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Short-run Escape Clauses of the Havana Charter.....	1
U.S. Exports Continued Decline in Third Quarter of 1948.....	8

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SHORT-RUN ESCAPE CLAUSES OF THE HAVANA CHARTER

J. Herbert Furth

The Havana Charter lays down the general rules that no member of the International Trade Organization shall prohibit or restrict foreign trade with other members except by means of tariff duties or similar charges, and that no prohibition or restriction shall be applied in relation to any member unless it is similarly applied in relation to all other countries.

These rules are subject to so many exceptions that it may seem at first glance as if nothing remained of their substance. Most exceptions, however, can be interpreted as embodying a small number of well-defined theoretical ideas.^{1/}

^{1/} For a discussion of these ideas, and especially of the functions that quantitative restrictions or other import restrictions can serve, see this Review for November 16 (#100), 1948, pages 1-6.

Quantitative Restrictions

According to our theoretical scheme, quantitative restrictions may be regarded as consistent with the standards of the market-price mechanism of a free economy if their use is restricted to specified temporary emergencies and avoids as far as possible windfall profits and discrimination. The Charter provisions that deal with the use of quantitative restrictions for the purpose of conserving monetary reserves conform generally to that scheme. They aim at limiting such use to temporary emergencies and at avoiding discriminatory application. They do not try, however, to eliminate windfall profits, e. g., by requiring the allotment of quotas or licenses to the highest bidder.

Article 21 permits a member to use quantitative import restrictions "in order to safeguard its external financial position and balance of payments", to the extent necessary to forestall the imminent threat of a serious decline or, in the case of a member with very low reserves, to achieve a reasonable rate of increase in its monetary reserves. The members are under obligation to relax and ultimately eliminate restrictions as their external financial position improves and to avoid unnecessary damage to the interests of other members. During the period of post-war transition, the Organization has, however, "to take full account of the difficulties of post-war adjustment and of the need which a member may have to use import restrictions as a step toward the restoration of equilibrium in its balance of payments on a sound and lasting basis". Moreover, no member shall be required to withdraw or modify restrictions on the ground that a change in its domestic policies relating to reconstruction, development, or full employment would render the restrictions unnecessary. Finally, any member may apply the restrictions in such a way as to give priority to the imports of those products which are more essential in the light of its domestic policies.

The last provision conforms to our theoretical scheme. The obligation imposed upon the Organization, however, to consider transition difficulties and domestic economic policies as valid reasons for the continuation of import restrictions, may rob the rest of the Article of most of its effectiveness. Most countries are suffering from transition difficulties and will continue for an indefinite period to do so unless they adopt corrective domestic economic policies. Equally, most countries will encounter balance of payments difficulties as long as they find it necessary to maintain a level of consumption higher than their use of available factors of production would permit. All provisions aimed at confining quantitative controls to temporary emergencies may become ineffective if the members are permitted to prolong the emergency forever through the adoption of disequilibrating domestic policies.

The provision concerning domestic policies is theoretically objectionable, but in practice the Organization probably would be unable in any case to force members to change those policies. The provision, therefore, may be defended as recognizing the political facts of life. Moreover, the members are under obligation to carry out their domestic policies with due regard to the need for restoring equilibrium in their balance of payments on a sound and lasting basis. Thus, while the Organization cannot interfere with a member's domestic policies as such, it can question the manner in which these policies are carried out.

Any member that is considering the introduction of restrictive measures under Article 21 has to consult with the Organization, either before or immediately after instituting them. The previous concurrence of the Organization is not required, and any member is thus initially the sole judge of the existence of conditions justifying the application of such measures. The Organization, however, may at any time ask a member to enter into consultations about the application of these restrictions, and within two years after the Charter's coming into force will review all restrictions still applied at that date. Furthermore, any member that feels aggrieved by another member's restrictions may bring the matter to the Organization for discussion. If the Organization determines that the restrictions are applied contrary to the Charter provisions, it will recommend their withdrawal or modification.

In these consultations and discussions the Organization probably will play its most important role. It will not merely consider the acts of the members in the light of the legal meaning of the Charter provisions, but review the underlying economic situation and suggest alternative measures that would better conform to the spirit of the Havana agreement. If the Charter contained no provisions except those that make these consultations and discussions mandatory, it could be expected to contribute substantially to the restoration of sanity in international economic relations.

