixed at 2,500,000 zlotys and divided into 250,000 shares.

After the revaluation of the Polish exchange, a reass-ssment of capital and an official valuation of property became necessary. The valuation was in accordance with a decree of the President, 25 June 24, male accurately during 1924, and estimated at 13,652,312 zlotys in buildings, workshops, offices, stock and part-products. In accordance with an official report made by the Ministry of Industry and Commerce however, this valuation actually represents but half the Company's property. The valuation as made by French, Belgian and Swiss engineers was assessed at between 22 and 30 million Swiss francs.

The Shares are distributed among Polish banks and the administration and employees of the Company, while nearly 20 per cent. belongs to foreigners.

The Company owns 79,000 m² of land of which 35,165 m² is under roof. The local prior of the square metre is 6 dollars. The buildings are of concrete and of the most modern construction with an assembling shop of 264 metres in length, surrounded with shops for boiled making, forges, frame-making and mechanical shops.

The factory is provided with the most up-to-date English, German and Austrian machiner and has a yearly producing capacity of 10 new locomotives and 60 to 80 main repairs. I need be, the factory can supply twice the number of locomotives contracted for, in fact, the locomotive shortage in Poland is so great that the demand by far exceeds the number contained in the contract; but even if the home demand should diminish, which is unlikely, the factory is in a position to supply locomotives to neighbouring countries. This production is assured by 400 machines, most of them of great dimensions. Nearly 2,000 men are employed in the shops.

In addition to the recent completion of the buildings, the factory has up to the present effected 330 main repairs and constructed 15 new locomotives, the first of which is already over a year in service.

Besides locomotives the factory produces oil engines of Prof. Eberman construction and the Company have sold 7 engines of 100 to 250 h.p. to Lwów. Orders for Diesel engines have been received from the War Ministry and also from private buyers. The construction o traction engines is made by new plant and tools and by new working methods.

We have started by making the type of agricultural traction engine of 6 h.p. most in demand but propose making 2 more types of agricultural and 3 more of industrial traction engines.

The above-mentioned Diesel and traction engines are adapted to the needs of the countries well as to Russian requirements. The entire production will be made in series and not only for the home market but also for export to the East.

Up till now the Company's capital has been sufficient for its needs, but upon the decision to manufacture heavy machine tools and traction engines, for which there is great demand if Poland, the necessity has arisen of acquiring capital abroad.

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NATIONAL DEFENCE IN POLAND

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NATIONAL DEFENCE.

I.—THE POLISH ARMY.

The Army, constituting one of the most important guarantees of the maintenance of Polish independence, is under the special care and protection of the Polish Government and of the Polish people. The proximity of powerful States who have so far proved alien to the idea of friendship amongst nations, makes the maintenance of an efficient army a matter of national importance. These States, which at one time have ruled and governed Poland, challenge even now the frontiers of the Republic; it is, therefore, necessary to possess adequate armed forces for the purpose of defence of Poland's territorial integrity and for safeguarding Poland's independence.

The re-establishment of the Polish Army took place in unprecedented circumstances; it can even be said that it preceded the restoration of the Polish State. In the beginning, it was a force of eager men with no arms or war material; only gradually was this force equipped and transformed into a regular army.

To those who realise the tremendous difficulties which stood in the way of military organisation during the Soviet War of 1918–20 and thereafter, the financial and administrative efforts of the Republic in connection with her National Defence will not appear redundant. It must be realised that Poland had to build her army from the very beginning, organise military institutions and auxiliary forces, whereas other European States had but to continue their military organisation. It is ludicrous, therefore, to compare Polish Army expenditure with that of other European countries, and to fling, on the basis of such comparison, an accusation of excessive and unnecessary armaments.*

^{*} Consideration of space does not allow a detailed statement of Polish military organisation. Only the most important features are set out in this article. We would refer those interested deeper in this matter, to a volume published by the Ministry of War under the title "The Modern Polish Army."

1. Main Principles of Organisation.

The organisation of the Polish Army is based on the

principle of compulsory military service.

All able-bodied male citizens of the Republic without distinction of religion or nationality are subject to the duty of military service.

The statutory term of service is as follows:—

(a) On active service, 24 months; in practice this term is reduced to 18 months in all Services, save Cavalry, Horse Artillery and Air Force.

(b) In the Reserve, up to 40 years of age. (c) In the General Levy, up to 50 years of age.

The maximum contingent of recruits to be enlisted each year is fixed by the Seym. The contingent fixed for the current year is 180,000 men.

2. Supreme Military Authorities.

In peace time, the President of the Republic is also the Commander-in-Chief of the Army. He presides over the Army Council, which advises him on matters of military

importance.

The administration and control of all matters affecting the Services is vested in the Minister of War. The Minister acts in conjunction with a Select Army Council, which is presided over by a General, who, in case of war, becomes Commander. in-Chief of the Army. This General acts through the Bureau of the Select Army Council.

Under the direct control of the Minister are the following:-

(a) Inspectors-General, Inspectors of Services, and

Inspectors of Training.

(b) The Ministry of War (Chief of the General Staff, Chief of Establishments, Chief of Army Accounts, and the Chief of Naval Operations).

(c) Chiefs of District Commands.

The two Inspectors-General (Cavalry and Artillery), the five Inspectors of Services, and the Inspector of Training have no executive powers. They supervise and control the general training and efficiency of the Army on behalf of the Minister of War. The Inspectors-General are members of the Army Council; the Inspectors of Services-of the Select Army Council.

The Minister of War acts through his Ministry and its various departments. The following officers are under his clirect orders:—

(1) The Chief of the Minister's Cabinet, who deals with

political questions and matters of representation.

(2) The Chief of the General Staff, who is responsible for all war preparations. The General Staff is composed of the following Departments:—

I. Establishments and Organisation.

II. Intelligence.

III. Training.

IV. Transport, Stores and Supplies.

V. Personnel.

(3) Chief of Establishments, who controls and supervises the activities of ten departments, viz.:

I. Infantry. VI. Construction.

II. Cavalry. VII. Stores and Supplies.

III. Artillery. VIII. Medical Service. IV. Air Force. IX. Justice.

V. Technical X. War Industries.

- (4) Chief of Army Accounts, who prepares the Army Budget and supervises its execution. Officers of the Accounting Corps exercise, on behalf of the Minister of War, the entire control over the financial and economic administration of the Army.
- (5) Chief of Naval Operations directs all matters connected with Military Marine.

3. Territorial Organisation of the Army.

The entire territory of the Republic is divided, for the purpose of Military Administration, into ten District Commands. These Commands are directed by Generals, who, with the aid of their Staff, execute the orders of the Minister of War. The Staff of each District Commander is organised on the lines of the General Staff.

The Headquarters of District Commands are situated as

follows :---

 District Command I., in Warsaw.
 District Command VI., in Lwów.

 """ III., in Lublin.
 """ VIII., in Poznań.

 """ IV., in Grodno.
 """, "VIII., in Torun.

 """ IV., in Łódź.
 """ IX., in Brzesc.

 """ V., in Kraków.
 """ X., in Przemysł.

4. Formations.

The Polish Army is composed of 28 Divisions of Infantry, with three Regiments each, two divisions of Highland Fusiliers (with an identical organisation), four Cavalry Divisions with three Brigades of six Regiments each, and six independent Cavalry Brigades with only two Regiments each. Each Infantry Division has one regiment of Field Artillery; each Cavalry Division—two squadrons (three batteries) of Horse Artillery, and each independent Cavalry Brigade—one squadron of Horse Artillery.

5. Services.

The Infantry is formed by 84 Regiments with three battalions each, and six Regiments of Highland Chasseurs with an identical organisation.

The Artillery is composed of 10 Regiments of Field Artillery, 10 Regiments of Heavy Artillery, 14 Squadrons of Horse Artillery, two Regiments of Mountain Artillery, one of Fortress Artillery, and one of Anti-Aircraft Artillery.

Artillery Regiments are composed of three squadrons with three batteries each, with the exception of Mountain Artillery Regiments divided into two squadrons each. The Anti-Aircraft Artillery has an organisation of its own.

The Cavalry is formed by three Regiments of Light Cavalry, 27 Regiments of Uhlans, and 10 Regiments of Mounted Chasseurs. The training and equipment of all these regiments is identical; their names are traditional. Each Cavalry Regiment has four line squadrons, and one Machine Gun squadron.

The Air Force is at present in a state of formation. Six Regiments have already been formed in addition to various Flying Schools, and other establishments. The machines used are of the French or Italian type. Aeroplanes are constructed in five Polish factories; air engines are, however, imported.

There is also one battalion of Airship troops, in addition to the Central Airship Works.

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Tanks are concentrated in one Tank Corps, composed of three battalions.

Technical troops (Engineers) are formed by 10 Regiments of Sappers with two battalions each, one Electro-technical battalion, one bridge-building battalion and three Regiments of Railway Sappers.

THE POLISH ARMY.

Liaison Troops include two Liaison Regiments, one Wireless Regiment, and ten Stations of Postal Pigeons, one in each District Command.

There are ten Squadrons of Automobile Troops, one in each District Command, and ten Squadrons of transport troops trains.

6. Training.

As a school of citizenship, the Army plays an important part in Poland's national life. In a country which was purposely kept in ignorance by its rulers and where, for over one hundred years, there was no system of regular education, the compulsory teaching obtained in the Army is of great importance. Not only does the Army train its men in the science of warfare, but it cultivates national consciousness, it unites citizens from the furthest outposts of the Republic, and teaches them to respect the State and its authorities.

The French doctrine of military training was adopted in Poland, with certain modifications which make it more applicable to local conditions.

Army Training includes two distinctive branches, viz.: (1) warfare and physical training, and (2) general education. Both the Regular Army and the Reserve pass through a system of regular training.

Officers are recruited from those graduates of the Cadet Corps who subsequently pass through a two-years' course at one of the Officers' Training Colleges. Graduates of the School of Reserve Officers may also be admitted to the Officers' Training Colleges. Non-Commissioned Officers may also receive their commissions after going through a course of training at the Officers' School for Regular N.C.O.s.

The training of officers includes many special subjects. The High School of Military Science has been established for the purpose of specialised military studies. Only regular officers who have passed a severe entrance examination can be admitted to this School.

Regular N.C.O.s are recruited from Reserve Corporals who have passed a five to ten months' course at the School for Regular N.C.O.s. About 15 schools of this type have been established for the different branches of military training.

The training of men is conducted in those detachments where they have been enlisted for the purpose of undergoing compulsory military service, and also during the subsequent drill of the Reserve Army.

Reserve N.C.O.s. are also trained in their respective detachments. More promising individuals are selected from amongst the recruits and are trained in a special School for N.C.O.s. After this course of training, they return to their detachment

and are promoted to the rank of Corporal.

The Reserve Officers' Corps is recruited from graduates of Public Schools who have subsequently graduated at one of the Officers' Colleges. Regular Officers resigning their commissions become members of the Reserve Officers' Corps. N.C.O.s. after six years' service and six months' training at the Reserve Officers' School receive their commissions as Reserve Officers.

Sanitary and Veterinary Officers are recruited from amongst graduates of the Civil Universities who have subsequently completed their studies at the Reserve Officers' School. Other specialised Corps are also composed of graduates of the corresponding Universities or Technical Colleges.

The physical training of troops is supervised directly by the General Staff. It controls the Central Military School for Physical Training and Sports, which trains instructors, and the staffs of Physical Training Departments which exist in connection with each District Command.

The programme of Physical Training in the Army is based on the physiological principles of the Ling system, also on the French methods. Sports and physical training developed rapidly in the Polish Army; during 1924 no fewer than 2,500 matches were played by different detachments.

The general education of troops is conducted very thoroughly. Compulsory elementary education during military service is enforced under the Army Act. The curriculum includes reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, natural science. Lectures on general subjects are delivered regularly and teach the men of State organisation, natural wealth of the country, etc. Libraries exist in connection with each detachment; theatricals, cinema performances, games, etc., are arranged periodically.

Officers specially trained as teachers perform the functions of Education Officers in each detachment.

7. Military Judicature.

The following Courts-Martial exist in the Polish Army in peace time:-

(1) Regional Courts-Martial, or Naval Courts.

(2) Divisional Courts-Martial, or Admiralty Courts.

(3) The Supreme Military Tribunal.

The first of these deal exclusively with offences, civil or military, committed by private soldiers; the maximum penalty which these Courts may impose is one year's imprisonment. The Divisional (or Admiralty) Courts form Courts of Appeal in respect of Regional Courts; they also act as Courts of first instance as regards offences committed by officers, or grave offences committed by men. The Supreme Military Tribunal sits as a Court of Appeal in respect of Divisional Courts.

Each Court-Martial is composed of the following:-a professional judge, an officer-lawyer, and deputy-judges selected from officers or men according to the rank of the accused.

The prosecution is conducted by an officer-lawyer who acts as the Military Prosecutor. Only in Regional Courts the prosecution is led by an ordinary officer and not by a lawyer.

The accused may select Counsel, who may be either a civilian

or an officer.

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Military Penal and Detention Prisons have been organised. Prisoners serving longer sentences are taught various crafts. They also take part in educational classes conducted by special Education Officers. The treatment of prisoners is

strictly supervised by the authorities.

In addition to Courts-Martial, the Officers' Corps is governed by statutory Courts of Honour. These Courts deal with such cases where the conduct of a particular Officer is not becoming of his high calling, although it does not warrant a criminal prosecution. These cases also include misunderstandings between the members of the Corps. The sanctions of the Courts of Honour range from a mere admonition to expulsion of the delinquent from the Corps.

8. Medical Service.

The Polish Army Medical Service is organised on a very high standard of efficiency, and is equipped with the latest technical devices. As a result of its efforts all epidemic diseases have been conquered, and the sanitary conditions

in the Army are excellent.

There are ten sanitary battalions, one in each District Command, and ten Military Hospitals. Garrison Hospitals are established in the larger garrison cities. Each detachment has its own "Sick Ward" conducted by a Medical Officer. Furthermore, the Sanitary Department of the Ministry of War maintains a number of institutions for reconvalescents in various health resorts.

The Sanitary establishments of the Ministry of War are also available for families of officers and men. Maternity and

children's wards exist in most Military Hospitals.

The staff of the Army Medical Service is trained in the Officers' Medical College and in the Central Medical School

for N.C.O.s, respectively.

The curriculum of these Schools includes military as well as special training. Medical knowledge is acquired in the Civil Universities and hospitals. Experiments are made with aeroplanes for the transportation of sick and wounded soldiers with excellent results.

9. War Industries.

The war industries in Poland are at present in a stage of advanced development. The damages caused by the War made Poland dependent on foreign countries as regards her supplies of war material. It is the policy of the Ministry of War to organise special branches of war industries and to prepare the civil industries for special war work in case of need. It is expected that the country will soon become self-sufficient in this respect.

