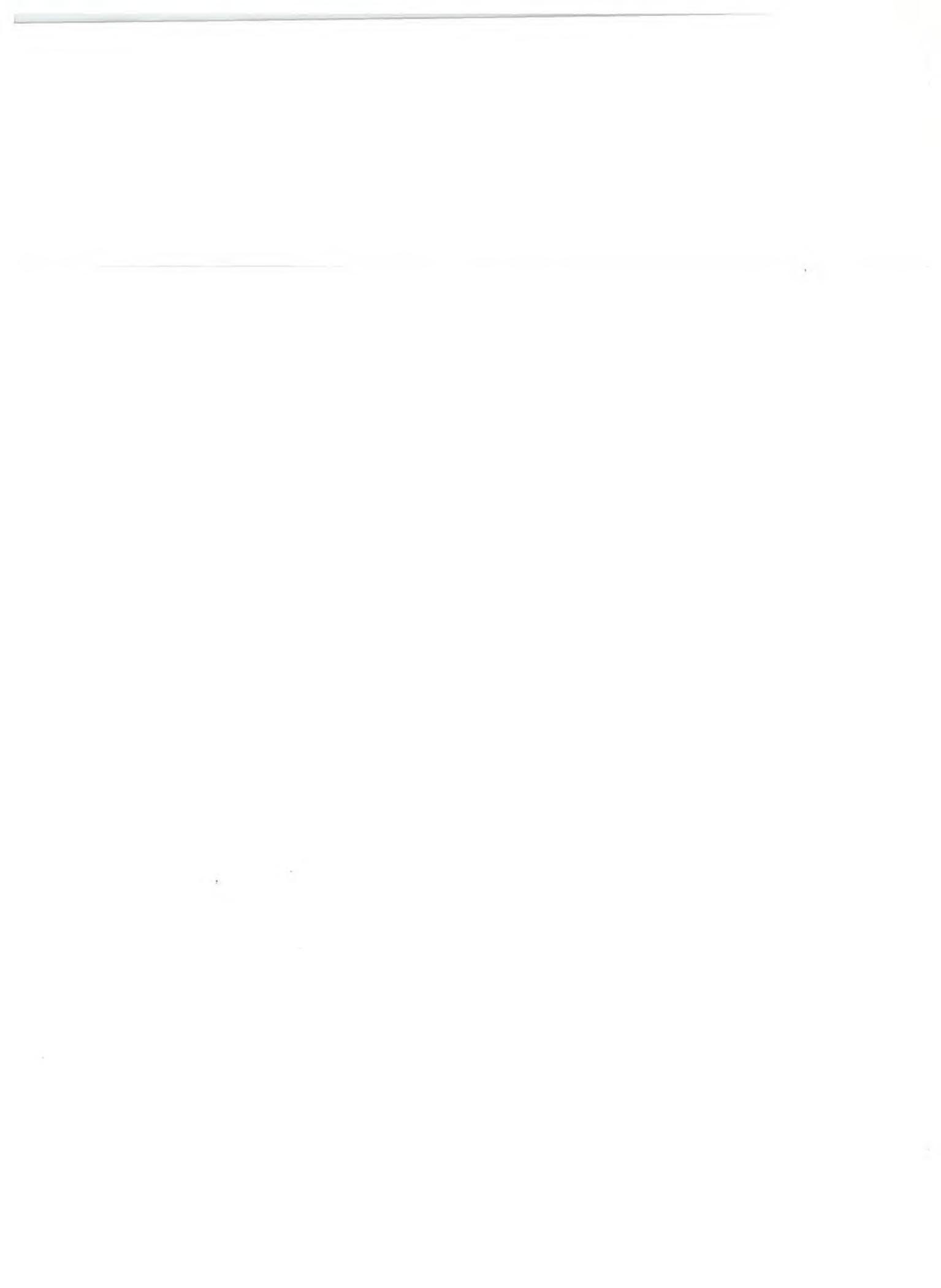


JANUARY 16, 1960

foreign trade



WHAT WEST GERMAN FARMERS PRODUCED (page two)



foreign trade

Established in 1904

OTTAWA, JANUARY 16, 1960

Vol. 113, No. 2

COVER

A West German farming family gathers in the rye harvest at Bleidenstadt; the Germans look upon rye as a bread grain and usually produce about 3½ million tons a year. For a report on all phases of German agricultural production and on the prospects for foreign suppliers, particularly of grain and fruit, turn to the article on page two.



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THE German agricultural year just ended was marked by a long, hot and dry summer. This affected farm production significantly and has important implications for the volume and pattern of Canada's agricultural exports to this country. The following paragraphs provide a sector-by-sector review of Germany's 1958/59 agricultural output and indicate her probable requirements in the coming months.

Grain Production

Although the dry summer gave rise to frequent reports of poor crop conditions during the growing year, the Federal Republic harvested in 1959 the largest grain crop in its history. At 14.41 million tons, it exceeded the previous record of 1957 by almost a million tons. Grain acreage continued to rise (0.3 per cent above 1958), but higher yields were basically responsible for the record crop. The production data are given in the table on page three.

Following a winter and early spring of favourable conditions, a prolonged dry spell set in at the end of May and caused fears of serious and extensive crop damage. Damage to the grain crop, however, was pretty well confined to light soil areas of northern Germany and was

more than offset by generally favourable growing conditions in other areas. The result was that the wheat yield, at 3.37 tons per hectare, rose 17.4 per cent above the six-year average 1953/58.

Bread grains accounted for 8.6 million tons of the record crop. The out-turn of rye, which in Germany is officially reckoned entirely as bread grain, at 3.9 million tons, was 3.6 per cent larger than the 1958 crop, despite a 5 per cent decline in acreage. This drop in rye seeding was a reaction to the removal for the 1958/59 crop year of the former DM20 per ton premium for rye suitable for baking bread.

Wheat, one of Germany's principal field crops, thrived under 1959 growing conditions. The 4.5 million tons harvested (32 per cent more than the 1953/58 average) were of an unusually high milling quality for German wheat.

As a result of the size and quality of the crop, effective January 1, 1960, German millers are required to use 75 per cent domestic wheat in their grist; the present percentage is 66. At the same time, the percentage of imported quality wheat that millers may use (now 28 and in 1955/56 as high as 34) has been lowered to 23. Germany's millers and bakers are among those who regret this progressive decline in the percentage of quality wheat that they may use. They point out that German eating habits (a fondness for sandwiches, for example) make

What

West German Farmers

Produced

Size and quality of the West German crops influence strongly what Canada sells to this lucrative market. Our Bonn office reports on the 1959 harvest and discusses the implications for our agricultural exporters.

G. F. MINTENKO, *Assistant Commercial Secretary, Bonn.*

a good percentage of quality wheat in the flour grist essential.

The harvest of feed and industrial grains, at 5.8 million tons, was up 5 per cent from the preceding year. Despite this, feed grain prices have tended to rise, partly because of the current high livestock population but largely because of the poor out-turn this year of hay and other traditional feedingstuffs such as sugar beet and potato greens. To offset this tendency the Government has, at least for the moment, abandoned its traditional policy of limiting feed-grain imports to relatively small amounts. Tenders for feed-barley imports were opened in October and by the end of that month 145,000 applications to import had been received.

Oilseeds

Production of rapeseed, West Germany's main oilseed crop, despite a reduction in the guaranteed producer's price from DM750 per ton to DM660, at 58,900 tons was slightly above 1958's out-turn. Acreage, in response to the price reduction, fell by 17 per cent, but the yield increased by 23 per cent.

Livestock and Livestock Products

According to the September 1959 census, the hog population stood at 15.29 million, compared with 15.4 million a year earlier. This decline will, however, soon be reversed as a result of an upward trend in breeding. The number of sows in pig in June 1959 stood 6.6 per cent higher than a year earlier.

In June 1959 the number of cattle in the Federal Republic reached 12.77 million, a 4 per cent increase over the year. This rise is attributed to the good fodder situation during the 1958/59 agricultural year. The subsequent deterioration in feeding supplies may be assumed to have set off already an increase in slaughterings and a trend towards a decline in the cattle population.

The number of milk cows increased by 2 per cent during the year, enabling a record milk produc-

WEST GERMAN GRAIN PRODUCTION

(in 1,000 metric tons)

	1958	1959	Average 1953/58	Per cent change from 1953/58 average
Rye	3,748	3,885	3,712	+ 4.7
Wheat	3,720	4,522	3,432	+31.8
Mixed winter grains	192	203	177	+14.9
Barley	2,423	2,843	2,225	+27.8
Oats	2,172	2,039	2,415	-15.6
Mixed summer grains	898	901	886	+ 1.8
Feed maize	13	13	18	-28.0
TOTAL GRAIN	13,166	14,406	12,865	+12

tion of 18.33 million tons. Production per cow also increased by 4 per cent over the previous year and now stands 33 per cent above the prewar level. This steady increase in production per animal is credited to improved feeding and breeding practices. The production of quality milk from TB-free cows continued to be encouraged during the year, with a production premium of DM 0.03 per kilogram. Currently, milk production is down and the outlook for the remainder of the agricultural year is poor because of the long dry summer and consequent lower feeding standards and large slaughterings.

Commercial slaughterings during the year yielded 2.36 million tons of meat (up slightly over the previous year), including 1.4 million tons of pork and 0.8 million tons of beef. Imported animals contributed 15 per cent to these slaughterings and a net import surplus of 121,000 tons of meat also augmented the meat supply.

Per capita meat consumption established a new record of 53.3 kilograms. This figure has been increasing steadily since the currency reform of 1948 and during the period under review exceeded the prewar level for the first time. That there is in Germany a growing consumer preference for leaner types of meat is illustrated by the fact that per capita consumption of beef since the prewar period 1936/38 has increased by 8 per cent; pork consumption has fallen by 1 per cent.

Butter output in 1958/59 totalled 375,255 tons, up 8 per cent over the preceding year. Production during the late summer and fall of 1959, however, dropped off considerably and despite substantial im-

German agriculture depends for its production on sturdy workers like the two pictured on these pages. The farmer on the left is from Westphalia; the woman below is doing the spring pruning at the Seven Hills vineyards in Bonn.



ports and releases from government-held stocks, prices have been rising steadily. Pressure was expected to ease, however, during December.

At the time of the last poultry census in December 1958 there were in the Federal Republic 56.8 million chickens, an increase of 1.25 per cent during the year. That this increase will taper off is suggested by the fact that the number of laying hens increased by 1.8 per cent but the young chicken population grew by only 0.7 per cent.

Egg production in 1958/59 is estimated at 6,820 million, a rise of 4 per cent over 1957/58. Despite this increase, Germany remained an attractive market for egg exporters in neighbouring countries. The 4,700 million eggs imported in 1958/59 represented an increase of almost 18 per cent over the preceding year.

Fruits and Vegetables

Although final figures are not yet available, it is already clear that fruit production, as a result of the dry summer and the drastically reduced yields, was much below normal. Estimates put the crop at 53 per cent below last year's bumper one and 28 per cent below the average for the years 1953/58. Production of the more significant fruits was as follows:

WEST GERMAN FRUIT PRODUCTION

	(in 1,000 tons)		
	Average 1953/58	1958	1959
Apples	1,358	2,238	889
Pears	390	669	243
Plums and prunes	342	378	297
TOTAL (including other fruits)	2,523	3,857	1,832

Apple production in 1959 stood at only 65.5 per cent of the average of the previous six years and pear production at 62.3 per cent. To avoid excessive increases in price, the Government has opened import tenders for table apples and table pears. Canada is included as a source of supply in these tenders.

Acreage devoted to commercial production of vegetables fell by 6.4 per cent, thus continuing its declining trend. Yields were also low, with the result that the vegetable crop is estimated at 870,000 tons, only 77 per cent of the 1953/58 average. Of the major vegetables, peas were least affected by the dry growing conditions. Pea production dropped only a moderate 6,000 tons to 52,000 tons, but output of beans fell from 68,000 to 40,000 tons. To avoid shortages and price increases, substantial tenders for the import of canned vegetables and canned fruits have been opened much earlier in the year than is normal.

Other Crops

Quantitatively Germany produced a fair potato crop in 1959. The 22.7 million-ton crop is the same as 1958's and 2.3 million tons (or 9 per cent) smaller than the 1953/58 average. The quality, however, was low and it is estimated that in some areas at least, table potatoes do not account for more than 50 per cent of production.

Despite a slight increase in sugar-beet acreage, estimates put production at only 7.9 million tons (1958 = 11.2 million tons). On the other hand, the sugar content of the 1959 crop, at 16.34 per cent, is 1.5 percentage points higher than last year.

Tobacco acreage and production continued in 1959 the steady decline in evidence for some years. Output, at 14,400 tons, was 27 per cent lower than in 1958. Some 60 per cent of the German crop is made up of cigar leaf and the remainder is largely Virginia type.