The Charter provisions dealing with the use of quantitative restrictions for the protection of specific industries are mainly concerned with problems of reconstruction and development. Four cases, however, may be interpreted as covering short-run difficulties. According to Article 13 C, paragraph 7 (a), the Organization must permit the application of restrictions aimed at protecting industries established between 1939 and 1948 and hitherto protected by the abnormal conditions arising out of the war. According to Article 14, any member may continue to apply restrictions in force at the time the Charter enters into force, subject to review by the Organization. According to Article 40, any member may introduce measures contrary to the Charter provisions if an unforeseen increase in imports of a product threatens serious injury to domestic producers. Finally, according to Article 45, paragraph 1 (b), any member may apply measures deviating from the Charter provisions if they are essential to the acquisition or distribution of products in general or local short supply; to the control of prices by a member experiencing shortages subsequent to the war; or to the orderly liquidation of war surplus goods. Measures applied under the provision of Article 45, paragraph 1 (b), are to be removed at "a date to be specified by the Organization".

The provisions referring to the protection of recently established industries, to the maintenance of existing protective measures, and to post-war price and surplus commodity controls may be defended on account of the inflexibilities that exist in the post-war period of transition. Article 40 deals with cases of genuine temporary emergencies. The provision of Article 45, paragraph 1 (b), concerning products "in general or local short supply", however, is not confined to the post-war period of transition or to temporary emergencies, and may be abused in spite of the right of the Organization to set a time limit for its application. Local shortages may be due to faulty price policies as well as to genuine inflexibilities of supply, and a country relying on governmental price fixing rather than on the market-price mechanism may thus be enabled to correct

its mistakes by means of import restrictions at the expense of other nations rather than by a change in its domestic price policies.

The Charter also permits the use of quantitative restrictions in some cases of primarily domestic or non-economic importance. A short-run exception of that kind concerns restrictions necessary to the enforcement of government policies aimed at removing a temporary surplus of domestic agricultural products by distributing it to certain groups free of charge or at prices below the market level (Article 20, paragraph 2 (c) ii). According to Article 99, any member may take measures necessary for the protection of its security in times of war or international emergency. Finally, under Article 77 the Conference, by a vote of two-thirds of the voting members, may waive any obligation imposed by the Charter under exceptional circumstances, or define certain categories of exceptional circumstances in which other voting requirements may apply for such a waiver. While these exceptions may be abused, most of them seem indispensable.

Discriminatory Practices

According to our theoretical schema, discrimination may be regarded as consistent with the standards of a free economy if it counteracts either the "Frisch-effect"^{1/} or the distorting consequences of inconvertibility due to exchange restrictions. The Charter provisions permitting discriminatory practices are mainly concerned with the problem of inconvertibility, but some clauses may be interpreted as dealing with the "Frisch-effect".

During the post-war transition period, Article 23, paragraph 1, permits discrimination in two different ways. The first, open only to a few original signatories of the Geneva General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade of October 30, 1947, is embodied in Annex K. Under this provision, a member may relax existing restrictions in a discriminatory way provided that such a method increases the flow of imports, does not involve the payment of excessive prices or a reduction in the member's receipts of gold and convertible currencies, and does not cause unnecessary damage to other members. These three provisions are characteristics of the elimination of the "Frisch-effect".

Most members of the Organization, however, are barred from that so-called Geneva option, and can only apply the provisions of Article 23, paragraph 1 (b) and (c). They may continue to apply any discrimination to safeguard their balance of payments which they actually applied on March 1, 1948; moreover, they may apply discriminatory measures that "have equivalent effect to restrictions on payments" which are permitted under Article XIV of the International Monetary Fund agreement. This Article permits any member to maintain restrictions on payments notwithstanding the general rule of Article VIII of the Fund agreement, provided it has notified the Fund, and subject to certain reporting and reviewing

^{1/} For definition of the "Frisch-effect", in which non-discriminatory trade policies can under certain circumstances cause a mutual contraction in trade between two countries, see this Review for November 16, 1948 (#100), pages 5-6.

powers of the Fund; in addition, members whose territories were occupied by the enemy during the war are permitted to introduce new restrictions. This so-called Havana option, adopted at the insistence of some European nations, goes far beyond the provisions of the Geneva option and virtually suspends for the time being the anti-discriminatory provisions of the Charter for most member nations.