II. -THE POLICE FORCE IN POLAND.

The formation of a nucleus of the Polish Police Force took place during the last period preceding the re-establishment of Poland amongst the family of nations, i.e., during the occupation of the former Russian provinces by the armies of the Central Powers. The so-called Civic Guards were then formed; these were subsequently superseded by City Militias, which became the basis

of a regular Police organisation.

At the time of the re-establishment of Poland as an independent State there was a pressing need for an efficient Police service. As is usual under such circumstances, the first efforts were spontaneous and irregular; local police constabularies were hastily formed throughout the territory of the former Congress Kingdom the supervision of newly-established State authorities. The Warsaw Militia became the training centre for all new police organisations and distributed instructors throughout the country. The lack of uniformity in these efforts, excusable in the general chaos in which a newly-organised State naturally found itself. resulted in the creation of other bodies apart from the regular Police Force which was then being organised. Thus, a People's Militia was formed for the purpose of checking speculation in foodstuffs, and a Railway Guard for the maintenance of order on State railways. In Galicia, police work was carried on by the local gendarmerie organised in accordance with the former Austrian Police, and in the Prussian provinces; also by a gendarmerie which was formed gradually when territories ceded to Poland by the Treaty of Versailles were taken over by Polish administration. In spite of the difficulties which the newly organised State had to overcome, in spite of the state of war which existed between Poland and her Eastern and Western neighbours, and of the Ruthenian rebellion, the first efforts towards the organisation of an efficient Police force gave entirely satisfactory results. As the result of the war, the consequent laxity of morals, and the crime waves, the criminal elements became more and more dangerous, chiefly owing to the absence of firmly established State authorities. The collapse of the occupation authorities and the example set by the Russian Revolution encouraged the growth of crime, and the outrages against life and property soon became alarming. young Polish Police Force passed successfully a severe test of efficiency. Lawlessness rampant throughout the country was curbed in a surprisingly short time; gangs of bandits were wiped out or handed over to the Courts, with the result that in 1919 the statistics of crime showed a decrease to the pre-War average, and in some cases were lower than before the War.

In addition to its normal task of safeguarding public order, the internal organisation of the Force proceeded rapidly along the lines of an organised and uniform body. Within seven months of the re-establishment of the Republic, a Police Act was drafted and

passed by the Constituent Assembly on July 24, 1919.

Since the enactment of this legal basis, the work of the improvement of the Force proceeded rapidly. The other bodies of public order, such as the People's Guard and the various local Police organisations, were disbanded; their staff underwent a strict scrutiny, and was partly absorbed into the State Police. The local gendarmery of Galicia was reorganised in accordance with the Police Act, and incorporated in the Force similarly to the Railway Police, which had hitherto been under the supervision of Railway and Military authorities.

By the end of 1920 the whole country, with the exception of the former Prussian provinces, was policed by the State Police Force. In order to avoid unnecessary difficulties in the re-organisation of the Galician gendarmery in strict conformity with the Police Act, and also in order to adapt the new organisation to local conditions, a temporary Galician Police Command was formed; this body was to supervise the preliminary work in connection with police matters in Galicia and, having accomplished its task, was disbanded at

the beginning of 1922.

The Police in the former Prussian provinces underwent similar changes. After the final establishment of Polish adminstration in territories ceded by the Treaty of Versailles, the local gendarmery was incorporated in the State Police, and the temporary intermediate organ between the Headquarters at the Ministry for Home Affairs and the local organisations, known as the Police Command for the former Prussian provinces, ceased to exist after some few months of activities.

It is noteworthy that the preparatory period of Police organisation in 1920 coincided with the severest trial through which the newly re-established State had to pass, viz., the invasion of the Red Armies. This invasion laid on the shoulders of the Police the double burden of combatting increased criminality and of co-operating with the Army. After the expulsion of the Soviet Armies from Poland, the Police were actively engaged in pursuing the gangs of marauders and bandits left behind by the rapidly retreating enemy. All this work, which normally does not come within the sphere of Police duties, proved the efficiency of the young force and its high sense of duty and patriotism. It is significant that throughout this difficult period the internal development of the Police progressed considerably and strengthened the authority of the State Police in the country.

After the accomplishment of its internal organisation and the establishment of a uniform State Police Force, the latter began to train its members in accordance with the examples set forth

by Western European countries, adapted to local conditions. For a considerable time, representatives of the English Police were employed in instruction in general police work and in the organisation of the Force (1919–1920). The police system adopted in Poland aims at preventing crime, in contrast to the Russian repressive methods which prevailed in the largest Polish province before the War. Both the organisation and the training of Police officers did away with the Russian, German and Austrian methods; the whole system is based on entirely modern and democratic principles adapted to local needs and conditions.

The main characteristics of the Force, as set out in the Police Act of July 24, 1919, are its uniform and its non-political status. The Police are trained and organised on military lines; the character and execution of their duties are supervised by general administrative authorities and by judicial organs. Their general organisation, training, supplies and discipline are controlled by its own officers, with the Chief Commissioner at their head, who is responsible

directly to the Minister of the Interior.

The State Police Corps performs all branches of police duties. The territorial division is made in accordance with the general

administrative organisation of the country.

The original attempts of maintaining separate departments, such as Railway and River Police, were found impracticable, and at the beginning of 1922 these departments were incorporated in the general Police Corps, whilst maintaining certain peculiar features in connection with the special duties performed by them. Larger cities and industrial centres possess detachments of mounted police numbering from 12 to 200 men. Warsaw has, in addition, a section of 50 cyclists.

Training is conducted by the Central Training Institute for Police Officers in Warsaw, and in 16 normal schools for lower grades of the police. In addition, 16 recruiting schools train newly enlisted men, the period of training being usually six weeks.

The Police perform their duties to the entire satisfaction of their headquarters and have gained the confidence of the general public. Many members of the Force have sacrificed their lives in pursuing dangerous criminals. The annual Memorial Services include names of numerous policemen who have fallen in the execution of their duty. In 1922, 61 members of the Force were killed; in 1923, 48; and in 1924, 84. The new project of police organisation which purports to introduce certain changes in the relations between the Police and the general administrative authorities, provides for suitable pensions for families of policemen who are killed in the performance of their duties, and for a more equitable scale of remuneration according to the character of duties performed.

XI CULTURAL LIFE IN POLAND

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1. THE LITERATURE OF POLAND.

Polish literature is less known abroad than it deserves, owing to its aggressive nationalism and excessive patriotism, as its own critics and essayists have tried to explain. Their explanation is only partly true. It is a fact that the most eminent Polish works are connected very closely with national problems, but very frequently their subject is lifted far above local significance and turned into a great work of art, worthy to become the common property of mankind. These works are still denied their proper place, for during many decades the literature of a forgotten nation had ceased to attract the attention of foreign observers. But now, with the revival of the Polish State, a new interest in literature and things Polish has arisen. Foreign students have approached it, desiring to discover the spiritual qualities of the nation which demanded the restoration of a normal political existence, and expecting to find in it the secret of that uncanny vitality which has enabled a nation subject to a century's oppression at the hands of the three most powerful European Powers, not only to survive, but actually to expand. Once started, this study must needs lead to a re-discovery of the great and enduring artistic values of these works.

In a word, the rebirth of an independent Poland, her efforts to strengthen, establish, and consolidate herself, her growing influence in international affairs—these are the factors which tend to restore to her literature the place which has been too long denied her.

This essay will endeavour to survey its historical development, bringing forward its greatest writers and their works.

The national and political character of her literature is a true reflection of Poland's political history.

Poland entered the field of history as early as the tenth century, and in the eleventh century already was a powerful organised state. But her intellectual and spiritual achievements in that period could not claim to rank as works of literature. These and the following centuries were charac-

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terised by great educational and civilising activity from which at the beginning of the sixteenth century, together with the rapid advance and growing influence of Humanism, there sprang up a native literature of strong racial character and temperament and of rich variety. This literature has nothing of primitive naïvete, having absorbed all the elements of ancient culture and Italian Renaissance. Leading Polish writers of this epoch are in direct and personal contact with the most eminent Western Humanists; their works form part and parcel of the spiritual achievements of the humanistic period. The greatest poet of this epoch, Jan Kochanowski (1530-1584), shows a mind versed in every problem of the European civilisation of the day, and the Polish language he employs becomes in his hands an efficient instrument to express adequately the complex feelings and thoughts of modern man.

This is the golden period of both Polish history and literature. The political organisation was based on a parliamentary system developed to a higher degree than anywhere else on the Continent; the citizens were fully enfranchised and the State became truly and really a Commonwealth. It was a period of public life overflowing with energy and of a harmony which knew nothing of racial animosities. This life finds its expression in a literature which is alive to all that appears to be of interest and universal significance.

With the advent of the seventeenth century Humanism in Poland, not unlike in the rest of Europe, declined and decayed. Here a mention must be made of the last great poet and humanist, Maciej Kazimierz Sarbiewski, known in Western Europe as Casimir Sarbievius, and nicknamed "Horatius Sarmaticus," whose Latin poetry was highly esteemed, especially in England, where, even in the nineteenth century, there appeared several editions of his poems.

Apart from poetry written in the baroque style, with all its grotesque and quaint ornamentation, several kinds of poetical writing began to flourish, such as the epic, the satire, and realistic poems descriptive of everyday life of the middle class. Unfortunately, these efforts, with the exception of a few epics attempting to draw pictures of the most important contemporary national events, were not productive of any enduring results, and the prolonged political and social unrest

prevailing in the second half of the seventeenth century brought the intellectual and artistic activity in Poland practically to a standstill, lowering at the same time the standard of civilisation throughout the country.

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Not until the middle of the seventeenth century did there appear the signs of a new literary revival whose guiding spirit was the French classicism of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Thanks to the unsparing and painstaking labours of a handful of writers, encouraged and patronised by **King Stanislaw Poniatowski**, the Polish mind and literature as its outward and most adequate expression were raised once more to the standards of Western nations. Every branch of intellectual life was organised and reorganised; every new kind of literature introduced; great care devoted especially in the development of the novel and drama. The first public theatre was opened in Warsaw in 1765, apart from several private theatres which magnates entertained at their country residences. Literature took an active part in the great task of social and political reforms.

This character of a great instrument for public service was to grow steadily and predominate henceforth in Polish literature after the partitions. It was to become more than one of the factors in national life, to help to preserve and keep alive the national spirit itself.

At first, with Warsaw as its almost exclusive centre, it turned its attention to the past and produced histories, historical novels, and tragedies.

But new minds, filled with new literary ideas, were needed to bring forth a new and great literature of a nation strangled in the very midst of its formidable effort to advance and improve. This literary revolution was to come from the Eastern Polish territories, where the cultural and civilising work of centuries was only beginning to be productive. It is a remarkable fact that practically every great Polish writer of the nineteenth century hailed from the Eastern borderland, giving thus an undeniable testimony of the Polish character which frustrated every attempt to Russianise the parts where at that time the great Polish romantic writers were rapidly developing their genius.

The first volume of poetry of Adam Mickiewicz (1798-1855) which appeared in 1822 in Wilno, is a landmark in our modern

literature. Mickiewicz was the leader of a whole period, the romantic period of Polish literature, the period of great national literature. Every new work of Mickiewicz was not only a revelation of new artistic forms but also an expression of a new national idea. Thus, to name only a few, The Forefathers' Eve was a dramatic poem full of romantic imagination; another poem, called Konrad Wallenrod, had as its subject the tragical aspects of extreme patriotism; while The Forefathers, written after the collapse of the Rebellion of 1831, presents a Prometheian struggle of an imprisoned human genius challenging the soundness of God's judgment over mankind. His last finished work, Pan Tadeusz, a picture of the Polish gentry during Napoleonic wars, became our greatest national epic.

His poetic genius, aided by hard and most conscientious work, enabled him to find adequate expression for a great scale of tones, from the naïvs simplicity of a popular ballad to the most intimate and passionate lyric confessions, from a roused patriotic feeling to the picturesque realism of everyday life. But poetry was not his only medium. He was also an essavist who followed most carefully the new Western ideas and who in due time made a marked impression on many eminent reformers and social writers, such as Lammenais, Mazzini, Michelet, Quinet; he tried to organise a national revolution and he met his death in the midst of this work. But he was also a sage in the ancient meaning of this word. Throughout his life his mind kept working out his own moral and religious truths, placing him among the greatest Christian mystics. For the Polish nation Mickiewicz is not solely their greatest poet, but as a teacher and patriot, the never-ageing patron of youth and the unfailing leader of spiritual life. Every generation discovers a new aspect of his genius.

Already famous throughout Europe during his life, renowned but little read outside Poland, he is now entering into a new stage of his universal popularity whose witnesses are the many new translations of his works done lately, especially in Italy and the United States. It is not too much to hope that the time will come when Mickiewicz will be acknowledged as one of the greatest poets of European Romanticism.

His great contemporary, Juljusz Słowacki (1809-1849) enriched and adorned Polish literature in his own way. His

sensitive and most subtle mind was endowed with brilliant imagination; with most intimate and delicate emotions. with rare modes of feeling, of profound melancholy and yearning. Through a study of the world's masterpieces he opened new vistas for the Polish literature. Byron and Shakespeare, Dante, Tasso and Ariosto, Calderon and Homer, were his constant companions' masters; it was his ambition to enrich the Polish literature with works which should bear a comparison with their achievements. The creation of a national drama became his passion; and indeed his dramas and tragedies derived from Polish historical and legendary past, form still the groundwork of a Polish repertory. Among his numerous epic poems the most important is Beniowski, written after the model of Byron's Don Juan. Not unlike Mickiewicz, his spiritual development led him finally to mysticism; in a state of mystic ecstasy he produced poems and dramas which have only quite recently become accessible to the general reader. His greatest achievement during this period is an epic called The King Spirit, a gigantic conception of national history based on the doctrine of metempsychosis. Some of the critics consider this poem as the highest revelation of romantic spiritualism.

Undeniably his chief merit consists in his masterful handling of the Polish language, which in his hands became an instrument of most rich and subtle music. These qualities of language and form made him in turn a master for the young poets at the beginning of our century.

The third of the great romantic poets, **Zygmunt Krasiński** (1812–1857), called the "anonymous poet," lived through the social and political crisis of his times, with the intensity of a personal tragedy. When only twenty-one he wrote his famous dramatic poem, The Un-Divine Comedy, a prophetic vision of the final conflict of aristocracy with extreme and destructive radicalism. In his preface to an English edition of this work, Mr. G. K. Chesterton pointed out that it has become once more actual in the Russian revolution. His second work, Iridion, had for its subject the Russo-Polish problem disguised as a conflict between ancient Greece with Roman imperialism. Possessed of a mind of a philosophical turn, Krasiński gave much of his thought to meditation on Poland's past and future, and his optimistic views contributed largely to the spirit of hope and endurance.

The greatness of these three poets overshadowed in the eyes of posterity all others; they became the object of an idolatry which is characteristic of the attitude of the Polish people towards their poets. They were worshipped not as great artists but as national prophets. They wrote mostly abroad, but their works were smuggled across the frontier and became the ferment of a propaganda destined to keep up the spirit of patriotism.