Outlook for Imports

At the time when the domestic grain crop was forecast at 13.6 million tons (actual out-turn was 14.4 million tons), the Government estimated that wheat imports of 2,035,000 tons would be necessary during the year ending June 30, 1960. Of this amount 1,020,000 tons are quality wheat, 310,000 durum wheat, and 705,000 filler

and feed wheat. The larger than anticipated domestic crop will, no doubt, modify these estimates but the Government has not yet announced any revised program. No imports of rye are anticipated during the year. (Canadian agricultural imports into Germany in the first nine months of 1957, 1958 and 1959 are given in the table below.)

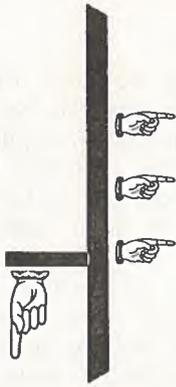
PRINCIPAL AGRICULTURAL EXPORTS FROM CANADA TO WEST GERMANY

	('000 Canadian \$)		
	9 mos. 1957	9 mos. 1958	9 mos. 1959
Quality wheat	32,715	21,174	25,173
Durum	8,333	8,354	8,737
Barley	7,987	826	51
Rye	1,177	960	262
Oats			1,111
Flaxseed	4,161	1,894	3,382
Rapeseed	1,976	1,887	306
Cattle hides	1,143	997	776
Calf skins and kips	109	407	368
Tobacco	903	611	851
Whisky	1,033	335	479
Clover seeds	168	239	158
Fur skins	441	346	390
Mustardseed	26	204	156
Fresh apples		432	27
Canned fruits	21	149	77
TOTAL	60,193	38,815	42,304

Source: Trade of Canada, *Exports*, DBS

At the same time as it announced the wheat import program outlined above, the Government estimated the country's requirements of imported feed and industrial grains at 3,220,000 tons—made up of 475,000 tons of malting barley (including malt), 480,000 tons of other industrial grains, and 2,265,000 tons of feed grains.

Because of the very small crop in Germany and neighbouring countries, the outlook for imports of Canadian fresh apples and pears and for canned fruits and vegetables is good. It has already been pointed out above that import tenders have been opened for these products, naming Canada as a possible source of supply. ●



Advertising Abroad

In Communist China, the circulation of brochures and pamphlets through the state trading corporations provides the best initial approach to the market.

C. M. FORSYTH-SMITH, *Trade Commissioner, Hong Kong.*

ONE of the most difficult tasks confronting the prospective exporter to Communist China is the problem of bringing his products to the attention of potential buyers. Under the system of state trading in effect in China, all purchases from Western countries are made by a number of state trading corporations, each specializing in specific types of goods. It is believed that these corporations make the final decisions about sources of supply for particular commodities. There is little doubt, however, that these decisions are to some extent influenced by preferences expressed by end-users and by the various production ministries that are responsible for implementing the production plans and the allocation of funds for particular purposes.

The problem then becomes one of reaching these three closely-connected elements in the Chinese system—the trading corporations, the production ministries, and the end-users. There are a number of possible approaches, none of which is entirely satisfactory but some of which Canadian companies whose products have prospects of substantial sales in China may find worth investigating.

Newspapers

A number of newspapers in China accept advertisements from abroad

and some of these papers have extremely large circulations. Because, generally speaking, consumer goods cannot be sold to China, newspaper advertising of such products has only limited value. It has, however, been used with some success by a number of overseas companies, particularly the Swiss watchmakers, and to a lesser extent by some European automobile manufacturers. Where newspaper advertising has been used, the object has been to reach senior officials, technicians, engineers and executives in the trading corporations, production ministries and in industry, because these people do have some influence in determining the sources from which goods will be purchased. No purpose whatever is served by arousing the interest of the general public. It is not possible to evaluate the effectiveness of newspapers as advertising media but such a paper as the *People's Daily*, with probably the largest circulation of any newspaper in the world, is certainly read by a large proportion of the literate Chinese.

Technical Journals

Suppliers of capital equipment and raw materials would find valuable the insertion of advertisements in some of the technical journals that circulate among technicians, administrative staffs and engineers.

A number of these accept advertisements from abroad and the belief is that their specialized readers study them carefully. Such journals cover a wide field—including industry in general, machinery, electronics, chemicals, papermaking, pharmaceuticals, petroleum, metals, medicine, textiles, agriculture and engineering.

Brochures and Pamphlets

A more direct approach is the supplying of brochures, pamphlets and other publicity material to the trading corporations, ministries, and end-users. The problem of getting such material distributed is most difficult. Probably the most satisfactory way to circulate it is through the trading corporations, which will normally pass on the material to the appropriate officials and end-users. If this channel is not used, the overseas company is faced with two difficulties: first, the problem of locating the end-users, since there are no directories; second, the possibility of antagonizing officials in the trading corporations who may object to being bypassed. There are some 16 state trading corporations, each with head offices in Peking and branches in the principal centres. If the approach is to be made through the corporations, the first step is to ascertain which corporation handles the particular goods. The second step is then to contact the head office and each branch. Adequate quantities of literature should be supplied to enable the corporation to place it in the hands of all interested parties. The quantities needed will depend on the product and the estimated

number of end-users; for most raw materials, six sets of literature for each branch should suffice.

Films

Films are used extensively in Communist China as a means of propaganda and can effectively introduce products from abroad. It is doubtful if films will be put to adequate use if they are merely sent to China with the request that they be shown. The best method is for businessmen visiting China to take films with them, to be shown as opportunity presents. After this initial introduction, the films might well be left with the officials of the trading corporations or production ministries, in the hope that they may put them to work. This medium was used successfully in making sales of Canadian wheat to China in 1958. Although it is not possible to find out how much influence our film had on the final decision to buy wheat from Canada, it is likely that it was effective in arousing initial interest at least.

Trade Fairs

A more ambitious means of advertising in China is by the use of trade fairs. There are no international trade fairs at which overseas companies can exhibit but it is possible to arrange for national exhibitions, organized by private businessmen interested in trading with China, to be held in the principal centres. A number of Communist Bloc countries have held such exhibitions but it is not possible to determine the results. In addition, several Japanese exhibitions were staged in China before the Chinese imposed an embargo on trade with Japan, and a fairly large Indian exhibition was held in Peking in 1957. These exhibitions were reported to be very successful and are said to have led to large increases in trade. Plans have been under way for some time to hold a British exhibition in Peking but this project, which requires a great deal of planning, will probably not become a reality for another year or so.

One of the best means of trade promotion and the one which appears most favoured in China is the trade mission made up of businessmen who wish to trade with China. A large proportion of China's trade is done through the exchange of trade missions, particularly with Communist Bloc countries. Good results have, however, been achieved over the past two or three years by trade missions from Japan, West Germany, Italy, France, and a number of other countries. Trade missions should be privately sponsored, well balanced and include importers as well as exporters. The members should be thoroughly prepared in advance and should be in a position to finalize deals while they are in China. Co-operation between importers and exporters should be arranged so that an agreement by some members to purchase from China can be made conditional on Chinese purchases from others. This does not necessarily mean barter deals, but the Chinese do favour linked deals that result in no net loss of foreign exchange. A trade mission, to be effective, should visit the principal centres, including Peking, Tientsin, Shanghai and Canton. It should spend at least three weeks in China and advance preparations should include arranging the composition of the mission and correspondence with the state trading corporations. Applications for visas should be submitted at least three months before the expected date of departure.

Translation Problem

Whatever means is used to publicize goods in China, an effort should be made to adapt publicity materials to suit Chinese conditions. Few of the present generation of Chinese engineers and technicians have ever visited the West and their knowledge of the English language is limited. Naturally, advertisements in newspapers and technical journals should be published in Chinese, and since it is very hard to translate technical data into Chinese, this

should be done by experts. Arrangements can be made to have translations and publicity material prepared in China but this is extremely costly and difficult to supervise. A more satisfactory method is to have the work done in Hong Kong, where there are translation facilities at reasonable cost and where efficient advertising agencies can be used to ensure that it is done suitably. It would be a real problem to translate complete catalogues into Chinese, particularly as there are no standardized technical equivalents in the Chinese language and, in any case, lengthy translations are extremely expensive even if done in Hong Kong. It is suggested, however, that some small pamphlets might be prepared in Chinese and any illustrations should certainly carry descriptions in Chinese characters.

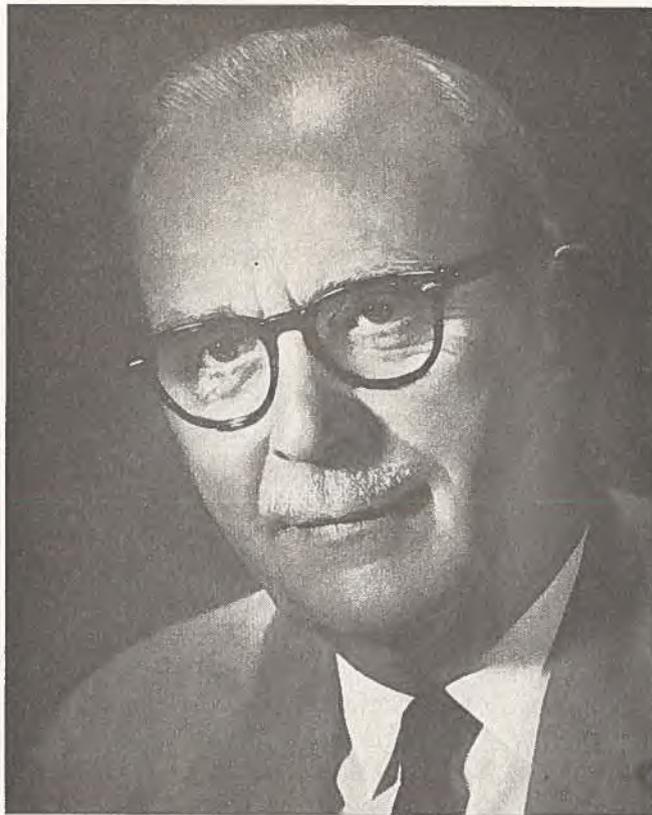
Initial Step

Most types of advertising in China are extremely expensive and until Canadian exporters can ascertain with some degree of accuracy that their products have a high sales potential, they should confine themselves to direct approaches to the trading corporations. It is also recommended that advertising programs in China be discussed thoroughly with the Trade Commissioner in Hong Kong before action is taken.

TV Comes to India

Television came to India, the first country in South East Asia to have a regular TV system, late last year, when a transmitting station was opened in New Delhi. The first program lasted for 90 minutes. It was seen by thousands of people gathered round sets installed in public places in and outside Delhi, and included ballet, drama, songs and films.

Set up by the All India Radio, the station has a 500-watt transmitter and four cameras. It plans to broadcast programs twice a week within a radius of 12 miles.



John Hascall English 1901 - 1960

John Hascall English, Deputy Minister of Trade and Commerce, died in Ottawa on January first. In his thirty-four years with the Department Mr. English developed close contacts with businessmen throughout Canada, and they will feel that they have lost a personal friend. Many exporters travelling in foreign countries relied on his help and appreciated his hospitality in the days when he was stationed abroad. On his return to Ottawa in 1953 he renewed and extended his acquaintance with the business community. Even in his crowded days as Deputy Minister he always looked forward to talking with his business visitors, hearing about their successes and advising them on their problems.

John English graduated from the University of Alberta in 1926 with a Bachelor of Commerce degree and settled down to a career in accountancy. Within a year he chose to become a Trade Commissioner—a decision that he never regretted. He was “happy in the Service” and from that day on it held a central place in his life, second only to his family.

After preliminary training in Ottawa, he was posted successively to New York, Jamaica and Dublin and in 1933 to London, where he remained for six years. Just after the outbreak of war in 1939 he took over as Trade Commissioner in Johannesburg, a post to which he returned happily in 1946, following four years of wartime duty in Ottawa. One of his unfulfilled ambitions at the time of his death was to visit Africa once again.

His wartime assignment was the heading up of the Export Planning Division, first organized within the Department of Trade and Commerce but later transferred to the Wartime Prices and Trade Board. Its function was to work out export quotas for products in short supply, to prevent strategic goods from reaching the enemy by circuitous routes, to negotiate with other countries over the supply of goods from Canada, and to deal with related

problems. These duties he performed conscientiously.

From 1948 to 1953, Mr. English held the exacting position of Commercial Counsellor at the Canadian Embassy in Washington—an assignment that gave him scope to exercise his seasoned judgment and to use the skills developed in previous postings.

When he was appointed Director of the Trade Commissioner Service in 1953, he set out to adapt it to the times. He recognized that the role of the Trade Commissioner was changing and would continue to change and that the Service must realize this and plan accordingly. He laid stress upon the training of officers in economic reporting and in commercial policy, both at head office and in the field. He made more effective the recruitment of outstanding students from the universities as Foreign Service Officers, and he improved the conditions of service. He took a personal interest in each Trade Commissioner.

Almost at once he made plans for visiting many of the posts abroad. In 1954, he presided at a conference of Trade Commissioners serving in Europe, held in Rome. In 1955 he visited the offices in the Far East and attended the meetings of the Colombo Plan Consultative Committee in Singapore. On this trip he also spent several weeks in Ceylon, advising the Director of Commerce on the organization of trade promotion, including the establishment of a Trade Commissioner Service. In 1956 he organized a successful conference in Ottawa of the Trade Commissioners on duty in Latin America, and in 1957

he inspected the offices in Central America and the Caribbean.