The freedom to use Article 23, paragraph 1, is limited by the provision that such discriminatory practices are to promote the maximum development of multilateral trade, and to "expedite the attainment of a balance-of-payments position which will no longer require resort" to the "escape clauses". From March 1950 on, the Organization will report on these discriminatory practices; and from March 1952 on, any member wishing to continue such practices will have to consult with the Organization. These provisions give the Organization the same power which the Fund has under Article XIV of the Fund agreement. Moreover, the right to take action under Article 23, paragraph 1, expires for any member as soon as it ceases to avail itself of the provisions of Article XIV of the Fund agreement. Any member is thus prevented from using discriminatory trade practices after it loses the right to use discriminatory currency practices. It is doubtful, however, whether this clause will actually shorten the period during which members will apply discrimination in trade, or on the contrary lengthen the period during which members will cling to Article XIV of the Fund agreement and reserve the right to discriminate in both trade and exchange controls.

Aside from these post-war transition clauses, the Charter seems to grant a minor recognition to the "Frisch-effect" in Article 23, paragraph 2, which permits the discriminatory application of quantitative import restrictions in the case of temporary deviations affecting only a small part of a member's foreign trade where the benefits to the members concerned outweigh substantially any injury to other members. From the point of view of theory, this exception seems to limit rather severely the possibilities of counteracting the "Frisch-effect". In view of the practical difficulties in assessing that effect, however, the limitations appear justified.

The use of discriminatory practices to counteract distorting effects of inconvertibility is permitted in Article 23, paragraphs 4 and 5 (a). Members may apply quantitative restrictions in such a way as to increase their earnings of convertible currencies, and they may apply restrictions "having equivalent effect to exchange restrictions" authorized under the "scarce-currency" clause (Article VII, Section 3 b) of the Fund agreement. This clause permits members to discriminate against imports from countries whose currencies have been declared scarce. Both exceptions conform to our theoretical scheme. They indicate that the main forum where the battle against discrimination has to be fought, will be the International Monetary Fund rather than the International Trade Organization.

The close connection between restrictions on exchange and on trade also is recognized in Article 24, paragraph 4, which prohibits members from frustrating the intent of the Charter section dealing with quantitative restrictions by exchange actions, and from frustrating the intent of the Fund agreement by trade action. If the Organization considers that an exchange restriction applied by

a member contravenes the intent of the Charter section on trade restrictions, it will report to the Fund (paragraph 5). If the Fund considers the exchange restriction to be in accordance with the Fund agreement, the member remains entitled to use it. Moreover, a member is entitled to use trade restrictions contrary to the Charter provisions if their sole effect is to make effective exchange restrictions permitted under the Fund agreement (paragraph 8). The provision of paragraph 4 therefore seems to need modification in the sense that an action permitted under the Fund agreement never can be considered a violation of the Charter. On the other hand, an action apparently permitted under the Charter may conceivably be considered forbidden as violating the intent of the Fund agreement. Proper coordination in the policies of the Organization and the Fund, however, probably will prevent that slight divergency from becoming significant in practice.

The general exceptions of the Charter, especially those concerning unforeseen increases in imports (Article 40), commodities in short supply, price controls, and the liquidation of war surplus goods (Article 45, paragraph 1 b), international emergencies or war (Article 99), and special Conference vote (Article 77), also apply to the prohibition of discriminatory practices. According to Article 45, the intent of which probably also governs the other cases, discrimination is permitted only if it is neither arbitrary nor unjustifiable, but no standard of justification has been established.

Conclusion

Despite the wide range of the escape clauses, quantitative and discriminatory practices appear to be completely outlawed in a number of important cases in which their use would contravene the principles of free international trade.

None of the escape clauses allows members to use quantitative or discriminatory restrictions merely for purposes of exerting monopolistic powers. If a member, however, is entitled to apply restrictions for other reasons, e.g. for the preservation of monetary reserves, it may be very difficult to prevent it from making its monopolistic powers felt in the actual application of these measures.

Protection against the allegedly overwhelming power of another country also remains unrecognized as an excuse for quantitative or discriminatory controls. If one country, however, really were able to outcompete another one in such a uniform manner that the mechanism of comparative advantage could not come into play, such one-sided trade could be brought to an end as soon as the drain on the monetary reserves of the threatened country would permit the use of the escape clauses of Article 21.