Meanwhile there grew in the country a literature less sublime but more in contact with reality, and adapted to the need of everyday life. Whilst there appeared abroad great dramatic poems whose authors could not even dream to see them acted on the Polish stage, in the country flourished the Polish playwright, the greatest unto this day, Alexander Fredro (1793-1876), who from the point of view of technique belongs to an earlier period, but whose comedies are immortal through their truth and life. Among a score or so of his plays, two especially are considered masterpieces, i.e., The Vengeance, a typical picture of manners, and The Maiden's Vows, a pleasant romance. But it was the historical novel that met with greatest success; a number of novelists turned their attention to the past which was more attractive than the sad reality; which explains the popularity Henryk Sienkiewicz was to obtain; and his achievement was to a certain extent the outcome of a long evolution. Among his predecessors the most formidable was Jozef Ignacy Kraszewski (1812-1887), who was well known in his days abroad, especially in Germany. His industry was unequalled; he produced altogether about six hundred volumes.

A special paragraph must be devoted to Kamil Cyprian Norwid (1821–1883), a poet of great powers born before his time, who strongly opposed the tendency to narrow the literary subject to the national problems, and advanced the conception of poetry as a function of life, laying stress on the close relation between art and beauty and labour. A poet and thinker, he had some difficulty in finding an adequate medium for the expression of his ideas so that his language is often practically unintelligible; unpopular with his contemporaries, he was re-discovered at the beginning of the twentieth century and has a good many enthusiastic followers.

The collapse of the last armed rebellion (1863) changed the popular attitude towards romantic poetry, which was challenged as exerting a harmful influence on youth and being indirectly the cause of the failure. This literary reaction, which soon assumed a national character, was simultaneous with the triumph of positivism in Western Europe. Science and learning were now the catchwords of the day. The future of the nation had to be built not on an exalted faith in the victory of the ideal but on sound economic, industrial, and educational policy. The leader of this new movement, called the Warsaw Positivism, was Mr. Alexander Swietochowski (born 1849), a brilliant essayist and author of numerous short stories and intellectual dramas in which the new doctrine was expounded.

This new literature was hailed with sincere enthusiasm by the intellectual classes, which were fast losing ground under the oppressive anti-Polish policy of the Prussian and Russian Governments. By setting aside for the time being great metaphysical conceptions of the national problem, this literature tried to follow closely the practical problems of the day, pointing out the need of social reforms and suggesting best ways and means for their solution. It is no wonder that the most popular literary form is the novel

The social changes which affected at that time every class of the community found their fullest expression in the novels of Boleslaw Prus (1847-1912). A great novelist and teacher, a keen observer of life and a staunch believer in the kindness of the human heart, his mind was a happy combination of the most precious human qualities. His short stories and novels full of minute realistic observations, are at the same time saturated with a wise and noble philosophy, with a belief in the ultimate triumph of goodness. But he is not an opportunist; on the other hand he is one of the few Polish novelists who has understood the saving grace of humour. The most important among his novels are The Doll, giving a powerful picture of the social changes, The Emancypanthi, containing the story of the intellectual evolution of the Polish woman, and Pharaoh (1896), a great historical novel of ancient Egypt, showing the conflict of a genius with the great passive mass of the community. This novel deserves to be known abroad for its universal message.

A noble social tendency characterises the stories of Madame Eliza Orzeszko (1842–1910), which deal for the most part with new duties of Polish women in changed conditions affecting the peasantry and the small gentry of the Russo-Polish borderland, where the problem of preserving the Polises nationality was not less acute than in the Western provinces of Poland under the German rule. The most enduring among these novels is the one called *On the Niemen-side*. Of great interest are also her novels and short stories dealing with the Jewish life in the Eastern parts of Poland.

Adolf Dygasiński (1839–1902) belongs to a small group of Polish animalists. His short tales on the life of birds, dogs, and other animals are for their breadth of understanding and sympathy not unlike the stories of the late W. H. Hudson. His masterpiece, *The Feast of Life*, may rank with greatest foreign works of the same kind.

But all these novelists were overshadowed by the genius of **Henryk Sienkiewicz** (1846–1916). His first long novel, With Sword and Fire (1884), took the whole nation by storm.

This famous novel, its sequels The Deluge (1887) and Pan Wolodyjowski (1889), dealing with the most dramatic period in Polish history-that of the second half of the seventeenth century-was, and is still, unsurpassed as an historical novel. The whole past of Poland, with its virtues and vices, with its glory and misery, seemed to rise before the eyes of people at that time in the greatest depths of spiritual depression. It is not too much to say that this Trilogy became not only the most popular Polish book but a kind of national gospel, an inexhaustible and never-failing source of faith and hope. Its fame became universal, especially after the publication of the world-famous epic Quo l'adis (1896), when the demand for Sienkiewicz's works grew steadily in every civilised country. For the first time a work of a Polish writer was registered among the masterpieces all over the world, and the bestowal, in 1905, of the Nobel Prize for literature to Sienkiewicz did not cause surprise. Since then his name has been a great reminder to the whole world that Poland is still living and that her claims are not extinguished. In fact, Sienkiewicz became a kind of unofficial representative of the Polish nation abroad. He fulfilled this mission with great and magnanimous dignity. The same qualities are found in his treatment of the age-long conflict between the Slav and the Teuton, which constitutes the subject-matter of his next great book, The Knights of the Cross (1900). From the artistic point of view this novel shows a distinct advance on previous work in that it gives a fuller picture of the civilisation of the period. He was not only a master of the narrative but also of composition. His sense of proportion and harmony is so great that his works possess the rare quality of completeness, which turns them instantly into classics. The same can be said of his language; his prose is of the same sureness and the high quality as the English of Joseph Conrad. It is classic.

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He passed away at the age of seventy in the midst of the Great War, working hard till the last moment for the Polish cause. The removal of his body from Switzerland (1924) for re-burial in the native soil of independent Poland was the triumphant procession of an artist and a patriot to whom several other European nations paid homage.

Of this period of realistic novels the most eminent representatives were Adam Asnyk (1838-1897) and Marja Konopnicka (1842-1910). The former, a poet of considerable powers, deserves a brief note on account of the inner conflict underlying his poetry; a typical intellectualist, he refused to become a pure rationalist, while at the same time he could not subscribe any longer to the romantic system of thought. His best work—a cycle of sonnets called Over the Depths reflects this philosophical attitude. Marja Konopnicka, the first Polish poetess of great individual force, noted for her passionate sympathy with the disinherited and dispossessed of this world, has become the first poet of the proletariat. During the last decade of the last century there came to the fore a whole group of young, exuberant talents. Dissatisfied with the utilitarian character of art and poetry, they organised themselves into an independent body with the view of working out a new theory of art. This group, soon known as The Young Poland, rejected all accepted and conventional views of art and literature as a national function, and demanded an absolute freedom in form and matter. They introduced in Poland the modern ideas prevailing in Northern and Western Europe, and restored the authority of great Romanticists, hailing Juliusz Słowacki as their Great Parent. True to their principle of unfettered individuality, almost each of them tries his best to find his own way of expression. It would take us too far to dwell on the particular achievements of each member of this tormidable group. We must be content with a brief survey of the most notable personalities, remembering that, considering several evolutionary stages through which their minds passed, this survey must needs be rather one-sided.

The first among these young poets to gain fame and renown was **Kazimierz Tetmajer** (born 1865), whose love lyrics are comparable to the best work of French Parnassists. The modern poetry of France found a gifted and congenial interpreter in the person of **Zenon Przesmycki** (Miriam, 1861), who, first as translator and then as the editor of an ultramodern literary monthly called *The Chimaera* (a Polish equivalent to the English "The Yellow Book"), made the Western-European modernism popular with Polish intellectuals.

But the most forceful individuality was **Stanisław Przyby-szewski** (1868), who, having spent several years among the young Scandinavian and German writers (his earliest works appeared first in German), came back to Poland in 1898 and became at once the leader of the group and the editor of their organ, a weekly called *Life*. In spite of some opposition on the part of the older generation, his dramas, full of fatalistic terror, and his prose poems dealing with the mystical and tragic side of love and passion, became the fashion of the day.

The art editor of the said weekly was Stanisław Wyspiański (1869–1907), a painter of great originality, who became also the leading Polish dramatist; in fact, he is the first really great and original playwright since Slowacki, an artist and a man of theatre who contributed not a little to the development of the Art of the Theatre. His leading idea was to unite in the theatre the arts of painting, of architecture, and of drama, in which poetry and music should have their due share. The study of the Greek tragedy inspired him to works like Meleager and Protesilas and Laodamia, in which he tried his hand at the realisation of his idea in the simple Greek form. His next experiment was to apply the form of Greek tragedy to the setting of a Polish village in the two tragedies The

Curse and The Judges. His interest in Greek poetry was finally to find expression in two other works of great beauty and imagination on Greek themes—The Achilleis and The Return of Odysseus. But gradually his attention turned to Polish subjects, and especially to the problem of national strength and weakness, which is the root of the three dramas based upon the history of the Rebellion of 1831 (The Song of Warsaw, Lelewel and The November Night). The Legion—a drama of which the tragedy of Mickiewicz as the leader of Polish romanticism, is the subject-matter—constitutes the link between the past and the present day. The present-day problem was to Wyspiański that of national existence, which he dealt with in three powerful dramas—The Wedding, The Deliverance, and Akropolis.

The Wedding, first produced in 1901, is an epoch-making play in the history of the Polish theatre, and at the same time a landmark in the psychological evolution which took place within the Polish community at the beginning of the twentieth century. It was like taking stock in public of national strength and showing an adverse balance. The conscience of the whole nation was shaken. The Deliverance was a challenge thrown down to the national weakness; it rejected the false dreams of the romantics and demanded openly freedom and independence of life. The restoration of Poland as a sovereign State became since then not an idle dream but a real aim. Symbolic of its realisation is the third part of this dramatic Trilogy Akropolis, in which the resurrection of a Christ-Apollo and his triumph over death and servitude was like a prophetic vision of the coming restoration of the Polish nation.

From a theatrical point of view these works mean a new departure, and only an adequate stage production can do full justice to their unique qualities. However, some time will pass before they find their place on the European stage.

Jan Krasprowicz (1860), is no doubt the greatest contemporary Polish poet. With him, not unlike Thomas Hardy, the problem of evil and human suffering is the predominant subject. From the first small volume of poetry, published as far back as 1889, this problem inseparable from that of God and religion, finds expression growing more and more powerful in Christ, On the Hill of Death, and finally in the

cycle of Hymns dedicated To the Perishing World (1899–1901). Here the poet reaches the simplicity and the heights of Job or Aischylos. The echoes of the Prometheian struggle of man are in many others of his works, until at length the poet attains the wisdom of a resigned sage, which speaks from every line of his last work called The Book of the Poor (1916). This little book reminds one of Thomas Hardy's Moments of Vision.

The mood of spiritual calmness is also the dominant tone of **Leopold Staff** (1878) who started his poetical career with *Dreams of Might and Power*.

A cruel death at the hands of Russian Bolsheviks brought to an untimely end the life of **Tadeusz Miciński** (1873–1921), a poet endowed with extraordinary imagination, and a visionary of a deeply religious nature, whose influence on the youngest generation of poets is steadily growing.

Brought up in the atmosphere of the most stupid Russian oppression and persecution, **Stefan Żeromski** (1864), at that time one of the leading Polish novelists and playwrights, introduced the painful and profound pessimism of a modern mind tormented by the endless sight of wrong done by man to his fellow-man, and of the apparent triumph of the evil. This pessimism, strengthened by the special conditions of life under Russian rule, underlies the conception of his many novels depicting the utter futility of individual effort and self-sacrifice. The most typical among them are *The Homeless* (1900), and *The Fight with Satan*, a trilogy published at intervals during the war. The same attitude is maintained in his stories on the last armed Rebellion of 1863, although the heroes of this fore-doomed adventure are treated with deep emotional sympathy and understanding.

One of his outstanding artistic achievements is a great historical novel dealing with the Napoleonic period, and called *The Ashes* (1904). which shows very clearly the great change in the use of artistic means and technique, in comparison with Sienkiewicz, who seemed to have fashioned the final model of the historical novel. The change may be brought home to the mind of an English reader who compares the novels of Anthony Trollope with the earlier work of H. D. Lawrence. *The Ashes*, like almost all stories of Zeromski, is characterised

by its irregular structure showing many gaps in its action, incidents stretched out of all proportion, but welded into one whole by the strength of emotion. The lyrical quality is the greatest asset of the artistic skill of Zeromski coming to light in his incomparable love scenes and descriptions of nature. in which his language has an uncanny power of fascincation. The stately, classic prose of Sienkiewicz is here displaced by a new literary language able to produce a new mood and full of rhythm. But the difference between Sienkiewicz and Zeromski goes a step further. While the former was anxious to rouse the national feeling by his artistic calling to life of past glories, Zeromski, as if by contrast, does not shrink from the analysis of the most painful social and national ills. This explains why practically every new work of his becomes a subject of long and often vehement controversy. It is an evidence of the vitality of his message, that the youngest generation is always on his side. Such was the case after the publication of his novels dealing with the revolutionary movement of 1905, and it is the same to-day after the appearance of his last book called Before the Springtime, which comes as a timely warning against an undue optimism as to the future of Poland. The ideal of independent Poland was with him as sacred a presence as with the late Wyspiański.

In popularity second to none, and in his standing surpassed only by Zeromski is the fortunate winner of last year's Nobel Prize for Literature, Władysław Stanisław Reymont (1868), of an altogether different artistic organisation. He is mainly concerned with life as it is His joy and delight is to be one of the mass, a particle in the eternal movement. His first works were as faithful to life in realistic details as photographs. but photographs taken with the hand of a genius. These works present a very vivid picture of life among a company of strolling players, and among railwaymen; two sets of entirely different conditions and interests, which the author knew from experience having shared for a time their lot. His acute sense of observation, and his strong, almost brutal, directness in execution manifested itself in his short stories which deal with the life of peasantry. But his early ambition was to make a picture of life in a big industrial town. With this end in view he went to Lodz, the main centre of Polish textile industry and, having spent there a few months, he produced his famous novel called The Promised Land, which

brought him, on the part of critics, the title of a Polish Zola. It was, however, the apparently simple and monotonous, vet rich and complex life full of variety on the land, the life of the peasant, that became his main subject. Having once set his mind and heart on this theme. Revmont devoted to it five years of hard and incessant work until his great Tetralogy called The Peasants (1904-1909) was finished. This is a great epic novel, an achievement unique of its kind in the annals of modern literature. In the huge yet simple framework of the four seasons, he re-created the whole life of a typical village, binding the four parts of the novel organically by the dramatic story of three persons. Although the psychology of the people remains faithfully Polish the work attains a universal importance by its fulness and completeness of treatment. It was soon translated into several foreign languages and now, after it has won the Nobel Prize (1924) it has been officially acknowledged as one of the world's masterpieces.*

Reymont's next adventure was in the field of historical novel. His ambition was, no doubt, to equal his great predecessor, Henryk Sienkiewicz. He chose as his theme the second half of the eighteenth century, that is to say the last decades of the independent Kingdom of Poland. But his trilogy on this subject, while displaying many qualities of his genius, lacked that of completeness without which a work of art remains only so much raw material.