His appointment as Assistant Deputy Minister in 1956 he prized chiefly as a recognition of the increasing stature of the Trade Commissioner Service, rather than as a personal preferment.

In May 1958 his career reached a climax when he was made Deputy Minister. Even in his short period in office he revealed his talent for grasping swiftly the essentials of a complicated problem and for working out an acceptable solution. He also demonstrated his skill in co-operation and his relations with other departments of government were particularly cordial and fruitful. Early last spring he travelled to Canberra as head of a delegation to negotiate a new trade agreement between Canada and Australia.

John English was a "professional" in the best sense of the word. He found his work as a Trade Commissioner completely absorbing and he brought to it both ability and dedication. Businessmen at home and abroad recognized in him a public servant of broad experience and a man of sound judgment. Many letters, including tributes from the Governor General and from Prime Minister Diefenbaker, testify to this and to the affection that he inspired. His warm smile revealed his own interest in people and he thoroughly enjoyed the entertaining that falls to the lot of the Foreign Service Officer. A dry wit, relished by his colleagues, testified to a sense of humour and a sense of proportion.

Businessmen in Canada and in many other countries will share our appreciation of the service he gave and our sorrow at his passing.

Foreign Investment in Spain

THE economic stabilization plan in Spain announced in the Decree-Law of July 27, 1959 (see *Foreign Trade* of August 15, 1959, for information on aspects of the plan of importance to Canadian exporters) contains new regulations governing the participation of foreign capital in Spanish enterprises. It appears that the Spanish authorities are earnestly seeking to attract foreign investment by making the regulations more liberal.

Foreigners may now invest in Spanish enterprises on the same terms as residents of Spain, with certain specific exceptions, such as those directly related to national defence and public information and usually those affecting public services. They are also free to supply up to 50 per cent of the capital in an enterprise, in contrast to the former 25 per cent. (Special permission was occasionally granted for greater participation, but always less than 50 per cent.) Foreign capital participation beyond 50 per cent may now be allowed if the foreign group first obtains the authorization of the Council of Ministers. (Foreign oil companies prospecting in Spain and its territories are covered by a special law.)

The new regulations also make provision for a reasonable return of capital invested and of dividends earned. Companies or enterprises of "special social and economic interest" (specifically classified) now have the right to transfer abroad the profits earned on the foreign investment, in foreign currency and without quantitative limit. Companies that do not obtain this special classification are limited to the transfer abroad of 6 per cent a year on the capital invested.

Any Canadian investors interested in this new deal on capital investment in Spain may write for further information to the office of the Commercial Counsellor, Canadian Embassy, Madrid.

—M. T. STEWART,
Commercial Counsellor, Madrid.

Melons, tomatoes, cucumbers, strawberries, lettuce
—the barren, rocky island of Aruba today grows them all.
The secret—hydroponic farming.

Aruba's New-Fashioned Farm

R. D. SIRRS, *Assistant Commercial Secretary, Caracas.*

IT would be difficult to find a more barren spot than Aruba. Yet this windswept little Caribbean island, fifteen miles off the coast of Venezuela, currently enjoys a relatively high degree of prosperity. This, of course, is almost entirely because of its oil-refining operation. With the largest oil throughput in the world, oil-refining provides most of Aruba's people with their livelihood. However, enterprising Arubans are not content to sit back and rely only on this industry. They think of the future and realize that a stable degree of prosperity can best be ensured by promoting other economic endeavours.

The island's government has developed the tourist trade, capitalizing on Aruba's Dutch flavour, good shopping facilities and fine beaches. Luxury hotels have been established. In addition, a Free Zone and perhaps a chemical industry are hopeful prospects.

Farm Started in '58

However, the most unusual development is possibly Aruba's recently established hydroponic farm. It has made it possible for an arid land that supported only aloes and cactus to nurture a flourishing agricultural production unit. This farm, owned by the island government and operated by a scientific farmer from the United States, turns out tomatoes, cucumbers, cantaloupes, lettuce, peppers, egg plant, endives, escarola, scallions, parsley, beans, potatoes, strawberries, celery and squash. Production started in February 1958 and as of August 31,

1959, output totalled the equivalent of nearly 500,000 pounds.

The farm has been ingeniously devised to compensate for the island's unfertile soil, heavy winds and lack of water. The plants are grown in sixty concrete beds (each 3 x 60 feet) containing blown vermiculite mixed with gravel. Vermiculite, an inert material imported from South Africa and blown in the island's own furnaces, retards an otherwise excessive evaporation of the water obtained from the island's seawater distillation plant. Chemical plant-foods purchased from the United States are mixed in with this water and fed by gravity to each of the plant beds. This solution is later repumped to a central tank for redistribution. Approximately one-third of the water in the solution is used up during one plant-feeding operation.

Strong prevailing trade winds are offset by vertical lattice fences 12 feet high erected on the windward side of the beds. Gravel is used as an additional means of counteracting the wind by holding the plants firmly in place.

Markets Developed

Aruba constitutes the main market for the hydroponic farm and although local production costs are relatively high, its produce competes favourably with high-cost imports. The excellent quality has enhanced a growing local demand.

Foreign interest has also been keen. The United States is a firm customer for Aruba's cantaloupes during the winter months and this

year also made a significant spot purchase of tomatoes. Curaçao is currently buying cucumbers, and may soon be importing other fruits or vegetables. Trinidad is an immediately promising market for Aruba's cantaloupes because of the U.S. personnel based there. It is doubtful whether other Caribbean markets could be readily secured because Aruba's relatively high production costs would make the produce prohibitively expensive in most of this region.

Outlook

The farm means little to Aruba in terms of over-all employment (it currently provides jobs for 30 people) considering the total population and the rate of increase of approximately 1,700 people per year. However, it has proved itself as a foodstuffs supplier and as a profitable venture. The plan is to increase production soon by a 50 per cent expansion of the farm's size and output. Recently a U.S. cigar manufacturer undertook to finance an experiment in growing wrapper tobacco, a special type, hydroponically.

The hydroponic farm, although it has succeeded in Aruba, which enjoys relatively high wages and a hard currency that makes it easy to import needed raw materials, would not likely be a successful venture in less prosperous Caribbean areas. It might, however, be worth considering for congested urban areas where transportation costs of truck-farm goods prove to be exorbitant. ●



Fairs and Exhibitions

A British Showcase for Foods

DO you want to show your foods to some 350,000 British buyers and consumers? Do you want to win a bigger share of the expanding British market for imported foods—the biggest market, in fact, in the world? According to experts at the Department of Trade and Commerce, Ottawa, the *1960 Food Fair*, September 1-17 in London, is one of the most significant ways to hit the U.K. food market this year. The fair is sponsored by the London *Daily Express* and promoted by the Food Manufacturers' Federation Inc., an association that includes a large proportion of the best known food manufacturers in Britain.

In 1958, the date of the last fair, 15 governments and 133 companies took space and many more are expected to do so in 1960, with the recent relaxation of U.K. import restrictions. Businessmen interested in exhibiting should write as soon as possible to the Director, Agriculture and Fisheries Branch, Department of Trade and Commerce, Ottawa.

Canadian Consumer Goods to Britain

CANADIANS are showing consumer goods in Britain for the first time in many years at the *Daily Mail Ideal Home Exhibition* in London, March 1-26. The exhibit, a large one, is sponsored by the Department of Trade and Commerce, Ottawa. It will be the Department's first full-scale effort at this consumer goods show, and will feature a wide range of goods that Canadians can expect to sell in Britain now that the U.K. Government has lifted restrictions on purchases of most goods from the dollar area. Some 1.5 million people—buyers and general public—are expected to attend.

The Canadian exhibits will be spread over three areas in the Olympia exhibition halls. In one building, with other international booths, the Canadian Government Exhibition Commission will set up a big (4,500 square feet), unified display of consumer goods, excluding foods. Another building will house the two remaining Canadian exhibits: a 2,500-square-foot food display, and the "Trend House", built by the British Columbia Lumber Manufacturers' Association.

The main exhibit, composed of booths and tableaux, will show Canadian consumer goods—washers, dryers, refrigerators, hi-fidelity sets, footwear, toys and plastic

products. In one of the tableaux, Britons will see what a trade official has called "luxury" goods: a baby grand piano in blue, draperies, an evening dress, costume jewellery, fine living-room furniture, Eskimo carvings and handicrafts. The other showcase will be given over to sporting goods—such as water skis, swim suits, skin-diving gear, a boat, outboard motors, and camping, hockey and golf equipment.

Thirty-two Canadian firms are contributing to the food display. Some of them have agents in Britain who will be on hand to sell and answer questions; other firms are exhibiting in the U.K. for the first time. Some of the foods that should interest British buyers will include jams, sauces, honey, cheese, spaghetti, confectionery, fruit juices, pickles, canned salmon and lobster. Composite displays in front of the stand will show processed fruits and vegetables.

The Trend House, an eye-catcher in two previous shows, is designed to illustrate how Canadian woods are used in wood-frame construction. It is a big, split-level house with three bedrooms, kitchen, dining and living rooms; there are cutaways at significant spots to show how the woods are used. The house is being built at the show site and will be sold after the exhibition to the highest bidder.

Organizers in Ottawa expect that many, if not most, of the exhibits will be manned by firm representatives in the U.K. and from Canada—at least this is what they have been hoping for, because much of the show's success will depend on the "live" help that firms themselves are able to give. Trade Commissioners from British posts and A. C. Fairweather from the Commodities Branch of the Department in Ottawa will assist in handling inquiries.

World's Biggest Auto Show

FROM the Ambassador of Switzerland in Canada comes this information about the *30th International Motor Show of Geneva*, said to be the world's largest featuring the road-vehicles industry, with cars, trucks, trailers, motorcycles, boats, fuels and maintenance equipment on display from 16 countries. The dates this year: March 10 to 20. The address for hotel reservations: Association des Intérêts de Genève, place des

Bergues 3, Geneva. Additional information may be obtained from the Secretary of the International Motor Show, place du Lac 1, Geneva.

If You Sell Plastics . . .

THE office of the Commercial Counsellor in Brussels reports that an international exhibition of products of the synthetic resins industry, *Europlastica 60*, will be set up in Ghent, Belgium, from June 18 to 26, 1960. Participation is open to all nations, though European production and consumption will be stressed. This vertical fair will cover all plastic products, from raw materials to semi and fully manufactured articles, as well as machinery for the plastics industry. About 10,000 square metres of floor space will be for rent in the permanent exhibition buildings at 400 francs per square metre, with a minimum of 12 square metres per participant. Information may be obtained from the Office Belge des Matières Plastiques, Galerie du Centre, Bloc 3, Rue des Fripiers, Brussels 1.

In the Belgian "Black Country"

"TIMED for the European Common Market", say the organizers of the *4th International Technical and Industrial Exhibition* of Charleroi, Belgium, September 15-26. Charleroi, a city of half-a-million people, in the heart of the Belgian "black country", has played host at this fair since 1954 to as many as 981 firms from 18 countries. (There was a three-year interval between 1957-59 because of the Brussels World Fair.) Exhibition facilities include four modern halls equipped with 5, 15 and 40-ton overhead travelling cranes for moving heavy industrial machinery. Trucks have direct access to each display area.

Manufacturers of all types of machinery are invited to exhibit; the fair covers all main branches of industry and technology. Inquiries may be addressed to: Palais des Expositions, Avenue de l'Europe, Charleroi.

World Trade Fair in the U.S.

CANADIAN exporters looking for bigger business in the United States might consider showing their goods at the *United States World Trade Fair* in New York, May 4-14, 1960. This exhibition is given over to the display and sale of imported goods in these groups: consumer goods, foods and beverages, sporting goods, and technical and mechanical equipment. In addition, governments are invited to set up national pavilions.

This is an infant enterprise (established in 1957) but attendance so far indicates that it has already been a success. In 1959, 3,000 exhibitors from 63 countries set up displays and the turnstiles clicked over for some 551,000 visitors from 71 foreign countries.

JANUARY 16, 1960

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Interested businessmen may obtain more information by writing to the U.S. World Trade Fair, 331 Madison Avenue, New York 17, N.Y.

Peru's First Motor Show

FOLLOWING the abolition on October 1 of the quota system for imports of motor vehicles, Peru ran its first automotive show from the 8th to the 17th of January in Lima. According to the Commercial Secretary in Peru, the show was presented by the organizers of the highly successful Pacific International Trade Fair held in Lima last October. Included were cars, trucks, trailers, motorcycles, scooters, spare parts and accessories, as well as boats and launches. European, British and Japanese manufacturers participated heavily. Most of the boats on display came from Peruvian boatyards.

Vertical Exhibitions

AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY—*International Agricultural Machinery Exhibition*, Paris, March 1-6. Apply: Union des Exposants de Machines et d'Outillage Agricoles, 95 rue Saint Lazare, Paris 9.

ATOMIC ENERGY—*Atom Fair and Nuclear Congress*, New York, April 5-9. Apply: International Atomic Exposition Inc., Reber-Friel, Architects' Building, Philadelphia 3, Pennsylvania.