Neither is a country entitled to use quantitative or discriminatory measures merely in order to protect its planned economy against fluctuations of another country's free economy. Protection of a planned economy has no greater dignity than any other protection of the status-quo, and may just as easily lead to ossification. Moreover, if a free economy suffering from a depression engages in excessively expanding exports of certain products, the planning country may take the measures necessary to avoid disastrous effects upon its economy under

Article 40. To curtail imports from an unplanned economy in advance, however, merely for the purpose of being prepared for the periodic fluctuations of the free economy, would seem to resemble the neurotic fear of a person who, in perfect health, takes to bed in order to be prepared for a sudden illness.

Finally, the Charter does not permit a country to use quantitative or discriminatory restrictions in retaliation for similar measures enacted by other countries. Reportedly, Switzerland has refused to ratify the Charter because of that omission. It is true that the omission to some extent weakens the position of free-trade countries. This result is inevitable, however, if an infringement of the principles of the Charter by one country is not to lead to a chain reaction which would multiply the forbidden restrictions instead of eliminating them. The Charter therefore rightly confines aggrieved countries to measures of retaliation within the framework of mutual concessions, tariff duties, and similar methods.

It is not the power of economic sanctions that will keep the members of the Organization from abusing the escape clauses. Quite apart from all Charter provisions, a country applying measures of commercial policy harmful to other nations has to be prepared for retaliation; it decides to apply them only if it believes that the beneficial results will outweigh the detrimental. Similar calculations may well enable a country to violate the Charter provisions with relative impunity. The limits of the escape clauses will be observed only if the public, including the economic theorists and practitioners, realize that the principles of the Charter are the best foundation of world prosperity and world peace.

CORRIGENDUM

In the Review for December 14, 1948, the following corrections should be made:

Page 8, second full paragraph, next to last line, "the main revenues" should read "the maintenance".

Page 8, last paragraph, first line, the word "December" should be deleted.

U. S. Exports Continue Decline in Third Quarter of 1948

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For the fifth consecutive quarter, U. S. exports continued downward in the July-September quarter of 1948.^{1/} In fact, quarterly exports fell below the \$3,000 million mark for the first time since 1946. Third quarter of 1948 exports of \$2,937 million were about \$775 million below shipments for the same period in 1947. On an annual basis, the 1948 July-September shipments were running at a rate of \$11,700 million compared to the third quarter 1947 rate of \$14,900 million, and the third quarter of 1946 rate of \$9,400 million. The upturn in the trend in U. S. exports, expected under the impetus of the Marshall Plan, did not take place in the third quarter of 1948; in view of the maritime strike in October and November, the check in the fall of exports may be postponed until the first quarter of 1949.

By contrast, third quarter imports continued at the record levels attained in the first half of 1948. The quarterly total of \$1,715 million exceeded the 1947 quarterly average by nearly \$300 million. On an annual basis, the 1948 July-September imports were running at a rate of \$6,900 million compared to the third quarter 1947 rate of \$5,300 million and the third quarter 1946 rate of \$4,900 million. The value increase in 1947 over 1946 was due entirely to higher prices, but the 1948 increase in value over both 1947 and 1946 is due to greater volume as well as higher prices.

If the prewar relationship existed between American gross national product and imports, 1948 imports would be running at a rate of between \$10,000 and \$11,000 million annually. It appears, therefore, that the continued rise in U.S. imports since the end of the war, as the availability of goods for importation has increased, reflects perhaps a limited movement toward the prewar relationship between American production and imports. While there is no reason to expect an early return to the prewar position, it does appear that imports have been at a relatively lower level than one would reasonably expect. There is no reason, therefore, to consider the 1948 level of imports as abnormally high or to expect a reversal in the upward trend in the absence of new adverse world and domestic developments.

With reduced exports and high imports, the U. S. merchandise export surplus approached the lowest quarterly total recorded since the end of the war. The July-September 1948 export surplus fell to only \$1,222 million compared with the 1947 quarterly average surplus of \$2,405 million, a decline of almost one-half.

The sharp declines in the export surplus which have been taking place in 1948 have been general for U. S. trade with all areas, as is shown in Table I.

^{1/} For a review of U. S. foreign trade in the first half of 1948, see this Review for October 19, 1948, pages 11-19.