Much more is expected from his new cycle of novels based on the life of Polish immigrants in the United States of America.

Reymont's The Peasants was to a certain degree the crowning achievement of the movement which aimed at an artistic introduction of the popular element into art and literature. As far as literature was concerned this aim was partially and locally realised in some of the plays of Wyspiański, and even more effectively in a series of short stories of Tetmajer, published under the title of On the Polish Rockies, in which the author succeeded in re-creating the vanishing primitive life of the natives of the Polish Highlands. These

Published in English by Jarrolds, London, and Knopf, New York.

stories led him finally to a more ambitious adventure which resulted in a long novel called *The Tatra Saga*. The interest in the life and manners of Polish Highlanders soon became fashionable, and a whole group of poets and prose writers followed his example. Among them the strongest individuality is that of **Władysław Orkan**, who, like Tetmajer, was born and brought up in these parts of Poland, but unlike his master, was himself of the peasant stock while the former belonged to the small gentry.

The most talented representative of exotism in Polish literature is Waclaw Sieroszewski (1858), whose works deal mostly with life in Northern Siberia and the Far East, which he got to know when banished thither by the Russian authorities for a political offence. His prolonged stay among the native tribes of Northern and Eastern Siberia, resulted in a series of most fascinating and interesting short stories, in which the hard lot and primitive life of these Siberian tribes is presented most objectively, yet not without human touch and understanding. The same humanitarian qualities are in his novels on life in Japan and China. On his return to Poland, Sieroszewski took an active part in the Polish revolutionary movement working hand in hand with the youngest generation. His recent works deal with the national martyrology of the last century.

An artist of rare subtlety and perfect artistic skill is **Wacław Berent** (1873), who, in spite of the scarcity of his productions, is considered a first-class writer. Among his five or six novels the most important are: Rot and Winter-Sowing, containing a most subtle analysis of the life at the end of the last century; his latest work, Living Stones (1918), an amazingly rich and interesting picture of mediæval life with its horrors of superstition and naivele of faith, revealed a new and unexpected aspect of his genius.

Among the novelists who chose to follow the path made safe by the genius of Sienkiewicz, the most talented is **Jozef Weyssenhof** (1860); his series of novels dealing for the most part with the life of the Polish landed gentry in the Eastern parts of Poland, deserve high praise for the skill with which he manages to draw his figures, and for his deep love and understanding of the life of nature.

Among the novelists who belong to the school of Zeromski, the most conspicuous are Gustaw Danilowski and Andrzej Strug.

The rarest element in the modern Polish literature, the element of broad humour and laughter, is represented by the works of **Kornel Makuszyński**, whose short stories under such titles as *Merry Stories*, *Romantic Tales*, and *Queer Happenings*, are among the best sellers in Poland.

These are the most important writers of the older generations. The writers of the youngest generation are still too new to challenge a final judgment on their accomplishments. But there is one author who stands out as a link between these two groups and who, on account of his strong individuality deserves a special mention—Piotr Chovnowski. His line of development up to the present is not unlike that of young Sienkiewicz, but whether his formidable powers will develop sufficiently for a like achievement time only will The fact remains, however, that the youngest generation of prose-writers cannot claim so far the possession of a talent that can equal the high measure set by the leaders of the older generation. It is true that the war experiences found expression in some notable works of such writers as Madame Kossak-Szczucka, and above all Juliusz Kaden-Bandrowski. But the restoration of the Polish State, the regained political freedom must needs bring a radical change in the literature of the future.

With the normal conditions of spiritual and intellectual development restored, literature must resign a good deal of its former position as one of the guiding forces in national life. Immediately before the war, already an interesting controversy arose in Poland, as to the use of literature as a means of patriotic propaganda. Apart from this natural change there are other important factors which seem to point that the development of a new literature may be rather slow in coming. These factors are of economic and social nature. It is only natural that the huge task of building up a new mechanism of national life will for many years to come demand all the thought and care and energy of the people. This of course does not mean that there will be no literary activity in the new Poland. On the contrary, there is already a great movement, but it is necessarily of a somewhat chaotic and transitional nature. The most distinct and definite advance is to be found in poetry. We may trace its origin to the war. Already during the war which for the Polish youth was the war of emancipation and liberation, there came into being

two notable groups of young poets, one in Poznań, the capital city of the Western provinces of Poland, another in Warsaw. The latter soon absorbed the former, and is since 1920 the centre of the new poetic movement which is characterised by a boldly aggressive and joyous view of life. Among these young poets the most promising are: Juljan Tuwim, Kazimierz Wierzyński, Jan Lechoń, Antoni Słonimski and Jarosław Iwaszkiewicz.

But this group, which finds its inspiration in the noise and din of the modern industrial cities, is not the sole representative of the new movement. There are already in being others, which look for their inspiration to the quietness and retirement of a country life, seeking rather solitude and loneliness than the distracting crowd.

The organiscr and spiritual leader of these bodies is **Emil Zegadłowicz**, a prolific writer of both plays and poetry remarkable for their sincerity and undeniable novelty.

Of course, the masters of "Young Poland" group, Tetmajer, Kasprowicz, and Staff, are still active, but their poetry has little in common with the experimental work of the youngest pioneers.

As to the novel, its greatest master is still Stefan Zeromski, whose vitality and amazing sensitiveness to the newest forms of life remain undiminished. On the contrary, his artistic power seems to be on the increase, considering that his recent attempts at play-writing met with considerable success.

The fact that a great part of the Polish territory was actually the battle-field for practically six years, may possibly explain why there were relatively few real war stories written by Polish writers. The one notable exception is a volume of short stories called The Horse on the Hill-top, the work of Eugene Malaczewski, a very talented young soldier who fell at the front. On the other hand, the scattering of the Polish exiles over the vast territories of European and Asiatic Russia, called into being at least one writer of unsurpassed energy and imagination in the person of Ferdinand Ossendowski, whose amazing experiences set down in a series of books, Beasts, Men and Gods, Man and Mystery in Asia, The Shadow of the Gloomy East, and From President to Prison, all written during the last four years, were translated into every civilised

language and became quite a revelation to the minds of American and Western-European readers.

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The immediate post-war Polish problems, reflecting the social and political changes brought about by the collapse of the pre-war systems prevailing in Germany and Russia attracted soon a good deal of attention on the part of several writers of the older generation, notably of Zygmunt Bartkiewicz and Adam Grzymała-Siedlecki.

The historical novel which played such an important part in the literature of the last century seems to be on the decline: indeed, the call of the present with its new problems is too urgent to leave much time for brooding over the past.

Another striking feature of the moment is the great number of translations from foreign writers. The most popular foreign author is Jack London, whose works are read by the masses; for different reasons a Polish edition of the works of the late Joseph Conrad was undertaken a few years ago and proved an immense success.

The work aiming at enriching the Polish literature with adequate Polish versions of the world classics which was started some twenty years ago is being continued. Among the translators of these masterpieces are some of the greatest writers, like Kasprowicz, who is working on a complete translation of Shakespeare; Staff, a congenial translator of old and modern Italian poetry; Przybyszewski, an able interpreter of German modernists, and so on. A special mention must be made of the work of Edward Por Ebowicz, translator of Dante, Byron, Calderon and Cervantes, and of Tadeusz Boy-Zelenski, who for more than twenty years has been busy

with making a Polish version of practically every French masterpiece from Villon and Rabelais down to Balzac and Stendhal. The greatness of this unique achievement can be measured by the fact that the number of volumes so far translated and published is nearly a hundred, and that the individuality of each writer is faithfully preserved.

There are many other translators who work most conscientiously and excellently, thus enriching the Polish literature with new acquisitions and giving to the mind of the common reader food otherwise inaccessible. One could wish that there

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nre in were in foreign countries writers who could do the same to Polish masterpieces. It is to be hoped that the fresh example given by **Professor Rapal Noyes**, of Berkeley (California), who has published several Polish works of Mickiewicz and Kochanowski, translated into English in collaboration with some of his talented pupils, will find followers in other centres of English learning.

In this connection one has to welcome the action of the Warsaw P.E.N. Club, preparing for early publication a list of Polish works worthy of translation into foreign languages,

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2. THE PRESS IN POLAND.

The number of newspapers, periodicals, publications, etc., registered in Poland is 1,250, of which 1,075 are published in Polish and the remaining 175 in various other languages. No fewer than 150 Polish periodicals are published in foreign countries—in Europe, North and South America, and even in the Far East. The total number of Polish periodicals appear-

ing throughout the world is, therefore, 1,400.

In Poland, the Press of the Metropolis occupies the chief position both as regards the number of publications and the variety of their contents: 375 periodicals are issued in Warsaw. Of these, 350 are Polish and 25 in other languages—viz., 17 in Yiddish, 3 in Russian, 2 in French, 1 in English and 1 in Esperanto. The daily press is represented by 25 newspapers (Polish, 20; Yiddish, 3; Russian, 1; and French, 1). The remaining 350 publications include political and literary magazines, scientific and professional papers, as well as various periodicals dealing with social, theatrical and musical matters. Of these, 90 appear weekly, 60 fortnightly, 150 monthly, and 60 quarterly.

The second place amongst Polish cities as regards Press development is occupied by Lwów, with its 250,000 inhabitants. No fewer than 120 publications are issued there, about 100 in Polish and the remaining 20—in Ruthenian (16), Yiddish (2),

German (1), and English (1).

The Press of Lwów is followed by that of Kraków and Poznań. In either of these cities, of approximately 200,000 inhabitants,

about 100 periodicals are published.

In addition to these four large cities publishing 100 or more periodicals, there are three other towns with from 30 to 50 publications. These are Łódź, Wilno and Katowice.

Lodz, with a population of 500,000, has but 50 Press organs, of which 32 are published in Polish, 10 in German and 8 in

Yiddish.

Wilno, on the other hand, has 35 periodicals (25 Polish) for its population of 160,000. Katowice, with a somewhat smaller population, publishes 35 periodicals, of which 28 are issued in Polish and 7 in German.

Outside Poland, the Polish Press is best represented in the United States, where no fewer than 100 Polish publications

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are issued in 44 different localities—viz., 20 in Chicago, 7 in Detroit, 6 each in Milwaukee, Philadelphia and Cleveland, 5 in New York, 3 in Buffalo and Pittsburg, and one or two in each of the other centres of Polish emigration. On the other hand, Polish emigration in South America (Brazil and Argen-

tine) is represented by only 5 periodicals.

As regards European countries, the Polish Press is well represented in Germany, especially in districts bordering on Poland, in France (Paris, Lille and Lens), Austria and Czecho-Slovakia. In other countries, such as Lithuania, Latvia and Rumania, there are usually one or two publications issued periodically. In Soviet Russia there are three Communist papers published in Polish. A Polish weekly appears in Kharbin (Asia), and a Polish-English-Japanese paper is published in Japan.

The predominant class of Polish publications consists of newspapers of a political character; it includes 850 publications, of which 300 are daily papers published throughout the country and in the larger centres of Polish emigration.

Publications of a special character usually appear in large cities which are the centres of economic, social, and intellectual life. These publications number 450, and include weeklies, magazines, reviews, etc. Nearly 100 of these are literary magazines and reviews. No fewer than 90 publications are issued by various organisations and Trade Unions. Next, as regards numerical importance, follow papers dealing with the various aspects and branches of agriculture; this group includes 50 periodicals. Trade and Industry are represented by 30 publications, and Co-operative Societies by only 10. Fifteen periodicals deal with Banking and Insurance Papers of a technical character, dealing with mining, railway engineering, automobiles, etc., are less numerous (15). It is noteworthy that wireless and broadcasting is represented by 5 special periodicals appearing periodically.

The medical press is well represented. There are 15 medical papers, 5 dealing with dentistry and 7 with pharmaceutical chemistry. Sporting papers include 40 periodicals of the most varied character. The Army is also well represented by nearly 10 publications, and the Theatre, Music, and Cinema by 15. Numerous papers are published regularly by University students. Ten magazines deal with fashions, house-keeping, etc., and a similar number of children's papers is also published. Generally speaking, there is not one aspect

of life, from theological problems to stamp-collecting and chess, which is not represented in the Polish Press by one or more

special organs.

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It is noteworthy that the numerical strength of the Press is steadily increasing. In spite of the severe restrictions under the former Central and Russian Governments, the Polish Press was represented at the outbreak of the war by 1,200 publications. In 1915 only 400 of these were regularly published. With the re-establishment of Polish independence in 1918 this figure at once increased to 800. In 1919 there were already 1,000 publications; in 1921, 1,100; in 1922, 1,200; and in 1925, 1,400.

Amongst the papers appearing at present there are only about 200 periodicals which existed before the war, and only a few which have existed for over a hundred years. The latter are represented by three newspapers—viz., Gazeta Warszawska, established in 1774; Gazeta Lwowska, estab-

lished in 1811, and Kurjer Warszawski, in 1821.

The bulk of periodicals appearing at present was first issued after the war, as a result of the entirely new forms of political life. Some of them are, however, unable to continue their existence; hence the continuous fluctuations in the

number of Press organs.

The formerly Russian parts of the country published the bulk of the Polish Press, which was, however, devoid of any political character, owing to the severe censorship of the Russian authorities. Political news and articles could be published only in an ambiguous form intended to deceive the Russian censors. The political Press in the former Russian provinces was represented by "illegal" papers published and circulated secretly. The situation in the Austrian and German provinces was considerably better, but the Press there could only discuss the political situation of its particular province and not that of the whole nation as such.

A Political Press on a large scale was established only after the war. The Conservatives (Right) are represented by Gazeta Warszawska, Rzeczpospolita, Warszawianka, Gazeta Poranna, and Kurjer Warszawski. The Centre parties are represented by the Echo Warszawskie and the Kurjer Polski. The interests of the Left are safeguarded by the Kurjer Poranny

and the Socialist Robotnik.

The two most prominent illustrated weeklies are Swiat (The World) and Tygodnik Ilustrowany. The chief places

amongst monthly reviews are occupied by the Przegląd Warszawski (Warsaw Review) and the Przeglad Współczesny

(Contemporary Review), published in Kraków.

Foreigners can obtain all information about Poland from Polish papers published in foreign languages, such as the Baltische Presse (German) of Danzig, Messager Polonais (French) of Warsaw, and La Pologne (French) of Paris, Poland (English) of Chicago, and L'Est Européen (French) of Warsaw. In addition, most of the Polish reviews give a brief synopsis in French of their more important articles.

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The Press is supplied with an efficient news service by the various agencies, such as the Polish Telegraph Agency, the Eastern Agency, etc. Numerous advertisement newspapers, such as *Reklama Polska*, *Par*, have been established after

the war.