CHEMICALS—*International Chemical Exhibition*, Belgrade, June 1-10. Apply: Dr. I. Todorovic, Organization Committee, Exposition de l'Industrie Chimique Yougoslavie 1960, Bulevar Vojvode Misica 16, Belgrade.

PRODUCTION, CAPITAL EQUIPMENT, PARTS—*Fourth Swiss Import Fair*, Zurich, May 20-29. Participation open to Swiss importers and retailers of foreign goods only. Canadian firms should contact their Swiss agents as soon as possible.

General Fairs around the World

FRANCE—*Lyons International Fair*, Lyons, March 12-21. Apply: Grand Palais de la Foire de Lyons, quai Achille-Lignon, Lyons 6. Paris address: 136, boulevard Haussman, Paris 8. In addition to the usual professional groups, the 1960 Lyons fair will contain two important "Salons" and a third specialized section. These are: the International Salon of Games and Toys; the International Fair of Household Equipment, Hardware, Tools and Heating; and the International Fair of Furniture and Furnishings.

JAPAN—*4th International Trade Fair*, Osaka, April 9-26. Apply: Osaka International Trade Fair Commission, Honmachi-Bashi, Higashi-ku, Osaka.

MOROCCO—*International Trade Fair*, Casablanca, April 28-May 15. Apply: Commissariat Générale de la Foire Internationale de Casablanca, Rue Jules Mauran, Casablanca.

SWITZERLAND—*44th Swiss Industries Fair*, Basle, April 23-May 3. Buyers may write for more information to: Swiss Industries Fair, Basle 21.

UNITED STATES—*International Trade Fair*, Chicago, June 20-July 5. Apply: The Chicago Association of Commerce and Industry, 30 West Monroe Street, Chicago 3.

1st International Fair of San Francisco, San Francisco, June 9-19. Apply: International Fair of San Francisco, 325 Pacific Avenue, San Francisco 11.

Ghana Grows on Cocoa



Workers split the cocoa pods and remove the beans for drying and fermenting.

Ghanaians today produce high-quality cocoa; with the export earnings support themselves and finance their development plans. What is the outlook for cocoa output and prices?

ELIZABETH MILTON, *Office of the Commercial Secretary, Accra.*

GHANA'S prosperity and economic stability still depend primarily on cocoa. About half a million of its people are directly concerned in cocoa farming and the lives of all Ghanaians are affected in one way or another by the success or failure of the cocoa crop. Cocoa, all of which is exported, accounts for over 60 per cent of total exports by value and is shipped to over 40 countries.

During the last ten years cocoa shipments have varied from 210,000 to 278,000 tons (the all-time record was 311,151 tons in 1936) and in 1957 they earned nearly £63 million. The Government imposes high

taxation on cocoa shipments and in 1957-58 collected over £26 million. This money it uses to further general development and build up industry.

Cocoa Farmer Assisted

Ghana is determined to maintain its position as the leading producer and exporter of cocoa, supplying nearly one-third of the total world crop. The Government devotes much money and effort to educating farmers in scientific growing methods and teaching them to combat diseases, such as the swollen shoot disease that for some years threatened the industry with ex-

tinction. Cocoa-growing is carried on entirely by Ghanaians and no European capital is invested in the cocoa farms. There are now more Ghanaian than European licensed buyers.

Originally, cocoa farming was almost entirely a village industry; the farms, seldom larger than ten acres, were run by families. The Government has taken several steps to help these peasant farmers. The Agricultural Department, for example, supplies free of charge healthy cocoa seedlings from government nurseries stationed throughout the forest belt. These usually receive their seedlings from the West African Cocoa Research Institute, established about twenty years ago to serve both Nigeria and Ghana. There invaluable research into cocoa diseases and into the production of high-yielding varieties is carried on by European and African scientists, including one recently arrived from Canada. Experiments on growing cocoa in sunlight (instead of the usual shade) and with fertilizers have resulted in the fantastically high yield of 3,000 pounds per acre, compared with the 200 to 300 pounds from the average farm. The Institute is also slowly bringing under control the virulent disease of swollen shoot and damage to crops by capsid, a small black fly.

The Institute is entirely devoted to research and has no commercial dealings. It sends all strains of seeds and seedlings that have undergone any scientific experiments to be tested to the satisfaction of the large chocolate manufacturers to ensure that the experiments have not affected in any way the distinctive flavour of the beans. Not until then can the seeds or seedlings be distributed to growers. The institute must also certify as non-injurious

any chemical process for pest or disease control.

Grading System Enforced

The Ghana Government strictly enforces its own grading system, legally defined as follows:

Grade I—Cocoa that is thoroughly dry, free from foreign matter, and containing not more than 5 per cent by count of mouldy, weevily, decayed, flat or germinated beans, and not more than 5 per cent by count of slaty beans.

Grade II—Cocoa that is thoroughly dry, free from foreign matter, and containing not more than 10 per cent by count of mouldy, weevily, decayed, flat or germinated beans and not more than 15 per cent of slaty beans, and in which neither mouldy nor weevily beans exceed 5 per cent by count.

Any cocoa below Grade II (sub-grade) the Government buys up and sells locally for making into cocoa butter. In 1958 the sub-grade cocoa totalled only 664 tons. Up to 1957, the average proportion of Grade I to Grade II cocoa was about 50 per cent but in 1958 the proportion rose to 63 per cent; the hope is that the current season will produce even better results. Ghana's high-quality product has always had a preferred position in the world market.

Marketing Cocoa

Since the Second World War, all Ghana's cocoa has been sold through the Cocoa Marketing Board, set up to protect the farmers' interests and control the purchase and distribution of the crop. At the start, the Board took over a reserve fund of £13 million, built up in wartime by the West African Produce Control Board. Operating this stabilization fund carefully, it has been able to protect farmers against the wide and often rapid fluctuations in world market prices.

When cocoa prices are up, the Board makes a substantial profit, but when they fall sharply it may have to fall back on its reserves, now at some £77 million. It holds funds that it has left after paying

its overhead in trust for the cocoa farmers. The money is either invested or spent on development projects, scholarships for students to study abroad, or on new techniques and production methods that will benefit cocoa producers. So far the Board has paid the whole cost of the £15 million cocoa rehabilitation scheme made necessary by the ravages of the swollen shoot disease. It has also allocated over £2 million to the Cocoa Research Institute.

Canada's Purchases

The following table gives cocoa sales to the ten leading buying countries for the past three years. Canada ranks tenth in this list. Our cocoa imports from Ghana declined steadily from 11,015 tons in 1948 to only 950 tons in 1954. They then rose to nearly 5,000 tons but have now dropped again.

GHANA'S COCOA EXPORTS

	1956	1957	1958
	(in tons)		
West Germany	51,524	53,025	54,503
United Kingdom	39,565	46,289	37,149
United States	47,400	46,750	42,750
U.S.S.R.	12,000	39,000	
Netherlands	39,500	39,200	30,750
Italy	5,315	6,061	11,700
Australia	5,900	3,325	3,600
France	3,875	5,625	3,410
Sweden	4,925	5,060	4,930
Canada	4,250	4,860	1,650

Few commodities fluctuate in price as much as cocoa does. In 1950, the world price fell as low as £176 per ton; in 1953, it soared to over £500 per ton. At the beginning of 1959 it stood at about £305 a ton but in March slipped to about £275 per ton, where it remained until October, when it dipped to about £250. Cocoa was at this point cheaper than at any time since the late summer of 1957.

World Crop Forecast

For the crop year that began on September 25, 1959, estimates are for a yield of 250,000 tons in Ghana, a good average. The world

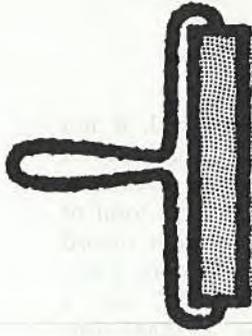
forecast is for a very good, if not a record, crop for the second year in succession—an increase of 26,000 tons over the 1958 total of 854,000 tons. (The present record was achieved in 1956—some 886,000 tons.) The year 1957 was a poor one, with only 759,000 tons produced. That same year, chocolate consumption reached a record 900,000 tons. As a result, world stocks of cocoa were heavily depleted. Consumption in 1958 totalled 825,000 tons and the forecast for 1960 is about 837,000.

Market Outlook

The present level of supply and demand suggests that cocoa prices may drift still lower. But because the Cocoa Marketing Board controls sales of Ghana cocoa, there appears to be no real danger that the market will be flooded with cheap cocoa. Lower prices, in fact, may well mean larger sales.

For Ghana, revenue for cocoa continues to be satisfactory and makes possible unparalleled prosperity and progress. Even at the comparatively low selling price of £250 a ton, the Cocoa Marketing Board is able to operate at a profit and to pay the growers £3 for a 60-pound bag of cocoa. (The cocoa farmers voluntarily agreed to accept 60 shillings instead of 72 shillings per load of 60 pounds as their contribution to the Second Development Plan; over the five years, this should provide the sum of £25 million.) To the Ghana farmer, who remembers the lean years of the mid-thirties when prices dropped as low as 6/- a bag and rose only gradually to 15/-, a guaranteed price of £3, free from all expenses, represents a good income.

When the Duke of Edinburgh on November 24, 1959, opened the new Great Hall of Ghana's University College, financed from Cocoa Marketing Board funds, he remarked how fortunate it was for Ghana that the world continues to have a taste for chocolate! Ghanaians appreciated the truth of that remark. ●



Paints and Varnishes

The Market in Sweden

Sweden makes most of its own paints and varnishes and sells more and more abroad, but imports are rising every year. Canadians can make inroads into the market with new, strikingly different products, and with vigorous selling techniques.

L. B. THOMSON, Office of the Commercial Counsellor, Stockholm.

MORE paint is consumed per capita in Sweden than in any other country in Europe. Domestic paint production, and particularly exports, are expanding vigorously, and the Swedish market (already supplied with quality products) is a stiff one to break into. But the trade claims that there are still opportunities for the foreign company that can deliver new products.

Total Imports Rise

Total Swedish paint output, valued at about Kr.240 million, meets 80 to 90 per cent of the home market demand for ready-mixed paints. Production has risen by one-third between 1952 and 1957 and expansion continues.

	1952	1957	1958
	(million kronor)		
Swedish output	171.00	238.84	n/a
Swedish exports	3.21	15.01	17.81

Shipments abroad now account for a rising 6 per cent of production; exports in 1958 were nearly six times higher than in 1952 and almost half as much again as imports. This, in the face of falling prices, is a measure of the competitiveness of the market. Imports have more than doubled since 1952.

Swedish imports of cellulose varnishes and lacquers (table II)

have fallen since 1952 and exports have risen sharply. Imports of other varnishes and lacquers (table III), valued at Kr.15.92 million in 1958, have increased about 3½ times since 1952. Home production of these varnishes and lacquers is rising and now meets about two-thirds of local needs. Purchases from Britain and the United States are mostly of the higher grades.

Swedish paint companies today are highly rationalized and integrated, combining in one unit manufacturing, wholesaling and retailing. Five of the major manufacturers have extensive wholesale and retail organizations of their own. One of the largest, AB Wilhelm Becker, Stockholm, owns about 30 retail shops in Stockholm and is the biggest paint manufacturer in Scandinavia and one of the biggest in Europe. This firm makes paints, enamels, varnishes, lacquers and artists' materials, and many Swedish exports—refrigerators, cash registers, typewriters, prefabricated timber houses, vacuum cleaners and many other articles—are treated

TABLE I

SWEDISH IMPORTS OF ALL PAINTS AND LACQUERS

	1952	1955	1956	1957	1958
	(million kronor)				
Total imports	20.19	22.46	21.86	31.99	43.28
From:					
West Germany	1.62	6.10	7.40	9.10	10.33
Britain	4.28	3.96	4.54	4.95	5.29
United States	2.44	3.79	3.74	4.01	3.92

TABLE II

CELLULOSE VARNISHES AND LACQUERS

	1952	1958	1952	1958
	(metric tons)		(million kronor)	
Swedish output	4,059	3,953*	12.40	10.21*
Swedish exports	97	442*	.41	1.51*
Swedish imports (total)	407	375	2.19	1.85
From:				
West Germany	44	122	.27	.67
Britain	146	90	.87	.44
United States	185	87	.90	.58
Netherlands	4	13	.02	.08

*Indicates 1957 figures.

with Becker finishes. The company is co-operating with a large number of foreign manufacturers: it introduced latex paints into Sweden under an agreement with the Glidden Company, U.S. More recently, it introduced thixotropic paints under an agreement with T. F. Washburn Co., Chicago. By producing under licence, Becker's has won some of its biggest market successes, and has at the same time enabled foreign companies to sell their goods effectively on the Swedish market.

New Paints Win Buyers

The introduction of a new synthetic paint in the Swedish market can have a tremendous effect on sales. U.K. exports, for example, dropped in 1955 from 1952, but recovered fully in 1956 and have risen continually since then. One factor in this success was the introduction of a new synthetic paint at the end of 1956; another was the competitive pricing of certain high-quality items. Business was won not by small British firms but by the biggest ones, especially in the field of car lacquers. Industry needs such an enormous range of lacquers that not even the largest Swedish manufacturers can compete.