The decline in our export surplus vis-a-vis the E.R.P. countries, however, has been somewhat less than the over-all 49 per cent decline for all countries. As a result, the E.R.P. countries, which accounted for a little less than half of our export surplus in 1947, accounted for three-fifths of it in the third quarter of 1948. On the other hand, our trade surplus with other Western Hemisphere countries, which had constituted about 30 per cent of our export surplus in 1947, declined to the point where it constituted less than 20 per cent of the much smaller global figure in the third quarter of 1948. The balance with non-ERP Europe and Australia was negative - i.e., had become an import surplus. The import surplus from non-ERP Europe reflects the fact that, while imports from these countries have increased slightly, U. S. exports have been sharply curtailed by export controls and dollar stringency. The negative Australasian balance reflects mainly the important dollar-saving measures of Australia and New Zealand. The least decline, reported for Africa, is expected shortly to be accelerated due to the stringent dollar import controls introduced by South Africa on November 5.

TABLE I

U. S. Export Surpluses by Major Areas
(in millions of dollars)

Area	Quarterly Average		First quarter 1948	Second quarter 1948	Third quarter 1948	Change in U.S. export surplus, 3rd quarter 1948 from 1947 quarterly average	
	1946	1947				In millions of dollars	Per cent change
17 ERP Countries (incl. Turkey)	650	1,150	913	839	740	-410	-36
Other Europe	168	74	39	-15	-11	-85	-115
Europe (excluding Turkey)	825	1,217	945	803	705	-512	-42
North America	224	420	184	284	170	-250	-60
South America	14	279	126	133	64	-215	-77
Asia	113	324	195	213	214	-110	-34
Australasia	-17	41	-6	-	-18	-59	-144
Africa	46	124	81	113	87	-37	-29
Total	1,205	2,405	1,524	1,547	1,222	-1,183	-49

The continuing downward trend in U. S. exports for the past four quarters for selected countries is shown in detail in the appended Table III. Australasian shipments show the largest percentage decline over the period. Reduced shipments to ERP-Europe account for most of the curtailment in the movement to Europe. The South American total has been downward due to sharply curtailed

exports to Argentina and more moderate cuts in the movement to Brazil. Reductions for the North American continent were general with Cuba, Mexico, and Canada all participating. The drops in exports to Asia were relatively slight. Shipments to Africa have been sustained, mainly due to expanding exports over the period to South Africa.

On the import side, U. S. imports have been rather well sustained from all areas. Imports for the past four quarters from selected countries are shown in detail in Table IV below. Particularly impressive is the steady rise in imports from Canada, reflecting the success of the Canadian dollar-export drive.

In analyzing exports by commodity group, a notable change during the third quarter of 1948 is the decline in the relative importance of finished manufactures in total exports as compared with the level established earlier in the year. The finished manufactures category dropped to 53 per cent of total exports in the third quarter of 1948 as compared with 59 per cent recorded for January-June 1948. This decline may in part be seasonal since finished manufactures were 56 per cent of total exports in the third quarter of 1947 compared with 58 per cent for the first half of that year.

The decrease in finished manufactures in the third quarter of 1948 is even more striking in absolute terms than in percentages. As shown in Table II, the decline was \$497 million, or approximately 65 per cent of the total decrease in exports in the third quarter of 1948 compared with the same period in 1947. On the other hand, the third quarter 1948 exports of crude materials and crude foodstuffs were relatively well maintained.

TABLE II

U. S. Exports and Imports, by Commodity Group
(in millions of dollars)

Class	3rd quarter 1948	Increase (+) or decrease (-) from	
		3rd quarter 1947	3rd quarter 1946
U. S. Exports of Domestic Merchandise			
Crude Materials	374	+22	-
Crude Foodstuffs	360	-9	+213
Manufactured Foodstuffs	308	-127	-55
Semimanufactures	314	-163	+99
Finished Manufactures	1,552	-497	+356
Total Exports	2,909	-775	+613

(Table II continued)

Class	3rd quarter 1948	Increase (+) or decrease (-) from	
		3rd quarter 1947	3rd quarter 1946
U. S. Imports for Consumption			
Crude Materials	530	+141	+87
Crude Foodstuffs	271	+70	+85
Manufactured Foodstuffs	199	+30	+64
Semimanufactures	418	+108	+178
Finished Manufactures	322	+69	+117
Total Imports	1,740	+418	+531

Heavier cotton and tobacco shipments maintained the crude material group in July-September 1948. The value of crude foodstuffs declined only slightly; while the physical quantity dropped sharply, value was maintained because higher-priced wheat was exported in 1948 in place of a heavy movement of lower-priced corn in 1947.