A School of Journalism exists in connection with the Free University in Warsaw.

3. THE THEATRE IN POLAND.

The development of the theatrical art in Poland, which, together with her literature, music and sculpture, has to-day attained the high Western European standard, has been gradual, and has progressed during the last 150 years, which are marked by an intense activity.

Until the second half of the eighteenth century the theatre in Poland was regarded as an expression of religious or philosophical doctrines, which were presented to the public in the form of mystery plays and theological dialogues. It is true that even before that time there existed a demand for free theatrical art, but this was confined almost exclusively to the Royal Court and to the nobles of the land. As far back as the beginning of the seventeenth century the English troop of John Green was invited to play before the King: Italian operas were performed at the Court of King Ladislas IV .; and French companies toured the country during the reign of John Casimir. The love of theatrical art in Poland was awakened by the performances of these travelling companies and found its expression in the creation of National Polish Theatrical Art in the eighteenth century. Theatre buildings were hastily erected, professional schools were established, and Polish plays were produced. The name of Woiciech Bogusławski will for ever be associated with the development of the Polish theatre. He did for Poland what Ardi has done for France and Lope de Vega for Spain.

During the period of political oppression throughout the nineteenth century the theatre became the most important mouthpiece of the nation's intellectual life. The Polish language, banned from public and social functions, was allowed on the stage; and, although the theatre was gagged by the ruthless censorship of the Partition Powers, the dignified language of Polish poets and playwrights was heard by the widest masses of the enslaved nation. When, in consequence of the partial autonomy of the former Austrian provinces, Polish classics were introduced into the repertory of the Kraków Theatre, that city became the mecca of Polish patriots, who sought within its walls further inspiration for their efforts of liberating their country.

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With the re-establishment of Polish independence the inborn love for theatrical art has expressed itself with all its force. The activity in this direction has been so intense that after the short period of six years Poland can boast 38 permanent art theatres, apart from touring companies and sporadical performances. Warsaw alone possesses 13 permanent theatres including a representative opera, and five first-class dramatic stages. Towns like Kraków, Lwów, Poznań, Łódź and Wilno have each two or more permanent theatres; and even towns like Katowice, Torun, Bydgoszcz and Grudziądz, which were particularly subject to Germanisation, have established their own Polish theatres.

The classical Polish literature of the nineteenth century represented by Mickiewicz, Slowacki, Krasinski and Norwid, and stirring the deepest problems of Polish national life and of mankind in general, was created abroad, away from the Polish stage, and could not, therefore, have a decisive influence on Polish theatrical art. Only between the years 1900 and 1907 Stanislas Wyspiański (see section on Literature), playwright and painter, produced a classical Polish drama. Having inherited the ideology of Polish romantic literature, and being in direct contact with the stage, he was able to present his credo by means of theatrical symbols, and not in literary shape. His art, modelled on the Greek musical tragedy, presented the true spiritual qualities of the nation in rhythmical scenes. The most promising amongst the followers of Wyspiański is Charles Hubert Rostworowski (Judas of Iscarioth).

The development of Polish realistic drama and comedy was greatly influenced by the French theatrical art. The greatest Polish artists of the nineteenth century, such as Królikowski,

Żółkowski and Helen Modrzejewska, known and admired throughout the world, were educated on French models. Polish playwrights were similarly influenced, although since the times of Count Alexander Fredro (1822-1840) Poland has possessed its own comedy, representing the life of the Polish squires and town-dwellers.

Realism, based on the French art, equally foreign to the extremes of naturalism as to the reformatory tendencies of the seekers after new form, is characteristic of the Polish playwright and actor. The exceptional abundance of theatrical talents prior, and since, the war caused the appearance of first-class dramatic and comic stars on the stage of the Warsaw Theatre—one of the best in Europe as regards its personnel.

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To-day this theatre has adopted its traditional name of National Theatre, and attracted almost every prominent actor of the older generation. It is sufficient to mention such names as Kamiński, the great impressionist artist; Solski, with his gift for plastic expression; Frenkiel, the great comedian; in addition to the talented artists of the younger generation.

The Polish Theatre, established shortly before the war. constitutes a desirable competitor to the National Stage. Conducted by that untiring manager, M. Szyfman, the theatre is equipped with the latest devices in theatrical art, including a revolving stage and excellent lighting apparatus. The excellent stage decorations and the conformance with historical truth in every detail are characteristic of this stage. The repertory consists of the classical works of the Polish Romantic Literature, of Aristophanes, Shakespeare, Calderon, Molière and Schiller, produced with the aid of bold decorative schemes. excellent staging of crowds, and latest technical installation; they are played constantly in the Polish Theatre. The unsurpassed decorative talent of M. Vincent Drabik was developed on this stage; the decoration of stage interiors in entrusted to M. Charles Frycz, the expert on architectural styles and periods. Here, under the guidance of prominent stage managers, the majority of the present generation of actors educated and perfected their talents.

M. Joseph Wegrzyn heads the list of modern Polish dramatic artists. His power of dramatic expression, his beautiful modulation of voice, and the elasticity of transformation which allows him to play heroic and grotesque rôles with equal facility, makes him a unique impersonator of Conrad in Mickiewicz's Forefathers, Brutus in Julius Cæsar, Otello or Don Juan.

Characters of great heroism, or those incarnating the unchecked elemental joy of life, such as Coriolanus or Antonius, are played with the greatest success by M. George Leszczyński.

M. Alexander Zelwerowicz, Director of the State Dramatic School, is an artist of excellence and a prominent pedagogue. Almost feminine charm, and the ascetic severity of the drama are represented by M. Jules Osterwa, Director of the experimental theatre Reduta.

Although there is no lack of gifted and charming actresses amongst the personnel of Polish theatres, the fair sex is not so well represented on the Polish stage. The most prominent among them are Mme. Irene Solska, an artiste of great culture and powerful dramatic expression; Mme. Stanisława Wysocka, an excellent tragedienne; and Madame Marie Przybyłko-

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Potocka, unsurpassed in dialogue comedies.

The general realistic tendencies of the Polish Theatre do not exclude efforts of a different character. A radical experiment in this direction was made by the literary group Elsinore, who produced a drama of "pure form" by Witkiewicz. Of late, dramas and comedies of this type have been put on the stage of the Boguslawski Theatre. They were entrusted to M. Leon Schiller, one of the best stage managers besides Zelwerowicz, Solski, Kaminski, and Osterwa, and the

decorations to the gifted brothers Pronaszko.

Many Polish dramatic plays could be performed with success in the theatres of Western Europe. Apart from the works of Fredro and Wyspiański, which give a true idea of Polish theatrical art, the repertory of Polish theatres includes a number of fascinating dramas and excellent comedies. The plays of Tadeusz Rittner (Don Juan, Summer, The Man in the Prompter's Box) are characterised by their subtle romanic and penetrating psychology. The comedies of Winawer, Szaniawski (The Paper Lover), Katerwa (The Passer-by), Grubiński (Helen the Beautiful, The Innocent Sinner), and Perzyński (The Lighthearted Sister) would undoubtedly be welcomed by Western audiences.

Of recent years, Polish dramatic art has evoked considerable interest in other European countries. In Paris one of the greatest works of Wyspiański, The Wedding, was produced. Slowacki's Belladonna was played in Prague, where a number of Polish comedies by Winawer, Grubinski, Kiedrzynski and others have been acted. All plays of Ritner, Przybyszewski, Zapolska and Grubiński have been staged in Germany and in Vienna. In Helsingfors a series of Polish plays was given, from Fredro and Slowacki to the modern playwrights. A

comedy by Perzynski was played in Rome.

The plays of modern French writers form the bulk of foreign plays given in Poland. In addition to such writers as Romain Rolland, Anatole France and Claude Farrere, practically every modern French playwright was represented on the Polish stage, including E. Rostand, Claudel, Duhamel, Bataille, de Fleurs, and many others.

Modern English literature is represented by Bernard Shaw, whose plays continue to attract the public at every perform

THE THEATRE IN POLAND.

ance; they are acted almost continuously on every Polish stage. In addition to Shaw, the names of Galsworthy, Jerome, Bennett, Sheldon, Sutro and Maugham appear often in the repertory of Polish theatres.

The Italian art is represented by Pirandello, Chiarelli,

Rosso di San Secondo and Bracco.

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Detailed information as regards plays and their casts can be found in the magazine Polish Stage (Scena Polska), which counts amongst its foreign collaborators Hermon Ould, Horace Ship, Giovanni Bach, and many others. The Theatre Life (Zycie Teatru) and Theatrical Letters (Listy z Teatru) complete the literature of the Polish Theatre.

XII GENERAL INFORMATION

KII GENERAL INFORMATION

I - EXECUTIVE AUTHORITIES IN POLAND.

1. The Council of Ministers.

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Office: Nowy Świat 69.

Minister of Foreign Affairs Dr. Alexander Skrzyński. Office: Wierzbowa 1.

Minister of War . . . General Władysław Sikorski Office: Ministry of War, Nowowiejska.

Minister of Finance .. Władysław Grabski. Office: Rymarska 5.

Minister of Justice . . Antoni Żychliński. Office: Długa 7.

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Office: Senatorska 15

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Office: Nowy Świat 14.

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Minister of Agrarian Reforms Wiesław Kopczyński. Office: Szkolna i.

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Director of the Department: Z. SMILKA.

MIXED POLISH-RUSSIAN SETTLEMENT OF ACCOUNTS COMMISSION IN WARSAW.

Address: ul. Foksal 3.

LIQUIDATION COMMISSION (Liquidation of German Property in former Prussian Poland).

Address: ul. Foksal 3.

BANK OF POLAND.

President : S. KARPIŃSKI.

Vice-President : Dr. F. MLYNARSKI.

Board of Directors:

Head Director: Dr. W. MIECZKOWSKI.

Deputy Head Director: K. RYBIŃSKI.

Directors: Dr. M. Geisler, J. Koziel, Dr. Z. Karpiński.

DEPARTMENTS.

SECRETARIAT.

Chief of the Secretariat : E. SZYDŁOWSKI.

LEGAL SECTION.

Head of the Section : Dr. M. GEISLER.

Legal Adviser: Advocate C. Brzeziński.

ADMINISTRATIVE DEPARTMENT.

Chief of the Department: L. Gorazdowski.

ECONOMIC, TECHNICAL AND BUILDING INSPECTION DEPARTMENTS.

LOANS DEPARTMENT.

Chief of the Department: J. Koziel.

FOREIGN CURRENCY DEPARTMENT.

Chief of the Department: Dr. Z. KARPIŃSKI.

CENTRAL ACCOUNTS DEPARTMENT.

Chief Accountant: M. GAWROŃSKI.

TREASURY.

Treasurer: S. Orczykowski.

MINISTRY OF JUSTICE.

Address: ul. Dluga 7. Tel.: 28-86.

Minister of Justice: A. Zychliński. Receives on Tuesdays and Thursdays from II-I.

Under-Secretary of State: J. SIENNICKI. Receives on Wednesdays and Fridays from 11-2.

I.—LEGISLATIVE DEPARTMENT.

Director of the Department: W. Müller.

A.—CIVIL LAW SECTION.

Chief of the Section: K. Jaszczurowski, K. Kirst.

B.—CRIMINAL LAW AND ADMINISTRATIVE SECTION.

Chief of the Section: W. Kuczyński.

C.—INTERNATIONAL LAW SECTION.

Chief of the Section: W. Jabloński.

II.—ADMINISTRATIVE DEPARTMENT.
Director of the Department: W. Augustynowicz.

III.—CRIMINAL DEPARTMENT.

Director of the Department: F. GLOWACKI.

A —ADMINISTRATION OF PRISONS SECTION.

Head of the Section: L. JAXA-MALESZEWSKI.

B.—PRISON LABOUR SECTION.

Chief of the Section: W. GANTNER.

C.—PENAL SECTION.

Chief of the Section: W. KENIG, S. WARMSKI.

EDITORIAL OF THE JOURNAL OF LAWS (Dz. U. R.P.) and the Official Journal of the Minister of Justice.

Editor: K. Szarski.
Reporter: J. Medyk.
Chancellor: W. Klyszewska.

SUPREME COURT.

Address: Pl. Krasińskich 6. Tel.: 314-24, 314-28, 310-81, 310-82.

President: W. Seyda.

Procurator-General: Dr. K. Marowski.

CENTRAL COUNCIL OF BARRISTERS.

Address: Pl. Dabrowskiego 3. Tel.: 133-01.

MINISTRY OF RELIGION AND PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

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Address: ul. Bagatela 12. Tel.: 511-62, 311-63.

Minister: Dr. S. Grabski.

Under-Secretary of State: T. Łopuszański.

Private Secretary:

GENERAL DEPARTMENT.

Director of the Department: Dr. K. Dawidowski.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS DEPARTMENT.

Director of the Department: W. Zlobicki.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS DEPARTMENT.

Director of the Department: Vacant.

TECHNICAL SCHOOLS DEPARTMENT. Director of the Department: M. Jarniński.

DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE AND HIGHER SCHOOLS.

Address: ul. Szopena 1.

Director of the Department: Dr. J. ZAWIDZKI.

FINE ARTS DEPARTMENT.

Address: ul. Nowogrodzka 21.

Director of the Department: J. SKOTNICKI.

DEPARTMENT FOR RELIGIOUS MATTERS
Director of the Department; Dr. S. PIEKARSKI.

INSTITUTIONS CONTROLLED BY THE MINISTRY OF RELIGION AND PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

School Boards: In Warsaw, Łódź, Białystok, Wilno, Brześć-on-Bug. Łuck, Poznań, Toruń, Kraków, Lwów, Katowice.

MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE AND STATE LANDS.

Address: ul. Senatorska 15. Tel.: 39-03.

Minister: S. Janicki.

Vice-Minister: Dr. J. Raczyński.

GENERAL DEPARTMENT.

Chief of the Department: W. Leśniewski.

Deputy Chief: A. Ludkiewicz.

RURAL ECONOMY SECTION.

Chief of the Section: S. Królikowski.

GENERAL DEPARTMENT.

Director of the Department: F. UBYSZ.

AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT.

Director of the Department: W. Dykier.

SECTION I.—HORTICULTURAL PRODUCTION.

Chief of the Section: J Hewell.

SECTION II.—FISHERIES.

Chief of the Section (Acting): J. Borowik.

SECTION III —STOCK BREEDING.

Acting Chief of the Section: H. Wysokiński.

SECTION IV.—SCIENCE OF AGRICULTURE.

Chief of the Section (Deputy): M. SEROCZYŃSKA.

SECTION V.—AGRARIAN REFORMS.

Chief of the Section: Engineer S. Turczynowicz.

FORESTRY DEPARTMENT.

Director of the Department: J. Miklaszewski.

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SECTION I.—GENERAL.
Chief of the Section: J. VOGTAM.

SECTION II —PROTECTION OF FORESTS.

Chief of the Section: S. Zurkowski.

VETERINARY DEPARTMENT.

Director of the Department: F. Fiscoeder.