The best way in which the small or medium-sized paint exporter can compete is by offering a completely new product, strikingly better than anything yet sold in Sweden. Even then, it would be profitable to co-operate with one of the top Swedish companies by selling knowhow to one of them. Several of these, like Becker's, are manufacturing under licence.

Agents Are Important

There are a few small foreign firms selling in Sweden that are not selling anything strikingly different from Swedish-made paints. But they established themselves before the war, are represented by good agents, and have a long-standing reputation for good quality.

One of the main difficulties in breaking into the paint market is

TABLE III

OTHER VARNISHES AND LACQUERS, EXCLUDING ASPHALT LACQUERS

	1952	1958	1952	1958
	(metric tons)		(million kronor)	
Swedish output	4,825	6,462*	17.18	20.77*
Swedish exports	479	4,080*	1.61	9.54*
Swedish imports (total)	1,128	4,018	4.38	15.92
From:				
West Germany	202	1,810	.81	8.43
Britain	304	947	1.15	2.63
United States	319	537	1.24	2.55
Norway	175	380	.59	1.08
Netherlands	97	292	.43	.93

*Indicates 1957 figures.

TABLE IV

READY-MIXED PAINTS

	1952	1958	1952	1958
	(metric tons)		(million kronor)	
A—With medium other than oil				
Packed for retail sales				
Swedish imports (total)	37	91	.17	.40
From:				
West Germany	25	61	.12	.24
Britain	10	15	.05	.10
In other packing				
Swedish imports (total)	250	615	.49	1.47
From:				
Britain	136	171	.15	.18
Netherlands	14	107	.06	.38
West Germany	7	72	.03	.27
United States	50	54	.09	.19
In tubes, jars, etc., under 11 oz.				
Swedish imports (total)	58	106	.47	.94
From:				
Britain	35	38	.24	.28
West Germany	14	24	.13	.22
United States	n/a	6	n/a	.07
B—With oil base				
Swedish output	15,415	15,291*	43.01	39.29*
Swedish exports	87	59*	.30	.20*
Swedish imports (total)	169	386	.72	1.66
From:				
Norway	94	153	.32	.42
Netherlands	5	109	.03	.36
Britain	41	56	.22	.35
C—Ship's bottom paints				
Swedish output	1,094	1,124*	1.37	3.50*
Swedish imports (total)	154	271	.36	.84
From:				
Britain	137	160	.30	.46
Norway	9	103	.04	.35

*Indicates 1957 figures.

that firms are loath to change suppliers. Experimentation is expensive and it may be two years before the particular properties of a new paint are fully understood. Good agents, therefore, are almost essential in introducing a new product to the market. The Swedish agent needs,

in addition to a keen business sense, money to buy stocks, money to pay qualified technical men who can give customers full service, and money to finance demonstrations for prospective buyers.

Canadian manufacturers interested in selling to Sweden may

obtain details of Swedish import duties on paints and varnishes by writing to the International Trade Relations Branch, Department of Trade and Commerce, Ottawa. No import licences are needed for imports into Sweden from the dollar area. ●

The Market in Norway

NORWAY has 33 factories manufacturing paints, varnishes and allied products and total annual production of paints and varnishes alone is estimated at some 25,000 tons. Of this, about 1,700 tons were exported in 1958. The severe climate necessitates the setting of high standards and the Norwegian products enjoy a good reputation both at home and in the foreign markets in which they are sold. With a large merchant fleet, it is natural that Norway should specialize in marine paints of various kinds, but domestic production includes many other types of finishes, as the following list shows:

Interior and exterior maintenance finishes—oil paints, alkyd paints and enamels and flat paints, latex paints, PVA and acrylic paints, distempers, clear varnishes, linseed and other oil primers.

Furniture finishes—cellulose lacquers, oleo-resinous varnishes, synthetic varnishes.

Industrial metal finishes—primers and undercoats, air and oven-drying synthetic enamels, nitro-cellulose lacquers, transparent and strippable liquids.

For automobiles—primers, surfacers and fillers, mastics and undercoating (alkyd and nitro-cellulose), chassis compounds, paint removers, cleaning and polishing materials.

Chemical protective finishes—red lead, chlorinated and other rubber-based paints and enamels, varnishes for canning industry.

Imports restricted chiefly to industrial paints and varnishes of certain types; these come in under quota and require licences.

B. G. R. BARTON, *Office of the Commercial Counsellor, Oslo.*

For steel construction—rust inhibitors, such as red lead and zinc chromate primers based on linseed oil and alkyd resins.

For shipping—primers, anti-corrosive and non-fouling compounds, inboard and outboard paints, enamels and varnishes, fire-retarding paints and varnishes.

Import Restrictions

With the exception of artists' paints, prepared dryers and some minor items, all imports are restricted and, as a general rule, import licences are granted only for industrial paints and varnishes. Global quotas are issued annually and give a clear picture of Norwegian requirements. The import global quota list for 1959 lists the following:

Painters' dyes n.o.p. and other wet paints	Kr. 500,000 (approx. \$ 67,000)
Cellulose lacquers	Kr.1,700,000 (" \$230,000)
Varnishes, polishes, siccativ oils	Kr.3,200,000 (" \$430,000)
Tar and asphalt compositions for ships' bottoms, anti-corrosion paints, etc.	Kr.1,000,000 (" \$135,000)

Within the above framework, actual imports are confined almost entirely to the following: automobile

lacquers, both cellulose and synthetic; asphalt and bituminous paints; canning lacquers; insulating lacquers for electric cables, etc.; baking enamels.

The three largest suppliers are the United States, West Germany and the United Kingdom. Because of the high standard demanded, imports tend to be small and this is especially true of lacquers used in the fish-canning industry, where any change might result in heavy losses. Customs duties are roughly from three to four cents per kilogram.

Canadian Opportunities

Imports are restricted to industrial paints and varnishes and, with the exception of small imports of automobile "touching-up" lacquers, licences are not granted to finishes

made up in retail packages. Foreign manufacturers who wish to sell paints and varnishes to Norway

must be prepared to have their products subjected to extensive tests before they are accepted. On the other hand, the industry welcomes inquiries about products that

could be manufactured in Norway under licensing arrangements and it is by this means that many foreign products have found their way onto the Norwegian market.

Detailed tables on imports of paints and varnishes of various types into Norway are available from the Chemicals Division of the Department of Trade and Commerce. ●

The Market in Spain

Domestic manufacturers supply practically the entire Spanish demand for paints. The industry must import certain raw materials competitively produced in Canada, but most of these are subject to a global import quota.

M. T. STEWART, *Commercial Counsellor, Madrid.*

THE paint and varnish industry in Spain is well established. It numbers more than 300 factories, large and small, and these produce considerably more paint than the domestic market needs. The industry has to rely on some imported component materials but in the main it is self-sufficient. It does not offer an attractive market for imported materials and no market whatever for finished products. Seven paint companies are affiliated with large international concerns and they account for 40 per cent of total production. These are: Sherwin Williams Española S.A., Basté, Polit, Valentine S.A., Industrias Titán S.A., Muñuzuri, Lefranc, Ripolín S.A., Cia. Española de Pinturas International S.A., Establecimientos Lory, and Lacas y Pinturas S.A. A further 35 companies operate plants of some importance and the remainder are small local firms. Technical assistance and knowhow furnished by the foreign affiliates enable the local industry to produce modern finishes.

Local Production

Total production is estimated at 65 million kilos per year, or about two kilos per head; average paint consumption in all the other OEEC

countries is about six kilos per head. All types of finishes are turned out and the improvement in recent years in the production of high-quality specialized paints for industry is notable. For example, finishes to prevent the corrosion of metals include alkyd types and others using urea and epoxy resins. Finishes

based on polyurethane, polyesters and silicone resins are also produced. Plastic paints for decoration, equivalent in quality to North American products, are manufactured by several firms. Foreign technical assistance is available from many companies and the following firms have licensing agreements with the large Spanish paint-producing firms: Duco, International, Lewis Berger, Hoveling, Ragg, Glidden, Valentine, Ripolin, Sherwin Williams, Lefranc, Lory, Schwaab, Van den Burg, Claessens, Faserit, etc.

Spain is an important producer of some inorganic pigments, notably chrome colours and iron and zinc

The sprawling, modern plant of Sherwin-Williams Espanola S.A., one of seven Spanish companies that are affiliated with large international paint-making firms.



oxides. Chrome yellow is produced in large quantities and chrome orange on a much smaller scale. Prussian blue is manufactured locally but in insufficient quantities; cadmium and cobalt pigments are made from imported raw materials. Red and yellow ochers are produced abundantly and there is an export surplus. Organic pigments are made on a small scale. Substantial production of titanium oxide is carried on and some is produced for export. Lithopone of excellent quality is produced in quantity—about 15,000 metric tons a year. Zinc oxide production amounts to 6,000 metric tons a year.

Tariff Protection

The new Spanish customs tariff is in course of preparation and no doubt will provide some protection for the local paint and varnish industry. The existing tariff on finished products is not high, but imports have been practically excluded by a rigid application of the import licensing system under which import permits are granted only in the most exceptional cases. The tariff on raw-material ingredients that are being imported is quite high in some cases and this results in higher prices for paint specialties made in Spain than for competitive products manufactured abroad.

Imports

In rare instances, import licences have been granted for some special types of paints, pastes, varnishes and ingredients. The local paint manufacturers must import linseed for linseed oil crushing, chinawood dyes, copper, cobalt, cadmium derivatives, methyl blue, Prussian blue, aniline pigments, shellac, aluminum powder, nitro-cellulose, synthetic resins, cellulose acetate and some other materials.

The raw materials for the industry that must be imported now come under global quota number 21 for \$1.5 million or possibly under quota number 22 (unspecified) for \$5 million. ●

The Market in Portugal

Import quotas and a protective tariff limit opportunities to high-quality and special paints. Persistent sales promotion needed.

T. J. MONTY, *Commercial Counsellor, Lisbon.*

PAINTS and varnishes have been manufactured in Portugal since the end of the last century, using mainly

Consumption, according to available provisional statistical data for 1958, was as follows:

Consumption 1958	Volume (metric tons)	Value (\$Can.)
Paints	4,855 " "	4,443,000
Varnishes	1,082 " "	751,000
White lead paste	757 " "	286,000
Siccatives (dryers)	397 " "	93,000
Diluents and solvents	525 " "	169,000
Primary paints (bases)	418 " "	328,000
Mastics	178 " "	112,000
Intermediate and secondary products (concentrated)	11 " "	331,000
TOTAL	8,223 metric tons	\$6,513,000

traditional methods. About 25 years ago new plants were set up, with the assistance of foreign capital and technical facilities. Progress in the chemical industry brought new materials for the production of paints and improvement of their quality.

Today Portugal has 63 plants turning out paints and varnishes, but nine of these should be classed as cottage industries. Present production totals about 7,000 metric tons, including paints, varnishes, dryers, white lead, solvents and diluents. Capacity is probably about 20,000 metric tons. Present output supplies about 80 per cent of the paints and varnishes used in Portugal, and the other 20 per cent is imported.

Portuguese manufacturers state that they now turn out nearly all the types of paints and varnishes that are produced abroad and that their products are, on the whole, of comparable quality. About 75 per cent of the raw materials that the industry uses are imported and import duties on these average 8.5 cents Canadian per kilogram. The local industry enjoys a protective tariff of about 40 cents Canadian per kilogram, or nearly 20 cents a pound.

Portuguese consumption of paints and varnishes is considered low; in fact, it does not reach two pounds per person per year. This consumption, though tending to increase (7,000 metric tons in 1956 and 8,223 metric tons in 1958), will continue to be conditioned by local customs and use of substitutes. The majority of Portuguese houses are stuccoed inside and painted on the outside with low-cost products, such as pigments mixed with lime, glue and water. Exterior coatings of tiles, marble, and a covering of small fragments of marble mixed with white cement and pigments (marmorite), are also used on a large scale. All of these products abound in this country and although some of them are more expensive than paints, their durability is almost unlimited.

Statistics of production and consumption do not include the large quantities of paints that anyone can make at home with white lead, linseed oil, pigments, turpentine and siccatives, products purchased locally and used for painting interiors and exteriors. It is estimated that consumption of this type of low-quality paint reaches about 3,000 metric tons per year.

In 1950, the Portuguese imported 603.7 metric tons of paints, in 1955, 542 metric tons, and in 1958, 445.9 metric tons. These imports came principally from the United States, the United Kingdom, and Germany. In the same years, imports of varnishes totalled 93.6, 129.5 and 117 metric tons, purchased chiefly from the United Kingdom, with the United States in second place.

Import Regulations

The manufacture in Portugal of products that compete in quality with imported paints and varnishes affects the import regulations. Another influence is the competition from European industry, its proximity and its lower prices. In addition, the existence of bilateral agreements on the exchange of products and payments tends to facilitate the obtaining of import licences for purchases from countries entering into these agreements.

All materials imported into or exported from Portugal are subject to import and export licences under the foreign currency control regulations. The granting of licences for the acquisition of foreign currency (or import licences) is subject to a number of considerations. These include the quotas established for countries with which Portugal has agreements, whether hard or soft currencies are involved, prices and quality, and the interests of the local industry.