The sharp declines in the processed and manufactured classes of goods were due to a number of factors. U. S. export controls may have had a limited effect but much more important were restrictions against U. S. imports, particularly for consumer goods. Recovery in competitive production in foreign countries also contributed to the drops. Thus, textiles registered sharp decreases. The large drop in merchant vessels reflects the fact that the ships sales program was most active in 1947. Industrial machinery exports in July-September 1948 were also well below the third quarter of 1947 movement, suggesting that the ECA shipments of rehabilitation industrial equipment have not yet grown to the extent expected.

U. S. imports by commodity groups, as shown in Table II, record steady increases from the third quarter of 1946 to the same period of 1948 for all classes, except crude materials which were unusually low in 1947. Heavier shipments of copper, woodpulp, and tin account for the steady rise in semimanufactures over this period. Expanded movements of newsprint, machinery, and vehicles underlie the heavier finished manufactures imports. Among crude foodstuffs, higher prices were important in the increases for 1947 and 1948, especially in cocoa and coffee imports.

Prices of both exports and imports have shown a tendency to level off during the second and third quarters of 1948. While export prices in 1948 have been substantially above the levels prevailing in 1947, the rising curve has begun to stabilize or perhaps turn downward. For example, the unit value index reached a record high of 139 in February 1948 (1923-25 average = 100), remained at 136 from March to June, rose to 138 in July and dropped to 135 in August.

The export quantity index, on the other hand, has been declining steadily since mid-1947. Since June 1948, the monthly index has fallen below 200, compared with the high of 249 reported in October 1947.

Import prices have also leveled off. Recently the index has displayed a degree of stability, having fluctuated within a 3-point range between 129 and 132 in the six months, March through August. The import quantity index has been stabilized in 1948 at levels about 13 per cent above the 1947 volume.

Statistics on U. S. exports and imports by major commodities for the nine months, January through September 1948, with comparisons for the corresponding period of 1947, are shown in Table V below.

TABLE III

U. S. Exports, Including Reexports, to Selected Countries
(in millions of dollars)

	1947 quarterly average	1st quarter 1948	2nd quarter 1948	3rd quarter 1948	Jan.-Sept. 1948 (9 months' total)
Total Exports	<u>3,838</u>	<u>3,318</u>	<u>3,239</u>	<u>2,937</u>	<u>9,494</u>
Net Exports	<u>2,405</u>	<u>1,524</u>	<u>1,547</u>	<u>1,222</u>	<u>4,293</u>
North America	<u>957</u>	<u>789</u>	<u>898</u>	<u>812</u>	<u>2,499</u>
Canada	<u>518</u>	<u>425</u>	<u>493</u>	<u>484</u>	<u>1,402</u>
Mexico	<u>157</u>	<u>126</u>	<u>139</u>	<u>121</u>	<u>387</u>
Cuba	<u>123</u>	<u>110</u>	<u>123</u>	<u>90</u>	<u>323</u>
South America	<u>588</u>	<u>549</u>	<u>497</u>	<u>408</u>	<u>1,454</u>
Venezuela	<u>107</u>	<u>115</u>	<u>140</u>	<u>127</u>	<u>382</u>
Brazil	<u>161</u>	<u>155</u>	<u>109</u>	<u>106</u>	<u>370</u>
Argentina	<u>170</u>	<u>148</u>	<u>112</u>	<u>57</u>	<u>318</u>
Europe	<u>1,421</u>	<u>1,209</u>	<u>1,062</u>	<u>977</u>	<u>3,248</u>
ERP Countries (incl. Turkey)	<u>1,324</u>	<u>1,143</u>	<u>1,063</u>	<u>968</u>	<u>3,174</u>
Other Europe	<u>118</u>	<u>84</u>	<u>34</u>	<u>39</u>	<u>156</u>
Asia	<u>586</u>	<u>532</u>	<u>541</u>	<u>515</u>	<u>1,588</u>
India	<u>100</u>	<u>64</u>	<u>87</u>	<u>72</u>	<u>222</u>
Philippines	<u>110</u>	<u>128</u>	<u>118</u>	<u>99</u>	<u>345</u>
China	<u>88</u>	<u>63</u>	<u>90</u>	<u>53</u>	<u>206</u>
Australasia	<u>80</u>	<u>42</u>	<u>34</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>106</u>
Africa	<u>205</u>	<u>198</u>	<u>207</u>	<u>195</u>	<u>599</u>
Union of S. A.	<u>103</u>	<u>112</u>	<u>131</u>	<u>132</u>	<u>375</u>