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INFORMATION BUREAU.

OFFICES CONTROLLED BY THE MINISTRY OF AGRICULTURE AND STATE LANDS.

STATE STUD OFFICES.

Address: ul. Senatorska 15.

Director: F. Jurjewicz.

OFFICES OF THE POLISH STATE FORESTS.

Director; M. Jastrzębski;

Vice-Director (Acting): J. Potocki.

STATE METEOROLOGICAL INSTITUTE.

Address: ul. Nowy Swiat 27.

Director: W. Gorczyński.

MINISTRY OF INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE.

Address: ul. Elektoralna 2. Tel.: 412-01.

Minister: C. Klarner.

Private Secretary: T. Ocieszyński.

Vice-Minister: Vacant.

DEPARTMENT I.—GENERAL
Director of the Department: W. MALANGIEWICZ.

GENERAL OFFICES.

Director: M. Orzęcki.

Legal Adviser: Z. Dziewanowski.

PRESS BUREAU AND LIBRARY.

Director: A. Jackowski.

PERSONAL SECTION.

Chief of the Section: Engineer S. Arczynski.

ECONOMIC FINANCES SECTION. Chief of the Section: M. Juszkiewicz.

JOINT STOCK COMPANIES SECTION.

Chief of the Section: S. Sokołowski.

DEPARTMENT II.—MINING AND SMELTING.

Director of the Department: S. SWIĘTOCHOWSKI.

MINING ADMINISTRATION SECTION.

Chief of the Section: Dr. F. Dominik-Rybarzewski.

MINING FINANCES SECTION.

Chief of the Section: L. MARTINI.

COAL MINING SECTION.

Chief of the Section: J. Cybulski.

MINING AND SMELTING SECTION. Chief of the Section: W. Choroszewski.

PETROLEUM MINING SECTION. Chief of the Section: S. Bartoszewicz.

DEPARTMENT III.—INDUSTRIAL.

Director of the Department: [. DABROWSKI.

INDUSTRIAL POLITICS SECTION.

Chief of the Section: W. Zwoliński.

INDUSTRIAL ADMINISTRATION SECTION.

Chief of the Section: J. Watten.

GREAT INDUSTRIES SECTION.

Chief of the Section: C. Benedek.

SMALL INDUSTRIES AND HANDICRAFT SECTION.

Chief of the Section: W. HAUSZYLD.

DEPARTMENT IV.—TRADE.

INTERNAL TRADE SECTION.

Chief of the Section: A. Siebencieben-Siebeneycher.

FOREIGN TRADE SECTION.

Chief of the Section; Landie.

TRADE TURNOVER SECTION.

Chief of the Section: RÉNE.

DEPARTMENT V.—MERCANTILE NAVY. Director of the Department: G. Chrzanowski.

PORT SECTION.

Chief of the Section: S. ŁEGOWSKI.

Director of Construction at the Port of Gdynia: Engineer T. WENDA

FLEET SECTION.

Chief of the Section: H. PISTEL.

INSTITUTES CONTROLLED BY THE MINISTRY OF INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE.

STATE GEOLOGICAL INSTITUTE.

Address: ul. Nowy Świat 72.

Director: Professor J. Morozewicz.

PATENT OFFICE OF THE POLISH REPUBLIC.

Address: ul. Elektoralna 2, III. p.

Director: S. Czaykowski.

SECTION I.—GENERAL.
Chief of the Section: The Director.

SECTION II.—REGISTRY OF MODELS.

Acting Chief of the Section: S. GAWRON.

SECTION III.—REGISTRY OF INVENTIONS.

Chief of the Section: W. Romer.

SECTION IV.—REGISTRY OF TRADE MARKS.

Chief of the Section: R. JEREMIN.

SECTION V.—DISPUTABLE MATTERS.

Director: Vacant.

SECTION VI.—APPEALS.

Director: The Director of the Office.

EDITORIAL AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE JOURNAL "PATENTS OFFICE NEWS" (WIADOMOŚCI URZĘDU PATENTOWEGO).

Editor: W. OLSZEWSKI.

CHANCERY.

Chancellor: J. Chwiejewski.

CENTRAL ASSAYING OFFICE.

Address: ul. Złota 22.

Director: A. Krajewski.

Vice-Director: Vacant.

CHANCERY.

Chancellor: H. RIEGERTOWA.

GENERAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE DEPARTMENT.

Chief of the Department: A. Krajewski.

TECHNICAL DEPARTMENT.

Chief of the Department: A. Krajewski.

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SECTION A .-

SECTION B.—HALL MARK DIES AND MEDAL WORKS.
SECTION C.—REFINERY OF PRECIOUS METALS.

INSTITUTIONS CONTROLLED BY THE CENTRAL ASSAYING OFFICE.

ASSAYING OFFICE AT KRAKÓW.

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ASSAYING OFFICE AT WILNO.

Director: J. Prokopowicz.

ASSAYING OFFICE AT POZNAŃ.

Director: Vacant.

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OFFICES OF THE STATE MINING AND SMELTING WORKS.

Address: ul. Elektoralna 2.

Director: Engineer E. PEPLOWSKI.

Departments: (a) Salt, (b) Coal, (c) Petroleum, (d) General.

CENTRAL WEIGHTS AND MEASURES OFFICE.

Address: ul. Elektoralna 2. Tel.: 82-07.

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I. Vice-Director: S. Muszkat.

II. Vice-Director: T. SAGAJELO.

SECTION I.--METEOROLOGICAL. Director: Z. RAUSZER.

SECTION II.—LEGAL AND EXECUTIVE. Chief of the Section: S. Muszkat.

SECTION III.—ADMINISTRATIVE. Chief of the Section: T. SAGAJLLO

District Weights and Measures Offices at Warsaw, Lublin Lwów, Poznań, Królewska Huta (Silesia) and Wilno are controlled by the Central Weights and Measures Office.

CENTRAL POST AND TELEGRAPH OFFICE.

Address: Plac Napoleona 8.

General Director: J. Moszczyński.

I. Vice-Director: Engineer W. Dobrowolski.
II. Vice-Director: H. Heilmann.

SECTION I.—GENERAL.

Chief of the Section: W. LESIECKI.
SECTION II.—PERSONAL.

Chief of the Section: Dr. M. KACZOROWSKI.

SECTION III.—CASH OFFICE AND BUDGET.

Chief of the Section: M. Bajer.

SECTION IV.—LOCAL.

Chief of the Section: Z. GRĄCZKOWSKI.

SECTION V.—ORGANIZATION. Chief of the Section: D. Moszoro.

SECTION VI.—HOME POSTAGE.

Chief of the Section: T. PREPKA.

SECTION VII.—FOREIGN POSTAGE.

Chief of the Section: J. WALCHER.

SECTION VIII.—TRANSPORT.

Chief of the Section: S. Maciejewski.

SECTION IX.—POSTAL MATERIALS.

Chief of the Office: L. Szczurkiewicz.

SECTION X.—TECHNICAL.

Chief of the Section: S. DASZYŃSKI.

SECTION XI.—EXPLOITATION OF TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES.

Chief of the Section : S. ŁUKASIEWICZ (Acting).

SECTION XII.—CONSTRUCTIONS AND CONSERVATIONS.

Chief of the Section: K. Sokolowicz.

SECTION XIII.—RADIO COMMUNICATIONS.

Chief of the Section: E. Siellinger.

SECTION XIV.—ACCOUNTS.

Chief Accountant: F. LADA.

ADVISORY BODY AT THE MINISTRY OF INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE.

Industrial and Commercial Council. State Petroleum Council. Mechanics Council.

COMMISSION FOR MATTERS CONNECTED WITH THE EXPLOITATION OF THE PORT OF DANZIG.

Address: ul. Elektoralna 2.

REFRIGERATION COMMISSION.

CUSTOMS DEPARTMENT AT THE MINISTRY OF INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE.

CUSTOMS COMMITTEE.
STATE CHEMICAL COUNCIL.

MINISTRY OF PUBLIC WORKS.

Address: ul. Kredytowa 9.
Under-Secretary of State: Engineer M. Rybczyński.

GENERAL SECTION.
Chief of the Section: Z. WARCHALOWSKI.

ADMINISTRATIVE DEPARTMENT. Director of the Department: J. Opolski.

WATERWAYS DEPARTMENT.
Director of the Department: Dr. A. Różański.

INLAND NAVIGATION SECTION.

Chief of the Section: J. ZACZEK.

WATERWAYS SECTION.
Chief of the Section: A. KONOPKA.

INNAVIGABLE WATERS SECTION. Chief of the Section: M. Prokopowicz.

ELECTRICAL SECTION.

Address: ul. Foksal 11.

Chief of the Section: K. SIWICKI.

CENTRAL HYDROGRAPHICAL OFFICE.

Chief of the Office: T. Zubrzycki.

CONSTRUCTIONS SECTION.

Director of the Department: K. JAKIMOWICZ

STATE BUILDINGS SECTION.
Chief of the Section: T. ŁAPIŃSKI.

INSPECTION OF BUILDINGS AND COLONIZATION SECTION.

Chief of the Section: R. Feliński.

ROADS DEPARTMENT.

Director of the Department: M. NESTOROWICZ.

STATE ROADS SECTION.
Chief of the Section: M. RAPPE.

MUNICIPAL ROADS SECTION.
Chief of the Section: W. Godlewski.

BRIDGE SECTION.
Chief of the Section: M. Stróżewski.

SURVEYING SECTION.

Chief of the Section: T. Niedzielski.

GENERAL RECONSTRUCTIONS OFFICE (in liquidation).

President: S. Kruk.

MINISTRY OF RAILWAYS.

Address: ul. Nowy Świat 14.
Minister: K. Tyszka.
Vice-Minister: J. EBERHARDT.

GENERAL DEPARTMENT.

Chief of the Department: Dr. A. GALECKI.

DEPARTMENT I.—ADMINISTRATION.

Director of the Department: Dr. I. WRÓBEL.

SECTION 1.—PERSONAL.

Chief of the Section: T. Zajączkowski.

SECTION 2.—GRANTS AND SUPPLIES.

Chief of the Section: W. Schmidt.

SECTION 3.—LEGAL.
Chief of the Section: J. Hojny.

SECTION 4.—SANITATION.

Chief of the Section: Dr. Swiętochowski.

SECTION 4A.—INSURANCE.
Chief of the Section: P. Bodanowicz.

DEPARTMENT II.—FINANCIAL.

Director: W. MARKOWSKI.

SECTION 5.—BUDGETS.

Chief of the Section: L. ŚWIERGOCKI.

SECTION 6.—REVENUE. Chief of the Section : E. BRZEZOWSKI.

SECTION 7.—EXPENDITURE. Chief of the Section: W. MARKOWSKI.

DEPARTMENT III.—COMMERCIAL AND TARIFFS. Director of the Department: S. KOLAKOWSKI.

SECTION 8.—PASSENGER TARIFFS AND FREIGHTS. Chief of the Section: Dr. Z. TASZYCKI.

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SECTION 9.—INLAND GOODS FREIGHTS. Chief of the Section : J. GIEYSZTOR.

SECTION 10.—FOREIGN GOODS FREIGHTS. Chief of the Section: Vacant.

DEPARTMENT IV.—EXPLOITATION. Director of the Department: Engineer W. CZAPSKI.

> SECTION 11.—TRAFFIC. Chief of the Section : F. ADAM.

SECTION 12.—PASSENGERS. Chief of the Section: F. Moskwa

SECTION 13.—TRANSPORT. Chief of the Section : K. WLODEK.

SECTION 14.—ROLLING STOCK. Chief of the Section: M. GRONOWSKI.

SECTION 15-MILITARY. Chief of the Section : J. KATOLIŃSKI.

DEPARTMENT V .-- UPKEEP AND CONSTRUCTION. Director of the Department:]. MROZOWSKI.

> SECTION 16.—GENERAL AND BUILDING. Chief of the Section : W. BACZALSKI.

> > SECTION 17.—UPKEEP. Chief of the Section : B. HUMMEL. 649

GOVERNMENT AND PUBLIC OFFICES.

SECTION 18.—BRIDGES.

Chief of the Section: Z. Gubrynowicz.

SECTION 19.—INSURANCE OF RAILWAY TRAFFIC.

Chief of the Section: A. Zazula.

DEPARTMENT VI.—MECHANICAL AND STORES.

Director of the Department: H. Suchanek.

SECTION 20.—MECHANICAL AND TRACTION.

Chief of the Section: S. Wasilewski.

SECTION 21.—WORKSHOPS. Chief of the Section: J. WAGNER.

SECTION 22.—CONSTRUCTION AND PURCHASE OF ROLLING STOCK.

Chief of the Section: A. Langrod.

SECTION 23.—STORES AND PURCHASES.

Chief of the Section: J. BORTNOWSKI.

INSTITUTIONS CONTROLLED BY THE MINISTRY OF RAILWAYS.

- STATE RAILWAY OFFICES in Warsaw, Radom, Cracow, Lwów, Stanisławów, Poznań, Danzig, Wilno and Katowice.
- 2. STATE RAILWAY CONSTRUCTION OFFICES.
- 3. Commission for the Reconstruction of the Main Warsaw Railway Junction.

CONSTRUCTION OF STATE RAILWAYS OFFICES.

Address: ul. Wiejska 3. Tel.: 104-58.

Director: J. Berkiewicz.

ADMINISTRATIVE AND ECONOMIC SECTION.

Chief of the Section: M. WIDAWSKI.

TECHNICAL SECTION.

Chief of he Section 1 A. MISZKE.

FEGAL AND LAND SECTION. Chief of the Section: L. MANTEUFFEL.

GOVERNMENT AND PUBLIC OFFICES.

WORKSHOPS SECTION.

Chief of the Section; J. Kornacki.

TRANSPORT SECTION.

Chief of the Section: E Dudziński.

THE CONSTRUCTION OF HANGARS OFFICES.

Address: ul Smolna 5.
Director: S. Olszewski,
Vice-President: E. Chaścinski.

ACCOUNTS SECTION.

Chief Accountant: J. PNIEWSKI.

MINISTRY OF LABOUR AND SOCIAL WELFARE.

Address: Pl. Dabrowskiego 1. Tel.: 316-34, 316-24, 319-25.

Minister: F. Sokal.

Vice-Minister: G. Simon.

Chief Legal Adviser: J. PIERZCHALSKI.
DEPARTMENT I.—ADMINISTRATIVE.

Director of the Department: K. TOZZOCZKO.

SECTION 1.—GENERAL.

Chief of the Section: Z. SZUSTER.

SECTION 2.—PERSONAL.

Chief of the Section: F. MITARNOWSKI.

SECTION 3.—BUDGET AND ACCOUNTS.

Chief of the Section: W. Tyrakowski,

DEPARTMENT II.—PROTECTION OF LABOUR.

Director of the Department; Chief Inspector of Labour, M. Bohdan

KLOTT DE HEIDENFELD.

SECTION 4.—PROTECTION OF LABOUR IN INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE.