In the last few months, however, the situation on imports from the dollar area has improved, following the currency convertibility measures. Now, whenever it is considered advantageous, purchases in dollars are authorized within the previously established quotas.

Selling in Portugal

Portugal uses the metric system of weights and measures and for varnishes, cellulose and synthetic paints, the measure is the litre and its fractions. For heavy paints it is the kilogram and corresponding fractions. However, in imported

paints and varnishes, the measures used in the country of origin are accepted without difficulty by the Portuguese authorities.

Promoting Sales

Usual terms of payment are irrevocable letter of credit. Suppliers who know their agents or clients sometimes ship with payment against documents and others grant terms of 30, 90 and 180 days against accepted draft. However, irrevocable letter of credit is preferable because of possible delays in obtaining import licences.

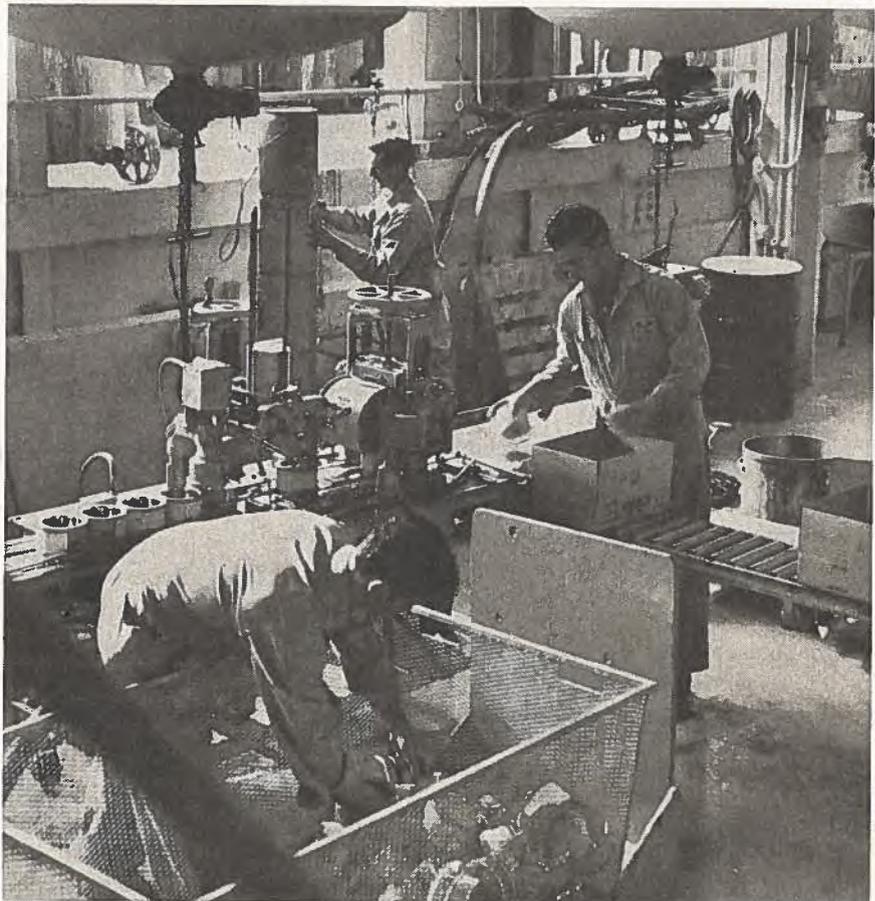
Literature indicating uses and advantages of paints and varnishes and information on colours should be sent to agents, preferably in Portuguese. They facilitate the agent's work in introducing the goods to the buyer.

At the moment, imports consist mainly of high quality and special paints, though the market is getting smaller year by year. Only small quantities are purchased for civilian needs and construction. The shipping companies can bring in paints for ships free of duty, buying either direct or from agents of foreign manufacturers. It is thus difficult for the Portuguese manufacturer to compete in this line because he enjoys no tariff protection.

The Canadian paint-maker may find that it is difficult to introduce a new brand of paint in this market because of the import quota on supplies from the dollar countries. He must be able to demonstrate the quality and price advantages of his product and promote it widely and persistently. This may give him a foothold in what seems to be a slowly shrinking market. ●

Workers in a paint factory in Toronto feed empty containers into the machine at left for filling, then pack them into sturdy cartons for shipment to markets overseas.

—Roxalin of Canada Ltd.





Aluminum

AUSTRIA—Aluminiumwerke A. G., of Ranshofen, Austria, recently announced that output of smelted aluminum in 1959 totalled 59,000 tons, compared with 50,000 tons in 1958. Some 45 per cent of production was exported, mainly to the United States. Aluminiumwerke Ranshofen is the only important aluminum producer in Austria—Vienna.

INDIA—According to the chairman of the Aluminum Corporation of India, annual Indian consumption of primary aluminum will reach between 64,000 and 70,000 tons by 1966, the end of the Third Five Year Plan. India's consumption of aluminum rose from 11,000 tons in 1946 to 30,000 last year—Bombay.

Cast Iron Pipe

PORTUGAL—The Portuguese press reports that centrifugal cast iron pipes, at present imported, are to be made in Portugal from scrap iron by the Oeiras Foundry and Workshops for Mechanical Constructions. This company has for many years produced cast iron for bathtubs, basins, stoves and central heating equipment. Imports of cast iron pipe during 1958 totalled 1,613 metric tons valued at Can.\$214,000—Lisbon.

Chemicals

FRANCE—A new Franco-German chemical company Progil-Bayer-Ugine (PBU), has been established by Farbenfabriken Bayer of Leverkusen. The new company will produce and market isocyanates, polyesters and polyethers used in making polyurethanes. Part of the output will be exported and sales will be handled through Resines et Vernis Artificiels and through SOGEP—Paris.

Dry-Cell Batteries

CEYLON—The government-sponsored Elephant Lite Corporation has begun to produce dry-cell flashlight batteries. The factory expects eventually to make 12 million a year, which is over half the country's annual needs of about 20 million. Sold under the trade name of Laxapana, the batteries are said to compare favourably with the best foreign-made ones. Practically all the

Commodity Notes

raw materials except graphite have to be imported. The Government has protected the industry by requiring importers to buy two locally-made batteries for every three imported. The ratio in favour of the local product may be increased as production is stepped up—Colombo.

Fabric-Marking Machines

IRELAND—W. B. Pink Ltd. is about to manufacture at Shannon Free Airport fabric-marking machines for export. The imprint, made by special marking fluids, remains invisible until the impregnated fabric is exposed to ultraviolet light. It is possible to mark as many as 100 layers of fabric simultaneously—Dublin.

Fertilizer

JAMAICA—An island-wide Fertilizer Education Scheme, to start this year, is planned by the Jamaican Government. The idea is based on the demonstration-plot principle; fertilizer will be distributed free to selected farms to show the practical results that can be achieved through its use. Almost all fertilizers used on the island are imported from Britain and the Continent—Kingston.

SPAIN—A state-owned factory that manufactures artificial fertilizers (nitrate of ammonia and calcium, and ammonium sulphate) for Spanish agriculture has just been inaugurated in the industrial belt at Puertollano, Province of Ciudad Real. Annual output will reach 80,000 tons. Within four years, Spanish production of fertilizers will total 1,475,000 tons. This should cover domestic demand and save some \$45 million a year on imports—Madrid.

Grinding Machines

INDIA—Under a licensing agreement with the Italian firm Olivetti, Hindustan Machine Tools will soon start manufacturing 16 types of cylindrical grinding machines. The Indian firm will have full rights to market these machines in India, Burma, Ceylon, Afghanistan, Pakistan, Nepal, Thailand and Laos. This agreement

brings to 90 the existing range of machine tools manufactured by Hindustan—Bombay.

Oil

UNITED STATES—Plans for the construction at Jacksonville of Florida's first oil refinery were announced recently by the Florida Oil and Refining Co., a subsidiary of the Frontier Refining Company of Denver, Colorado. The \$10½ million refinery, which will have an initial capacity of 10,000 barrels per day, will produce gasoline, butane, propane, kerosene, jet fuel, heating oils, bunker fuel and possibly asphalt. Actual construction will not start until the company has overcome an economic supply problem which involves federal oil-import regulations and quotas. New refineries are not granted an oil-import allocation until they have been in business at least one year and then the U.S. Government sets the amount of crude oil that they may import. Surveys indicate that it is not economically feasible to refine domestic oil in Florida because of the distance from the source, but it would be feasible with oil imported from foreign sources—New Orleans.

Olives

ITALY—The first estimate of the Italian olive crop for 1959 indicates a harvest of about 300,000 tons compared with 260,000 tons for the previous year. Production still falls far short of domestic consumption, however, which averages about 500,000 tons a year—Rome.

Processed Foods

IRELAND—The Irish Sugar Company hopes to undertake the processing of fruits and vegetables and the production of soups in 1960. The fruit will come from existing plantations and the vegetables from the company's peatlands at Gowla. If the initial project works out, operations will be extended to other centres and may include additional forms of processing, such as quick-freezing and dehydration—Dublin.

Pulp Equipment

SWEDEN—AB Karlstads Mekaniska Verkstad has received an order from the Soviet Union for equipment for a pulp mill with a yearly capacity of 200,000 tons of pre-hydrolyzed sulphate viscose pulp. Details on processing techniques will be supplied by Uddeholms AB. Complete equipment for a further three mills is included in Sweden's current three-year trade agreement with the Soviet Union—Stockholm.

Pulp Mill

FRANCE—The construction of an \$11 million esparto pulp mill in western Tunisia is being undertaken by

Societe Nationale Tunisienne de Cellulose. The mill, to be built at Kasserine, is expected to produce 80 metric tons a day of bleached esparto pulp for world markets and will employ permanently about 250 workers. The company is a Tunisian corporation, with share capital subscribed half by the Government of Tunisia and half by private European and North American interests. Engineering services of Stadler Hurter International Ltd., Montreal, have been retained—Paris.

Pulp and Paper

SWEDEN—Billerude AB is planning a new sulphate mill and a paper mill in Kvicksund at a cost of Sw.kr.-140 million. Work on these is expected to start in approximately a year—Stockholm.

Resins, Turpentine

BRITISH HONDURAS—A new U.S.\$350,000 plant is being built in British Honduras to process pine wood for the extraction of resins, turpentine, and allied products. When it is working at capacity the plant will provide employment for about 1,000. It is being put up by the Glicksten group of companies in the United Kingdom—Kingston.

Steel

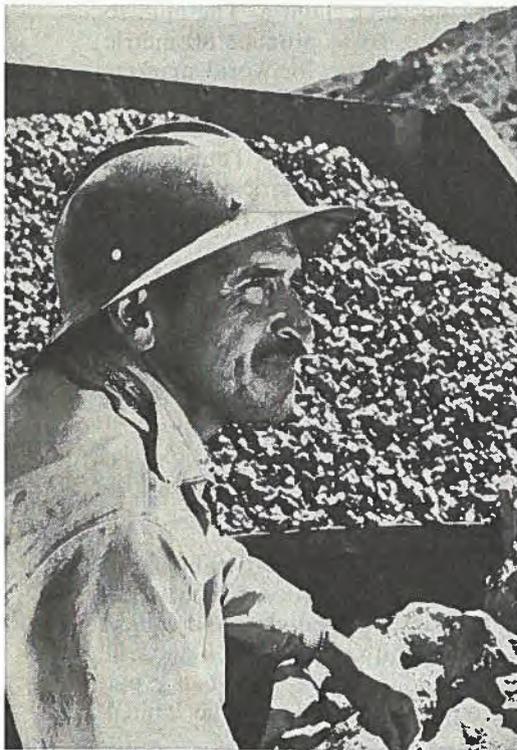
ITALY—The output of raw steel during October 1959 was the highest on record at 660,000 tons; the previous high was 630,000 tons in October 1957. Compared with October 1958, production increased by 100,000 tons, a gain of about 18 per cent. For the first ten months of 1959, steel production totalled about 5.5 million tons against 5.3 million for the same period of the previous year. Production of hot rolled steel products reached 4.2 million tons compared with 3.4 million for the ten-month period of 1958. Pig iron production remained unchanged during the two ten-month periods at 1.7 million tons—Rome.

Synthetic Rubber

ITALY—Production of synthetic rubber in Italy now totals 35,000 tons a year. Of this about 20,000 tons are sold on the domestic market and the rest exported. An agreement was recently reached with Communist China whereby Italy will supply that country with 10,000 tons of synthetic rubber—Rome.

Zinc

PORTUGAL—An old established Spanish company, Companhia Real Asturiana de Minas, has just installed a factory for zinc rolling in the north of Portugal at Matosinhos. This is the first plant of its kind in Portugal—Lisbon.



A Bolivian miner at one of the State Mining Corporation's large tin mines.

Bolivian Recovery Begins

How are business and industry in Bolivia? Still beset with problems, says the Commercial Secretary in Lima, who recently visited all the main business centers there. But he also noted encouraging evidences that economic recovery is getting under way.