TABLE IV

U. S. Imports from Selected Countries
(in millions of dollars)

	1947 quarterly average	1st quarter 1948	2nd quarter 1948	3rd quarter 1948	Jan.-Sept. 1948 (9 months' total)
Total Imports	<u>1,433</u>	<u>1,794</u>	<u>1,692</u>	<u>1,715</u>	<u>5,201</u>
North America	<u>536</u>	<u>605</u>	<u>614</u>	<u>643</u>	<u>1,862</u>
Canada	<u>274</u>	<u>328</u>	<u>355</u>	<u>410</u>	<u>1,092</u>
Mexico	<u>62</u>	<u>72</u>	<u>59</u>	<u>54</u>	<u>184</u>
Cuba	<u>127</u>	<u>94</u>	<u>104</u>	<u>105</u>	<u>303</u>
South America	<u>309</u>	<u>423</u>	<u>364</u>	<u>344</u>	<u>1,131</u>
Venezuela	<u>43</u>	<u>66</u>	<u>72</u>	<u>62</u>	<u>199</u>
Brazil	<u>111</u>	<u>128</u>	<u>119</u>	<u>109</u>	<u>356</u>
Argentina	<u>39</u>	<u>69</u>	<u>42</u>	<u>42</u>	<u>153</u>
Europe	<u>205</u>	<u>264</u>	<u>259</u>	<u>272</u>	<u>795</u>
ERP Countries (incl. Turkey)	<u>174</u>	<u>230</u>	<u>224</u>	<u>228</u>	<u>681</u>
Other Europe	<u>45</u>	<u>45</u>	<u>49</u>	<u>50</u>	<u>143</u>
Asia	<u>262</u>	<u>337</u>	<u>328</u>	<u>302</u>	<u>967</u>
India	<u>63</u>	<u>67</u>	<u>83</u>	<u>54</u>	<u>204</u>
British Malaya	<u>71</u>	<u>76</u>	<u>59</u>	<u>62</u>	<u>197</u>
Philippines	<u>40</u>	<u>65</u>	<u>60</u>	<u>52</u>	<u>177</u>
Australasia	<u>39</u>	<u>48</u>	<u>34</u>	<u>48</u>	<u>130</u>
Africa	<u>82</u>	<u>117</u>	<u>94</u>	<u>107</u>	<u>317</u>

TABLE V

U. S. Exports and Imports of Selected Commodities, January through September
(in millions of dollars)

	Jan.-Sept. 1948	Increase or decrease (-) from Jan.-Sept. 1947
<u>Exports of U. S. Merchandise</u>	9,404	-2,132
1. Crude Foodstuffs	928	-95
Wheat	702	242
Corn	15	-252
2. Crude Materials	1,031	-183
Coal	370	-84
3. Semimanufactures	1,052	-294
Iron and steel semimanufactures	238	-84
4. Manufactured Foodstuffs	1,023	-357
Dairy products	145	-52
Meat products	45	-89
Wheat flour	400	-109
5. Finished Manufactures	5,369	-1,206
Agricultural machinery & implements	286	54
Rayon, nylon, & other synthetic textile manufactures	149	-64
Rubber manufactures	95	-65
Motor trucks & busses (new)	268	-70
Cotton manufactures	348	-245
Merchant vessels	224	-293
<u>Imports for Consumption</u>	5,173	1,046
1. Semimanufactures	1,199	296
Sawed boards, planks, deals, etc.	116	49
Tin	69	45
Gas and fuel oil	95	36
Copper	130	32
Expressed oils, inedible	48	-33
2. Crude Materials	1,594	292
Wool, unmanufactured	253	87
Crude petroleum	196	79
Undressed furs	126	36
Hides and skins	91	33
Crude rubber	224	-37
3. Finished Manufactures	936	216
Machinery and vehicles	110	61
Newsprint	300	52
4. Crude Foodstuffs	904	187
Coffee, raw or green	495	74
Cocoa or cacao beans	154	46
5. Manufactured Foodstuffs	540	55
Meat products	56	42
Cane sugar	251	-64