Chief of the Section: S. Roszkowski.

SECTION 5—PROTECTION OF LABOUR IN AGRICULTURE.

Chief of the Section: J. GNOIŃSKI.

SECTION 6.—POLICY OF LABOUR AND TRADE MOVEMENT.

Chief of the Section: T. ULANOWSKI.

DEPARTMENT III.—SOCIAL INSURANCE.

Director of the Department: S. Jurkiewicz.

SECTION 7.—INSURANCE AGAINST ILLNESS.

Chief of the Section: A. Korski.

SECTION 8 —PENSIONS.

Chief of the Section: W. ADAMCZAK.

DEPARTMENT IV.—SOCIAL WELFARE. Address: Nowowiejska 27c, Kolonja Staszica.

SECTION 9.—SOCIAL WELFARE INSPECTION.

Director: J. Paciorkowski.

SECTION 10.—PROTECTION OF CHILDREN AND YOUTHS.

Chief of the Section: B. KRAWKOWSKI.

SECTION 11.—PROTECTION OF ADULTS. Chief of the Section: Z. Dworczanczyk.

SECTION 12.—LABOUR EXCHANGE.

Chief of the Section: F. DRECKI.

SECTION 13.—ADMINISTRATION OF THE INSPECTION OF LABOUR (AUTONOMOUS).

INSTITUTIONS CONTROLLED BY THE MINISTRY OF LABOUR AND SOCIAL WELFARE.

Emigration Offices Address: Królewska 23 I. and IV. p.
Director: S. Gawroński
Vice-Director: L. Kulczycki.

ADMINISTRATIVE SECTION.

Director: S. Komorowski.

CONTINENTAL EMIGRATION SECTION. Chief of the Section: Dr. M. Balsiger.

OVERSEAS EMIGRATION SECTION.

Director: K. WARCHALOWSKI.

STATE LABOUR EXCHANGES.

INSPECTION OF LABOUR UNDER THE MINISTRY OF LABOUR AND SOCIAL WELFARE.

PROVINCIAL BRANCHES OF LABOUR AND SOCIAL WELFARE.

Such branches exist in every municipal office, at the Government Delegation at Wilno and at the Commissariat in the city of Warsaw.

SOCIAL INSURANCE OFFICES.

- (a) FORMER RUSSIAN AND AUSTRIAN POLAND.
 - I, CENTRAL INSURANCE OFFICE IN WARSAW.

 Director: A. Korski.
- The Central Insurance Office is an institute which is under the indirect control of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare (Dept. III. of Social Welfare) and the direct control of the Insurance Office against Illness (Law of 19th May, 1924).
 - 2. DISTRICT INSURANCE OFFICE: WARSAW, TORUŃ, LWÓW.
 - (b) FORMER PRUSSIAN POLAND.
 - I TRIBUNAL FOR SOCIAL INSURANCE MATTERS: POZNAŃ.
 - 2. INSURANCE OFFICES ATTACHED TO COUNTY OFFICES.
 - 3. INSURANCE OFFICES ATTACHED TO DISTRICT OFFICES.

MINISTRY OF AGRARIAN REFORM.

Address: ul. Szkolna 11 (pl. Dabrowskiego 5). Tel.: 60-95.

Minister: W. Kopczyński.

DEPARTMENT I.—ADMINISTRATIVE.

Director of the Department: L. Tur.

DEPARTMENT II.—PARCELLATION AND COLONIZATION.

Director of the Department: Z. Czalbowski.

GOVERNMENT AND PUBLIC OFFICES.

DEPARTMENT III -- AGRICULTURAL REGULATIONS AND SURVEYING.

Director: K. Kosiński.

CENTRAL LAND COMMISSION.

OFFICES UNDER THE CONTROL OF THE MINISTRY OF AGRARIAN REFORM.

1. State Agrarian Bank in Warsaw, ul. Traugutta 11.

SUPREME BOARD OF CONTROL.

Addsess: ul. Zórawia 44. Tel.: 505-73, 74, 75, 77. President: J. ZARNOWSKI. Vice-President: |. NENTWIG. .

DISTRICT CONTROL OFFICES UNDER THE SUPREME BOARD OF CONTROL.

1. District Offices at Warsaw, Lwow, Kielce, Poznań, Brześć, Wilno.

2. State Control Offices at Katowice.



III.—POLISH EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ABROAD.

ARGENTINE .. Buenos Aires, Calle Rincon 280. AUSTRIA Vienna III., Rennweg 1. BELGIUM Brussels, Avenue des Gaulois 20. BRAZIL Rio de Janeiro, Marques de Olinda 12 (Botafogo). BULGARIA Sofia, Wrabcza o. CZECHOSLOVAKIA ... Staromestke Namesti. Prague. Palace Kinsky. DENMARK Copenhagen, Frederiksgade 17. ESTONIA Reval. Kohtu tanaw No. 10 m. 2. FINLAND Helsingfors, Annegatan 16. FRANCE Paris, Avenue de Tokio 14. GREAT BRITAIN GERMANY Berlin, Kurfürstenstr. 136. London, 47, Portland Place, W. I. GREECE Athens, Hesiode No. 3. . 10 HOLLAND Hague, Prinsessegracht Nr. 9. HUNGARY Budapest, I Orszaghar nea 13. ITALY .. Rome, Piazza di Spagna 20. TALY ... THE HOLY SEE Rome, Lungotevere dei Mellini 24. JAPAN Tokio, 55, Zaimkucho, Azabuku. Riga, Nikolaja ida 27/29. , , LATVIA NORWAY NORWAY RUMANIA Oslo. Vestheimsgate 4b. Bucharest, Chaussee Kissieleff 47. RUSSIA.. Moskow. Powarskaja 21. SPAIN .. Madrid, Calle de Gova No. o. SWEDEN Stockholm, Narvavagen 32, p. IV. SWITZERLAND Berne, Elfenstrasse 20. TURKEY Constantinople, Rue Sira Selvi 24. UKRAINE Charkow, Czernyszewska 53. UNITED STATES OF AMERICA .. Washington, C.C. 2640-16-Street. YUGOSLAVIA.. Belgrade, Krunska 58. LEAGUE OF NATIONS Geneva.

2. Polish Consular Offices Abroad.

ARGENTINE Buenos Aires, Calle Rincon 280.

AUSTRIA Vienna, III. Rennweg 1.

Sydney, 46-52 Carrington Str.

POLISH EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ABROAD.

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BELGIUM		Brussels, rue de la Loi 39.
		Antwerp, rue van Dyck 38.
BRAZIL		Rio de Janeiro, Marques de Olinda 12 (Botafogo).
		Curitiba, rua 13 de Maio N. 63.
BULGARIA		Sofia Wrabcza 9.
		Varna, corner of Car Borys and
CANADA	71	Rankowa Str. Montreal, 506 Sherbrocke Str. W.
CZECHOSLOVAK	IA	Prague, Smichów, Stefanikowa 46.
		Marienbad. Morawska Ostrawa, Denisowo
		Namesti.
		Koszyce, Tordassyho 3.
DENMARK	4.4	Copenhagen, Frederiksgade 17:
		Aalborg, Joinfru Annagade 16.
		Aarhus, Rozenkranzgade 23.
		Odense, Aegforretning.
		Hasle a Bornholmie, Klinkerig Chammottestenfabrikker-Hasle.
		Kolding.
ESTHONIA		Reval, Kadriorg Poska 8.
FINLAND		Helsingfors, Annegatan 16.
FRANCE		Algier, 8, rue Empereur Vespasian
TRANCE	.,	Algier.
		Bordeaux, Allees de Chartres 7.
		Havre, 179 Victor Hugo.
		Lille, Boulevard de la Re-
		publique 119.
		Lyon, Boulevard de la Côte 14, Ville Urbaine.
		Marseilles, rue Edouard De-
		laglande 36.
		Nice, rue Halery Nr. 14.
		Paris, 43, rue Théophile Gautier.
		Strassburg, Boulevard Clemen- ceau I.
GERMANY		Allenstein, Kaiserstrasse 28.
O I J I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I		Berlin, Kurfürstenstr. 137.
		Beuthen, Gleivitzerstr. 10.
		Breslau, Freiburgstr. 7.
		Cologne, Lindenthal Dürener.
		str. 248.
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POLISH EMBASSIES AND LEGATIONS ABROAD.

GERMANY—	cont.	-	Elk, Bismarckstr. 20/I. Essen, Bahnhofstrasse 90/92 Königsberg, Neue Dammgasse 20. Leipzig, Peterssteinweg 10. Marienwerder, Herrenstr. 14. Munich, Von der Tannstr. 26. Schneidemuhl, Königstr. 37. Stettin, Breilerstr. Hamburg, Kirchenallee 27.
GREAT BRIT	TAIN		London, 2, Upper Montagu Street, W.C. 1.
HOLLAND			Amsterdam, Heerengracht 495. Rotterdam, Schiekade 190a.
HUNGARY			Budapest, Akademia Utcza 9-III. p.
ITALY			Florence, Lung Arno del Tem-
			pio 22a.
			Milan, Piazza Cajazzo 33.
			Naples, via dei Mille 47.
			Palermo, Piazza della Marina 18.
			Rome, Piazza di Spagna 20
			Trieste, Piazza della Borsa 4.
			Turin, via Milano 20.
JAPAN			
LATVIA		-	Tokio, 55, Zaimkucho Azabu-Ku.
LALVIA			Dyneburg, Teatralna 8.
			Libau, Lorenca iela No. 17.
LUVEMBURG	,		Riga, Rainis bul. Nr. 6.
LUXEMBURG		*	Luxemburg.
PALESTINE		7	Jerusalem, Bab el Zahré.
PARAGUAY			Asunción, Calle 15 de Agosto 225.
PERU			Lima.
PORTUGAL		b	Lizbona.
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RUMANIA	** *		Bucharest, Strada Popa Tatu 57.
			Czernovitz, Str. Vlahuta 8.
			Galatz, Cuza Voda 53.
Divoca			Kishinev, Mohylowska 5.
RUSSIA			Harków, Rakowskiego 15.
			Minsk, Sowiecka 84.
			Moscow, 3-a Mieszczanska 32/34.
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			Stockholm, Artillerigatan 7/IV.
SWITZERLAN	D	+	Berne, Elfenstrasse 20.
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3. DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR REPRESENTATIONS OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN POLAND.

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ARGENTINE .. Legation: Warsaw, Hotel Europejski. Consulate General: Warsaw, Senatorska 29. Consulate: Kraków, Radziwittowska 23. AUSTRIA Legation: Warsaw. Koszykowa Nr. 11b. Consulate (hon.): Warsaw, Koszykowa Nr. 11b (attached to the Legation). Consulate (hon.): Bielsk. Richard Bathelt. Consulate (hon.): Kraków, Kanoniczna 16. Consulate (hon.): Lwow, jerowska 14. BELGIUM Legation: Warsaw, office, Hotel Europejski, Passport office, Bracka Consulate: Warsaw, Hotel Europejski (attached to the Legation). Vice-Consulate: Łódź, Nawiót. Consulate (hon.): Lwów, Plac Marjacki 7. BRAZIL Legation: Warsaw, Aleja Róż 4. Consulate: Warsaw, Wilcza 44. Vice-consulate (hon.): Katowice, Warszawska 4. Lwów, Lindego o. t.ódź, Mr. Józef Kraszewski. Poznań, Kantaka 7. BULGARIA Legation: Warsaw, Hotel Bristol. Consulate: Warsaw, Hotel Bristol (attached to the Legation). CHILE .. Legation: Warsaw, Al. Szucha 6. Consulate General: Warsaw, Hotel Europeiski.

DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR REPRESENTATIONS.

COSTA-RICA	Consulate (hon.): Łódź, ul. Andrzeja 3
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA	Legation: Warsaw, Szopena 13. Consulate: Warsaw, Ziota 4 (attached to the Legation). Consulate: Kraków, Gołębia 18. Lwów, ul. 3-go Maja 2. Poznań, Pl. Sapieźyński 8. Vice-consulate: Katowice, ul. Moniuszki 5. Cieszyn, Mr. Georges Ledwitz.
DENMARK	Legation: Warsaw, Piękna 10. Consulate: Warsaw, Piękna 10 (attached to the Legation).
ESTONIA	Legation: Warsaw, Al. Ujazdow- ska 19/4. Consulate: Warsaw, Al. Ujaz- dowska 19/4 (attached to the Legation). Vice-consulate: Wilno, Mr. Felix Donass. Consulate (hon.): Łódź, Mr. O.
FINLAND	Bagun-Bersin. Legation: Warsaw, Pl. Napoleona 3. Consulate: Warsaw, Pl. Napoleona 3 (attached to the Legation). Consul (hon.): Warsaw, Hotel Bristol, Mr. Stefan Henryk Brun.
FRANCE	Embassy: Warsaw, Al Ujazdowska 31. Consulate: Warsaw, Al. Róż 2. Consulate: Katowice. Consulate: Lwów. Consulate: Poznań. Consul (hon.): Gdynia, M. Eduard Jacques Monnier. Łódź, M. Albert Marsy. Toruń, M. Bronisław Hozakowski

GERMANY	Legation: Warsaw, Piękna 17. Consulate: Warsaw, Piękna 17 (attached to the Legation). Passport Office, Zórawia 2. Consulate General:
	Katowice, ul. Sokolska, villa "Dame."
	Poznań, Zwierzyniecka 15. Consulate: Kraków, Warszawska 7.
	Consulate: Łódź, Piotrkowska 157.
GREAT BRITAIN	Consulate: Toruń, Bydgoska 60. Legation: Warsaw, Nowy Swiat 18.
	Consulate: Warsaw, Al. Jerozo-
	limska 93. Vice-consulate:
	Borysław, Mr. H. R Wright,
	Vice-consul. Katowice, Mr. Robert Mackenzie
	Buchan, Vice-consul.
	Lwów, ul. Asynka 1.
	tódź, Mr. Ernest Gilbert, Vice- consul.
	Poznań, ul. Wielkie Garbary
GREECE	Nr. 42. Legation: Warsaw, Al. Ujazdow-
	ska 49.
	Consulate: Warsaw, Wilcza 29a (attached to the Legation).
GUATEMALA	Consulate (hon.): Danzig, Hunde-
177	gasse 65.
HOLLAND	Legation: Warsaw, Czackiego 9/8. Consulate: Warsaw, Czackiego 9
	Consulate (hon.): Lwów, Mickiewicza.
	Consul (hon.): Poznań, Dr. Stanis- ław Pernaczyński.
	Vice-consulate (hon.): Łódź, Mil-
HUNGARY	Sza 40.
HONORICI	Legation: Warsaw, Stużewska 5/2. Consulate: Warsaw, Stuzewska 5
THE HOLY SEE	(attached to the Legation). Apostolic Nuncio: Warsaw, Al. Szucha 10.
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IV. ECONOMIC ORGANISATIONS IN POLAND.

Address.