D. H. CHENEY, *Commercial Secretary, Lima.*

BOLIVIA'S economy continues to be beset with difficulties, but a few encouraging developments did take place during the last half of 1959. Outstanding was the loan of £2 million granted by the British tin smelters to the Bolivian State Mines to buy badly needed machinery and equipment. The mining industry, the mainstay of the Bolivian economy, received further encouragement through increases in Bolivia's tin export quotas and receipt of some U.S.\$400,000 from a barter transaction involving tin. Sugar production is expanding and new capacity being created as a result of a \$2.5 million grant from the Development Loan Fund to the second largest Bolivian producer. Other government and private industries have been less fortunate in securing outside financial assistance—particularly the government oil company (YPFB), which urgently needs large sums to carry out modernization programs. Manufacturing industries generally are in a serious economic state. Illegal competition from a large volume of contraband, lack of internal markets, shortage of capital as a result of currency depreciation following stabilization, shortage of essential raw materials, and unrealistic labour legislation have brought many of them to the verge of ruin.

The rate of exchange has remained stable for the past year at close to the current rate of Bs.11,865 to the U.S. dollar. This has helped to restore some confidence in industrial and commercial circles. Unemployment is widespread. At the same time, many

business and industrial firms are seriously handicapped by having to carry large numbers of surplus workers whom they are forbidden by law to discharge.

Finance and Stabilization

The Development Loan Fund of the United States has authorized a U.S.\$1.5 million loan for improvements to the airport at La Paz. Bolivia's contribution to the International Monetary Fund has been more than doubled, from U.S.\$10 million to U.S.\$22.5 million. This should permit her to seek additional financial assistance for the monetary stabilization program, should this prove necessary. Under the original stabilization plan of December 1956, Bolivia received a total of U.S.\$25 million from the IMF, the ICA, and the United States Treasury. Of this amount, the IMF contributed \$7.5 million, ICA (Point IV) \$10 million, and the U.S. Treasury \$7.5 million. Up to June 30, 1959, Bolivia still had somewhat more than U.S.\$9 million available. Apart from this, direct U.S. Government aid to Bolivia amounted to U.S.\$22.3 million in 1959, including U.S.\$3 million in technical assistance.

Although strikes and labour disputes were less frequent during the past year they still menace economic progress. This is a presidential election year in Bolivia and some early campaigning by presidential candidates has led to some serious labour unrest; the future is clouded in uncertainty.

During the past three years Bolivia has made a concerted effort to follow an austerity program in line with the monetary stabilization plan set out in 1956. However, reduced national income as a result of falling production and prices of metal products (particularly tin) has been a serious handicap. Furthermore, the country is still rather disorganized following the 1952 revolution. The central government authorities in La Paz are faced with many difficulties in explaining and implementing policy

because communications with various provincial centres are lacking. Rapidly instituted and sweeping agrarian reforms have seriously disrupted agricultural production. A new customs tariff was introduced in 1959, designed to provide protection for national industries and at the same time to facilitate the entry of materials essential to national development. Severe restrictions on bank credit introduced at the time of stabilization have been maintained and although these have, to some extent, reduced the appetite for imports, they have also meant that funds for development badly needed by business and industry are harder to obtain.

One of the most serious current problems facing Bolivian industry and business is the shortage of money in circulation and the low buying power. With the aid of international organizations, the United States Government, and its own limited funds, the Bolivian Government has been pushing forward programs to improve agricultural production and communications, particularly road-building. A noticeable reduction in the public demand for dollars suggests that the flight of capital from the country is being checked as confidence is restored.

According to a decree published in September, a start is to be made on the reorganization of the national customs administration—a forerunner of a full-scale revision of the Customs Law. The purpose of this reorganization is to reduce the number of complicated documents in use and to simplify customs formalities. Canadian exporters will be interested to know that, effective immediately, goods consigned to Bolivia no longer require a consular invoice. The seal and signature of the Bolivian Consul in the country of origin on the commercial invoice covering the shipment now suffice.

Mining Outlook Brightens

The outlook for the Bolivian mining industry is much brighter than it was a year ago. The State Mining Corporation (Comibol) has re-

ceived a loan of £2 million from the British tin-smelting industry and will use it to purchase urgently needed equipment and supplies. According to information so far available, terms of the loan specify that at least £500,000 shall be spent on the purchase of British equipment and the corporation is free to use the remainder for purchases from other sources. Undoubtedly the State Mining Corporation will need a substantial amount of it to pay off accumulated debt on past foreign purchases.

Improved gold production and progressive increases in tin export quotas, plus some strengthening of international tin prices, have also added a note of encouragement. As a result of the increase in export quotas, the Bolivian Mining Bank recently removed local production quotas that had been imposed on small and medium-sized private mines. According to latest reports, Bolivia may actually have some difficulty in fulfilling her tin export quotas for the final quarter of 1959 and may have to negotiate an extension of a barter arrangement set up earlier this year.

Output of minerals by the State Mining Corporation for the first half of 1959 dropped substantially from the similar period of 1958. The tables on the right give these production figures and exports for the first seven months of 1959.

An increasing interest by Brazilian and Mexican smelters in Bolivian tin concentrates is becoming apparent. Renewed interest is also reported in the establishment of a large tin smelter in Bolivia to treat low and medium-grade ores. Capital from Mexico, Brazil, Chile and Peru is said to be involved in this project.

Unfortunately the financial position of the State Mining Corporation is serious; it is reported to have lost approximately \$10 million in 1958 and \$4.2 million in the first seven months of 1959. Various government agencies and departments, as well as commercial firms, owe

large sums of money to the Mining Corporation which in its turn owes the railways, the state petroleum company, and foreign suppliers of machinery, equipment, etc. The need for new machinery and the shortage of skilled technicians has reduced production and efficiency alarmingly in many of the state mines.

Petroleum Industry's Problems

All production and refining of petroleum in Bolivia is in the hands of the state petroleum industry (YPFB); current production of crude oil totals approximately 9,000 barrels a day.

The company's financial position deteriorated in 1959. In the past three years it has spent more than U.S.\$40 million on equipment abroad. However, company spokesmen indicate that a further U.S.-\$100 million is needed for urgent development programs. Provided foreign capital assistance can be obtained, the company is anxious to institute a five-year plan aimed at achieving a daily output of 35,000 barrels of crude oil, 25,000

BOLIVIAN MINERAL PRODUCTION

Mineral	Jan.-June 1959	Jan.-June 1958
	(in fine kilos)	
Tin	7,517,672	8,853,434
Wolfram	207,529	261,998
Zinc	975,062	5,091,779
Silver	49,501	83,938
Lead	2,560,855	4,019,824
Copper	690,934	1,076,088
Bismuth	82,008	39,701

BOLIVIAN MINERAL EXPORTS

January-August 1959	
(fine kilos)	
Tin	*14,778,186
Lead	11,540,768
Zinc	2,030,962
Antimony	2,960,080
Wolfram	804,245
Silver	72,868
Copper	1,690,456
Bismuth	111,368
Gold, fine grams	329,199
Asbestos	103,000

*Including 4,191,287 fine kilos shipped under the barter deal.

barrels of which would be exported, providing an annual income of more than U.S.\$30 million. For some time YPFB has been endeavouring to secure foreign credits. Under the terms of an agreement signed with Brazil in 1958, four Brazilian oil companies have been granted concessions for exploration in Bolivia.

Eleven foreign oil companies are today pushing forward exploration programs on their concessions in a large area of eastern Bolivia, north of the city of Santa Cruz, believed to be rich in oil. So far only one has begun drilling operations and it has so far drilled five wells without success. Even if oil is found, experts estimate that 1.5 billion barrels of reserves must be discovered before exploitation becomes economically feasible. The six-inch pipeline from the city of Sicasica to Arica in Chile (completed last year at a cost of approximately U.S.\$12 million) has so far not yielded the expected advantages.

Agricultural Output

Following the revolution in 1952 the Government confiscated many large agricultural holdings, dividing them up among landless peasants, most of them Indians. These people, accustomed to a subsistence standard of living, made little attempt to exploit their holdings and farm production fell drastically in many areas. It is a long job to educate the new owners in proper land use, but agencies of the United Nations and the U.S. Point IV Program are providing valuable assistance. However, several manufacturing industries are now paralyzed for lack of agricultural raw materials; cases in point are an edible oil factory and a powdered milk plant in the city of Cochabamba. Negative effects of the agrarian reform were less severe in the Santa Cruz region of southern Bolivia where land was plentiful. The tropical climate and rich soil (practically no fertilizer is used) of these new agricultural lands has turned Santa Cruz Province into one of the wealthiest in the country;

the rice and sugar industries are centered there.

Sugar production by the four principal mills is expanding but they still provide only about 40 per cent of national requirements and additional supplies come in from Peru and Paraguay. Production in 1959 will total about 415,000 quintals (46 kilos) or 19,000 metric tons.

Cattle breeding is also making good progress. Breeding stock is being brought in from Argentina and the Point IV Agency (SCIPA) is intensifying its artificial insemination program.

Manufacturing Still Limited

Bolivia's manufacturing industries are few, small and basic; the more important include leather and shoes, cement, brewing, edible oil, milk powder, textiles, furniture and glass. A new state-owned cement factory at Sucre, built by German and Bolivian technicians and using German machinery, has just been completed. Its production of 100 tons per day duplicates the output of the privately owned plant near La Paz. So much of the leather production has been exported that national manufacturers of shoes and leather products are unable to obtain adequate supplies. The Government has trebled the export tax on untanned hides in an effort to remedy the situation.

Industry receives credit assistance from the Industrial Rehabilitation Fund as well as from the United States supervised industrial credit program and the Development Loan Fund. The situation has improved considerably since last year and recovery seems to be fairly general.

Canada's Trade with Bolivia

Reflecting Bolivia's difficulties since the end of 1956, Canada's exports to that country, never very large, shrank from \$949,500 in 1957 to \$438,700 in 1958. In 1959 our exports were running slightly behind 1958—\$249,000 for the first nine months of 1959 compared with \$334,000 for the similar period of 1958.

Our exports to Bolivia consist mainly of mining machinery and equipment, other types of industrial machinery and spares, electrical apparatus, agricultural machinery, automobile and truck tires, medicinal preparations, calcium carbide, miners' waterproof clothing, canned fish, and a few basic food products in small quantities. At the present time there is a limited market in Bolivia for wheat and flour provided prices are competitive. Recent experience indicates, however, that Canadian flour is priced too high to compete with U.S. and French.

There is also a demand for automotive parts and hardware, mining machinery and equipment, small hand tools, small electric generators with motors, agricultural machinery and industrial chemicals. One of the largest buyers is the Government Mining Corporation (Comibol), but there are a large number of small and medium mines that can be covered to advantage by a good representative. In almost all cases, Bolivian importers require terms of from 90 to 120 days from time of arrival of the goods in customs. Dollars may be purchased freely from the Central Bank to cover foreign remittances.

Canadian imports from Bolivia amounted to only \$133,800 in 1958, down from \$147,800 in 1957. This trade is made up almost completely of two products—tungsten-bearing ores and Brazil nuts.

Bolivia is still in a critical condition economically but there are indications that a fairly general recuperation is beginning. Most merchants and importers, large and small, continue to suffer from the effects of currency stabilization and require financial assistance from foreign suppliers. The buying power of the population is low. I have just completed a 2,000-mile tour of the main centres in central, south and eastern Bolivia during which I made personal contact with many firms of good standing who would be pleased to consider offers from Canada. Interested Canadian exporters are invited to consult the Lima office. ●

The European Free Trade Association

A discussion, from the Canadian point of view, of the main features of the convention setting up a European Free Trade Association, initialled by seven countries late in November.

WILFRID LAVOIE, *International Trade Relations Branch.*

ON November 20, 1959, the Governments of the United Kingdom, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Austria, Switzerland and Portugal initialled a Convention for the establishment of a European Free Trade Association. The objective of the association is to create, over a ten-year period, a new European trading group of seven countries comprising 88 million people, within which commerce will eventually be free of tariffs and other barriers to trade. The seven governments are expected to ratify the Convention by March 1960 and an initial tariff cut of 20 per cent among themselves is to be made on July 1, 1960.

Discussions on free trade arrangements in Europe began as early as the summer of 1956, when proposals for the European Common Market of the Six were beginning to take shape. At that time, the OEEC considered the possibility of a European Free Trade Area for industrial goods, embracing all members of the OEEC including the six members of the Common Market. The negotiations for such a Europe-wide arrangement opened in February 1957 and continued until their breakdown in December 1958. The impasse was mainly due to the impossibility of reconciling the conflicting views on basic issues of commercial policy between the Community of the Six and the other countries of Europe.

Faced with this breakdown, the Seven sought agreement on proposals for an industrial free trade area among themselves which, in their view, would facilitate the eventual resumption of negotiations for a broader European arrangement with the Six. Active negotiations started in June 1959 in Stockholm. Simultaneously with the initialling of the Convention in November, the seven governments indicated "their determination to avoid a division in Europe" and their willingness to conclude to that end an agreement among all member countries of OEEC, including the members of the European Common Market. The following paragraphs summarize the main features of the Convention.