I. Kraków Chamber of Commerce and **Kraków.**Trade.
(Izba Handlowa i Przemysłowa w
Krakowie.)

 Lwów Chamber of Commerce and Lwów. Trade.

(Izba Handlowa i Przemysłowa we Lwowie.)

3. Bielsko Chamber of Commerce and Trade. (Izba Handlowa i Przemysłowa w

Bielsku.)
4. Bydgoszcz Chamber of Commerce and Trade.

(Izba Handlowa i Przemysłowa w Bydgoszczy.)

5. Council of Mining Industrialists'
Union.
(Rada Ziazdu Przemysłowców Gór-

(Rada Zjazdu Przemysłowców Górniczych.)

6. Union of Polish Iron Foundries (Związek Polskich Hut Żelaznych.)

 Polish Union of Metal Industrialists... (Polski Związek Przemysłowców Metalowych.)

Union of Polish Producers and Refiners of Mineral Oils.
 (Związek Polskich Producentów i Ra-

finerów Olejów Mineralnych.)

9. National Petroleum Society ... (Krajowe Towarzystwo Naftowe.)

10. Professional Union of the Large Chemical Industries of the Polish State.

(Związek Zawodowy Wielkiego Przemysłu Chemicznego Państwo Polskiego.)

Bielsko.

Teshen Silesia.

Bydgoszcz, Nowy Rynek 8.

Dabrowa Górnicza ul. 3 Maja II.

Warsaw, Mazowiecka 5.

Warsaw, Traugutta 4.

Warsaw, Marszałkowska 116.

Lwów, Akademicka 5.

Warsaw, Danilowiczowska 8. Professional Union of the Superphosphate Industry.
 (Przemysł Superfosfatowy—Związek)

Zawodowy.)

- 12. Polish Union of Tanning Industrialists
 (Polski Związek Przemysłowców Garbarzy.)
- 13. Professional Union of Paper Factories (Związek Zawodowy Papierni Polskich.)
- 14. Union of Cellulose Factories ... (Związek Fabryk Celulozy.)
- Polish Union of Match Manufacturers (Polski Związek Właścicieli Fabryk Zapałek.)
- General Council of Timber Unions in Poland.
 (Rada Naczelna Związków Drzewynch w Polsce.)
- 17. Association of Timber Industrialists and Merchants of the Polish State. (Stowarzyszenie Przemysłowców i Kupców Drzewnych Państwa Polskiego.)
- 18. Federation of Forestry Industrialists (Zrzeszenie Przemysłowców Leśnych.)
- 19. Union of Manufacturers of Bentwood
 Furniture and Beech Wood Goods,
 (Związek Wytwórców Mebli Giętych i
 Wyrobów z drzewa bukowego.)
 20. Union of Polish Electric Power

Stations.

16.

- (Związek Elektrowni Polskich.)
 21. Polish Union of Electrotechnical Undertakings.
 (Polski Związek Przedsiębiorstw Elektrotechnicznych.)
- 22. Union of Polish Portland Cement Factories.

(Związek Polskich Fabryk Portland Cementu.)

Address.

Warsaw, Traugutta 3.

Warsaw, Bielańska 7.

Warsaw, Czackiego 18.

Warsaw, Smolna 17.

Warsaw, Senatorska 29, Galerja Luksemburga.

Warsaw, Zielna 35.

Warsaw, Niecała 3 m. 12.

Warsaw, Nowy Swiat 27.

Warsaw, Marszałkowska 141.

Warsaw, Foksal 11.

Warsaw, Jerozolimskie 16.

Warsaw, Sto. Krzyska 16.

ECONOMIC ORGANISATIONS IN POLAND.

Address.

23. Union of Professional Building Industrialists of Congress Poland.
(Stowarzyszenie Zawodows Przemysłowców Budowlanych Królestwa Polskiego.)

24. Union of the Textile Industries in the Polish State.

!Związel Przemysłu Włókienniczego w

Państwie Polskiego.)

 National Union of Textile Industries (Krażowy Związek Przemystu Włokienniczego.)

 Union of the Industrialists of Bielsko, Biała and Districts.
 (Zwiazek Przemysłowców Bielska,

Białej i okolicy.)

27. Professional Union of Sugar Producers of former Congress Poland. (Związek Zawodowy Cukrowni b. Królestwa Polskiego.)

Union of West Polish Sugar Industries.
 (Związek Zachodnie-Polskiego Prze-

(Związek Zachodnie-Polskiego Przemysłu Cukrowniczego, Poznań.)

29. Union of Polish Millers ... (Związek Młynarzy Polskich.)

30. Union of Brewery Owners in Poland...
(Związek Właścicieli Browarów w
Polsce.)

31. Union of Yeast Producers in Poland...
(Związek Właścicieli Drożdżowni w
Polsce.)

 Union of Industrial Distillery Owners in Poland.
 (Związek Właścicieli Gorzelni Prze-

mysłowych w Polsce.)

33. Union of Tarpaulin Manufacturers ... (Związek Wytwórców Tektury Smolow-cowej.)

34. Union of Glass Foundries in Poland... (Związek Hut Szklanych w Polsce.)

Warsaw, Ludna 9a.

Łódź, Piotrowska 96.

Łódź, Moniuszki 5.

Bielsko. Teschen Silesia

Warsaw. Krak-Przedm. 7.

Poznań, Skarbowa 16.

Warsaw, Chmielna 2.

Warsaw, Nowy Swiat 70.

Warsaw, Wiejska 17.

Warsaw, Zielna 21.

Warsaw, Jasna 24

Warsaw, Leszno 92.

Warsaw, Hortensji 5.

ECONOMIC ORGANISATIONS IN POLAND.

 Union of Confectionery Industry in Poland.
 (Związek Przemysłu Konfekcyjnego w Polsce.)

 Union of Vinegar Producers in Poland (Związek Fabrykantów Octu w Polsce.)

37. Professional Union of Soap Producers (Związch Zawodowy Przemysłowców Mydlarskich.)

 Association of Dabrowa Industrialists (Towarzystwo Przemysłowców Zagłębia Dabrowskiego.)

Union of Manufacturers in Poznań ... (Związek Fabrykantów T.Z. w Poznaniu.)

 Union of Polish Merchants and Industrialists in Danzig.
 (Zjednoczenie Polskich Kupców i Przemysłowców w Gdańsku.)

11. Polish Merchants' Association (Stowarzyszenie Kupców Polskich.)

42. Board of the Seniors of the Merchants'
Union of the City of Warsaw.
(Urząd Starszych Zgromadzenia Kupców m. st. Warszawy.)

43. Union of Banks in Poland
(Związeh Banków w Polsce.)

44. Money Exchange in Warsaw... (Gielda Pienieżna w Warszawie.)

45. Union of Transporters and Forwarding Agents.
(Związek Przedsiębiorstw Transpor-

towych i Ekspedycyjnych.)
46. Union of Tramway and Suburban
Railway Undertakings.
(Zwiazek Przedsiebiorsky Tramwa-

(Związek Przedsiębiorstw Tramwajowych i Kolei Dojazdowych.) 47. Union of Polish Private Insurance

Companies.
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Warsaw, Senatorska 24, m.

Warsaw.

Grzybowskka 41. Warsaw, Leszno 102.

Sosnowice, Sienkiewicza No. 11.

Poznań, Al. Marcinkowskiego 22.

Danzig, Hundegasse No. 85, 11.

Warsaw, Szkolna 10. Warsaw, Królewska 14.

Warsaw, Jasna 1. Warsaw, Królewska 14. Warsaw, Królewska 14.

Warsaw, Foksal 11.

Warsaw, Miodowa 8.

V.—AGRICULTURAL SOCIETIES AND UNIONS.

		Address.
т	Central Agricultural Society	Warsaw,
1.	(Centralne Towarzystwo Rolnicze.)	ul. Koper-
	(Communication of the communication of the communic	nika 30
0	Galician Agricultural Society	Kraków,
۷.	(Małopolskie Towarzystwo Rolnicze.)	pl. Szczepan-
	(Masopoiskie Tolourzyslab Homicze.)	skiego 6.
	Control Economic Society	Poznań,
3.	Central Economic Society (Centralne Towarzystwo Gospodarcze.)	Mickiewicza 33
	Central Union of Agricultural Societies	Warsaw,
4.	(Centralny Związek kółek Rolniczych.)	Tamka I.
	Centralny Zwigzer Rolen Rolliczych.	Lwów,
5.	East Galician Economic Society	Kopernika 20.
	(Towarzystwo Gospodarskie Wschodniej	Roperlina 20.
	Małopolski.)	Domoń
6.	Poznanian Chamber of Agriculture	Poznań,
	(Wielkopolska Izba Rolnicza.)	Mickiewicza 33.
7.	Pomeranian Chamber of Agriculture	Poznań,
	(Pomorska Izba Rolnicza.)	Mickiewicza 33.
8,	Silesian Chamber of Agriculture	Katowice,
	(Sląska Izba Rolnicza.)	Plebiscytowa I.
9.	Agricultural Producers' Union	Poznań,
	(Zjednoczenie Producentów Rolnych.)	Pocztowa 30.
10.	Union of Agricultural Societies	Poznań,
	(Związek Kółek Rolniczych.)	Mickiewicza 33.
JI.	Pomeranian Agricultural Society	Toruń,
	(Pomorskie Towarzystwo Rolnicze.)	Szeroka 31.
12.		Warsaw,
	(Centralny Związek Osadników Woj-	Miodowa 1.
	skowych.)	
13.	Union of Wilno Agricultural Societies	Wilno,
	(Związek Kółek Rolniczych Ziemi Wil-	Wielka Po-
	eńskiej.)	hulanka 1
14.	Teshen Agricultural Society	Cieszyn.
	(Cieszyńskie Towarzystwo Rolnocze.)	
15.	Silesian Union of Agricultural Societies	Mysłowice,
	(Slaski Związek Kółek Rolniczych.)	Pocztowa I.
16.	Union of Agricultural Organisations	Katowice,
	in Silesia.	Plebiscytowa 1
	(Związek Organizacji Rolniczych na	
	Slasku.)	
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AGRICULTURAL SOCIETIES AND UNIONS.

	Address.
17. Silesian Union of Farmers	
(Slaski Zwiazek Rolników.)	Trzeciego.
(Southern Employee and the control of the control o	Maja 40
18. Union of Pomeranian Agricultural	Toruń,
Societies.	Sienkiewicza 40
(Związek Pomorskich Kółek Rolniczych.)	Olclikiewicza 40
19. Polish Zootechnical Society	Warsaw,
(Polskie Towarzystwo Zootechniczne.)	Senatorska 15.
20. Union of Polish Professional Seed	Warsaw,
Growers and Producers.	Bagatela 3.
(Związek Zawodowy Polskich Hodow-	Dagatela 3.
ców i Wytwórców Nasion.)	
The of Coulon Coul Do 1	Warsaw.
(Związek Wytwórców Nasion Ogro-	
dowych.)	Bagatela 3.
and Manager Manager 14 and Co. 14	Worse
(Warszawskie Towarzystwo Ogrodnicze.)	Warsaw,
Conseque Hantiquitural Contest	Bagatela 3.
(Krakowskie Towarzystwo Ogrodnicze.)	Kraków,
24. Union of Dairies in Poznan, Pomer-	Mickiewicza 17
ania and Silesia.	Poznań,
(Zjednoczenie Mleczarskie na Wielko-	Mickielwicza 33.
polske, Pomorze i Sląsk.)	
- Calinian Daine Hair	771-4
	Kraków,
(Małopolski Źwiązek Mleczarski.)	Jabłonowski-
26. National Fisheries' Association	ego 19.
(Krajowe Towarzystwo Rybackie.)	Kraków,
27. General Union of Agricultural Organ-	Czysta 16.
isations.	Warsaw,
(Naczelny Związek Organizacyj Pszcze-	Miodowa 14.
larskich.)	
,	***************************************
28. Central Poultry Breeders' Committee in Poland.	Warsaw,
	Kopernika 30.
(Centralny Komitet Hodowli Drobiu w Polsce.)	
	Wanne
29. Society for the Protection of the Peasant Industries.	
Teasant Industries,	Tamka 1.

(Towarzystwo Popierania Przemysłu

Ludowego.)

VI.—COMMERCIAL ASSOCIATIONS.

	Address.
1. Central Union of Agricultural-Com- mercial Co-operative Societies.	Warsaw, Tamka 1.
(Centrala Spółdzielczych Stowarzyszeń	
Rolniczo-Handlowych.)	
2. "Kooprolna" Commercial - Agricultural Joint Stock Company. ("Kooprolna" Spółka Akcyjna Handlowo-Rolnicza.)	Warsaw, Kopernika 30.
3. Central Union of Farmers	Poznań.
(Centrala Rolników.)	pl. Wolności 18.
4. Economic Union of Farmers' Associ-	Kraków,
ations.	Wiślna 8.
(Związek Ekonomiczny Kólek Rolni-	
czych.) 5. Union of Farmers' Associations in	Ciegzyn
Teschen.	0.000,
(Związek Spółek Rolniczych w Księstwie	
Cieszyńskiem.)	
6. Central Farmers' Co-operative Society	Kraków,
(Centrala Spółdzielni Rolniczych.)	Wiślne 8.
7. Central Union of Agricultural-Com-	Wilna, Mickiewicza 12.
mercial Associations.) (Centrala Stowarzyszeń Rolniczo-Hand-	Mickiewicza 12.
lowvch.)	
8. Dairymen's and Egg-Producers' Co-	Warsaw,
operative Union.	Hoża 51.
(Związek Spółdzielni Mleczarskich i	
Jajczarskich.)	
9. "Jajo" Egg-Producers' Co-operative	Kraków,
Union.	Wolska 36.
" Jajo" Związek Spółdzielni Jaj- czarskich.)	
10. Egg-Producers' Union	Lwów.
(Związek Producentów Jajczarskich.)	
II. Breeders' Syndicate	Warsaw,
(Syndykat Hodowlany.)	Kopernika 30.
12. Horticultural Syndicate	Warsaw,
(Syndykat Ogrodniczy.)	Bagatela 3.

COMMERCIAL ASSOCIATIONS.

 Hop Planters' Syndicate Joint Stock Co. (Syndykat Plantatorów Chmielu, S.A.)

14. Starch Producers' Association
(Spółka Producentów Krochmalu.)

15. Fish Producers' Union ... (Związek Producentów Ryb.)

 Union of Polish Agricultural Cooperative Associations.
 (Zwiazek Rewizyjny Polskich Spółdzielni Rolniczych.)

17. Union of Polish Co-operative Societies (Związek Spółdzielni Polskich.)

 National Supervisory Board of Agricultural Societies. (Krajowy Patronat Spółek Rolniczych.)

 Supervisory Union of Farmers' Cooperative Societies.
 (Związek Rewizyjny Spółdzielczych Kółek Rolniczych.) Address.

Warsaw, Boduena 2.

Warsaw, Kopernika 30. Warsaw, Rybaki 18. Warsaw, Kopernika 30.

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