EFTA's Objectives

The Convention consists of 44 articles and 7 annexes dealing with trade in industrial goods, and with special arrangements for agricultural products, and fish and other marine products. There is also a protocol relating to Liechtenstein and a note setting up a Preparatory Committee pending the entry into force of the Convention. The declared objectives of the Association are to maintain economic expansion and full employment in the member countries; to ensure fair competition between the members; to avoid disparity in the conditions of supply of raw

materials produced within the area, and to contribute to the harmonious development of world trade by reducing trade barriers.

The present membership consists of the seven countries that have initialled the Convention. Any other country ready to accept the obligations of the Convention may apply to join the Association at a later date. The Seven indicated in their communique issued at Stockholm on November 20, 1959, that they had warmly welcomed an indication by the Finnish Government that Finland wished to discuss means by which it could participate in the Association. The Convention may be extended to the European territories of the member states: the Faeroe Islands, Gibraltar, Malta and Greenland. It is recognized that at a later stage members may wish to propose the extension of the Convention to cover non-European territories for which they are responsible. There is also a provision for dealing with territories that later become sovereign states.

Elimination of Tariffs

The reduction of all tariffs between member countries (other than revenue duties) is the essential feature of the Free Trade Association. The Convention provides that this objective shall be achieved in successive stages, at the latest by January 1, 1970. The reduction begins with a 20 per cent cut on July 1, 1960, and continues with eight further reductions of 10 per cent. The second step will take place on January 1, 1962, the third on July 1, 1963, and each successive step

on January 1 of each year up to 1969. There are no provisions for extending this transition period beyond January 1, 1970.

The Convention provides that the Council may accelerate the timetable for tariff reductions and thus shorten the transition period. It seems probable that if the European Common Market countries were to decide to speed up the implementation of their customs union, the Seven would invoke this provision to keep their timetable parallel with that of the European Common Market.

In Portugal, which is a less developed country, the rhythm for the removal of duties will be such that only 50 per cent of Portuguese tariff protection will have been removed vis-à-vis other members by 1970; the remaining duties are to be eliminated before 1980. In addition, Portugal may be authorized to introduce new import duties temporarily to promote the development of specific new production.

Internal Tariff Regulations

In contrast with the European Common Market, the Convention for a Free Trade Association does not provide for the adoption of a common tariff against imports from outside countries. The members of the Association will retain their own domestic tariffs against imports originating from outside the area. The Convention does not envisage the elaboration of a common external policy in the trade field vis-à-vis third countries, nor will it involve a change in the United Kingdom tariff treatment of Canadian goods that are admitted into Britain duty-free. Its implementation will, however, involve the extension of United Kingdom duty-free treatment to imports from the other members of the Association of industrial goods as defined by the Convention and of certain agricultural and fisheries products.

The reduction and elimination of tariffs among member states will apply to all industrial products.

However, products such as prepared soups, preserved and processed fish (including canned salmon and canned lobster), fishmeals and frozen fish fillets will be considered industrial. Agricultural and fisheries products are generally excluded from the obligation to eliminate tariffs. The objective of the Association for agriculture is "to facilitate an expansion of trade which will provide reasonable reciprocity to those member states whose economies depend to a great extent on agricultural exports." To achieve this objective, the Convention announces that some members have already concluded agreements designed to facilitate the expansion of agricultural trade, including the elimination of certain tariffs, and it envisages further bilateral agreements. The agreements that have been reached, together with any future agreements, are to be valid as long as the Convention remains in force and the tariff reductions made under them must be applied to all members. The Council is required to consider once a year what further action is needed in pursuit of the fundamental objectives of the Association in the field of agriculture. So far, the chief example of these agreements is the United Kingdom-Danish Agreement which provides for the elimination of tariffs on imports from other members of the Convention of bacon, canned pork luncheon meat, blue-veined cheese and canned cream.

Fish, like agriculture, is covered by special provisions. The objective of the Association is to facilitate an expansion of the trade in fish among the members but there are no provisions for bilateral arrangements on particular products. Annex E of the Convention lists the products to be covered by this general arrangement. The list includes whale-meat, fresh fish (except frozen fillets), salted fish, crustaceans and molluscs. As foreseen at present, these non-processed fish and marine products will not be

subject to the tariff elimination and the existing Canadian margins of preference should be unaffected. However, it is proposed to start a further examination of the arrangements for fish and to complete it in 1961.

Defining Origin

Under the EFTA, only goods of area origin (that is, products of the member countries), will be entitled to Free Trade Area treatment. The products of Canada and of other countries outside the area will remain subject to the regular rates of duty. A significant proportion of trade within the area consists of products that incorporate materials or components of outside origin and which have been wholly or partially processed in Europe. It is particularly in relation to this type of product that the problem arises of defining what is "an area product" for the purposes of Free Trade Area tariff treatment. This directly concerns Canadian exporters of raw materials and semi-manufactured products whose exports may be processed in one area country and re-exported to another.

Goods wholly produced within the area of the Association will, of course, be entitled to the benefits of the area tariff treatment. Other goods will also be eligible for the area tariff treatment if they have undergone a clearly defined process in the area or if the value added to the products in the area is equal to at least 50 per cent of the total value. In general, importers will be able to choose under which of these three criteria they may claim the benefits of area tariff treatment.

The goods that may be eligible for area tariff treatment under the "process" rule are listed in an annex to the Convention, where the qualifying processes to be undertaken in the area are set out for each of the products in question. As regards the 50 per cent content rule, provision has also been made for a wide range of imported industrial materials to be considered as produced within the area itself. Among

these are aluminum (except for alloys), nickel, asbestos, copper, lead, zinc and synthetic rubber. These materials will be counted as of area origin for calculating the percentage of area content, whether or not they are produced in the area.

Institutions

The Council, on which each member is represented, is the principal organ envisaged by the Convention and it is empowered to set up subordinate bodies to assist it. The Council is charged with the exercise of the powers and functions conferred upon it in the Convention and must supervise their application. It is also empowered to consider what further action should be taken to facilitate closer association with other countries or groups of countries. On most questions, the rule of unanimity will apply. There are also provisions for the establishment of examining committees to which the Council may refer cases arising under the consultation and complaints procedure. These committees are to consist of independent persons appointed by the Council on terms which it will decide. The Council is also required to lay down the rules and procedures of all bodies of the Association and to establish its secretariat on the basis of proposals to be submitted by the Preparatory Committee.

Other Barriers to Trade

The Convention provides for the reduction and elimination of quantitative restrictions on imports from member countries by January 1, 1970. The elimination of restrictions is to be achieved by an annual increase in quotas until they cease to be restrictive.

There are provisions to ensure that the effects of the removal of the barriers to trade (such as tariffs and quotas) are not nullified by other obstacles to competition, such as export subsidies, restrictive business practices, state trading, cus-

toms drawbacks, and limitations on the establishment of enterprises. The operation of the articles dealing with the reduction and elimination of tariffs and quantitative restrictions and the above rules of competition can be suspended temporarily in certain circumstances. Apart from the protection of their essential security interests, members may, consistent with other international obligations, introduce quantitative restrictions for the purpose of safeguarding their balance of payments. Quantitative restrictions or other measures may also be applied on a particular product where the implementation of the rules for freeing trade leads to an appreciable rise in unemployment in a particular sector of industry or region of the area. There is also provision for dealing with territories which later become sovereign states, plus provisions stating that nothing in the Convention exempts a member from its obligations under other international agreements such as the GATT and the IMF.

Association as World Trader

The area member countries together account for 18 per cent of world trade. Most of them are traditionally low-tariff countries. The combined population of some 90 million is little more than half that of the European Economic Community; the total output of goods and services in 1958 was \$92 billion. This compares with \$442 billion in the United States, \$155 billion in the EEC and \$32 billion in Canada. Among the Seven are nations with some of the highest living standards outside North America. Like Canada, the area is substantially dependent on imports. Imports represent 3 per cent of the United States national income and 16 per cent for Canada; for the United Kingdom the figure is also 16 per cent but for the Continental EFTA countries, it is still higher at 25 per cent on the average. Total imports into the EFTA group in 1958 were valued at \$19 billion, with the United Kingdom account-

ing for more than \$11 billion, or nearly 60 per cent.

Canadian Trade with EFTA

Canadian exports to this group of seven countries totalled \$884 million in 1958, or nearly 20 per cent of our total world exports, and about twice our exports to the Common Market. The United Kingdom is, of course, our major market among the Seven, taking exports worth \$776 million, followed by Norway (\$56 million), Switzerland (\$29 million), Sweden (\$11 million), Austria (\$7 million), Denmark (\$5 million) and Portugal (\$2 million). At present, about 40 per cent consists of agricultural and fisheries products, 45 per cent of industrial raw materials, and 15 per cent of manufactured goods and chemicals.

As a result of the Association, United Kingdom tariffs will be removed on all industrial goods of area origin. However, most raw materials from all sources—they constitute about 40 per cent of Canadian sales to this market—already enter the United Kingdom free of duty. Among these materials are pitprops, pulpwood, pulp, newsprint, iron ore, aluminum, nickel, copper, platinum and metallic scrap generally. On other industrial products, such as various paper products, chemicals and manufactured goods, Canada's preferential position in the U.K. will be affected. With the extension of duty-free admission by the U.K. to other members of the EFTA, Canadian suppliers will be on an equal basis in the U.K. market with competitors in Scandinavia and other countries of the group. Canada will, of course, continue to enjoy a tariff preference in the U.K. vis-à-vis other outside suppliers. The United Kingdom duty-free tariff treatment for most Canadian and other Commonwealth products will continue unchanged. The external tariffs of most other countries of the Area are relatively low. On products such as nickel, copper, asbestos and zinc, which

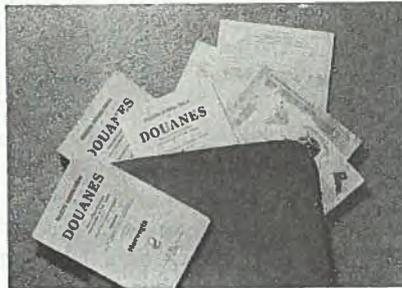
account for a large percentage of Canadian sales, those countries admit imports duty-free or at low rates.

The Association and GATT

The EFTA Convention will be subject to the scrutiny of the GATT

Contracting Parties in the light of the requirements and obligations under the General Agreement covering the creation of a free trade area. At the 15th session of the GATT held in Tokyo in November 1959, the representative of Sweden, speaking on behalf of the seven govern-

ments, declared that the members would make the text of the European Free Trade Association Convention available without delay. During the session, the Contracting Parties agreed on a timetable for the examination of this new European trading arrangement. ●



France

NEW "HEAVY" FRANC—The French Government has announced that the "heavy" franc will become legal tender, effective January 1, 1960, in Metropolitan France and the Departments of Algeria and the Sahara. At a later unspecified date, it will also be used in the overseas Departments of Guadeloupe, Guiana and Martinique. The new unit will be equal to 100 of the previous type French francs and will be called "nouveau franc" or N.F. No change in currency unit is contemplated in the countries and territories of the French Community in Africa where the currency unit is the C.F.A. franc (Colonies Francaises d'Afrique) or the C.F.P. franc (Colonies Francaises du Pacifique).

FURTHER DOLLAR IMPORTS LIBERALIZED—Effective January 1, 1960, the Government of France announced an additional liberalization measure which frees from restriction a variety of imports from dollar countries, including Canada. Full details have not yet reached the Department, but it is understood that the new measure covers the following products of possible interest to Canadian exporters:

Whisky; automobiles; wheel-type tractors; metalworking machinery; air and vacuum pumps; a variety of chemicals including boric oxide and acid, borates and perborates, acyclic alcohols and derivatives, synthetic organic dyestuffs, colour lakes; photographic film; phonograph records; sporting goods; man-made fibres and waste; continuous filament tow; rubber tires; outer garments for men and boys.

As a result of this step, the area of discrimination against dollar goods has been further reduced. Though

Trade and Tariff Regulations

all liberalized products imported into France are subject to import permits, these are freely granted. Information on the status of individual goods should be available shortly in the International Trade Relations Branch.

Ireland

IMPORT LICENCES FOR APPLES—The Minister for Agriculture in the Republic of Ireland has announced that licences for the import of raw apples will be granted to local importers for the period February 1 to June 15.

Application for such licences should be addressed to the Secretary, Department of Agriculture (Section 4), Dublin, and should indicate the quantity to be imported—Dublin.

South Africa

IMPORT CONTROL POLICY ANNOUNCED—In announcing the Union's import control policy for 1960, the Minister of Economic Affairs emphasized the need for caution despite the fact that the country's foreign exchange reserves are particularly favourable. Therefore, no appreciable change can be expected from the import controls in effect last year.

With the exception of decimal monetary machines, the classification of products for import remains virtually the same as for 1959.

(a) For items within the classification of capital equipment, raw materials and maintenance spares there will be an initial issue of

import permit equal to 75 per cent of the permit issued for 1959. Subsequent issue will depend on proven requirements.

(b) For consumer goods in Group A the initial issue of permit will be 75 per cent of that issued in 1959, with additional issues in accordance with the importer's reasonable requirements.

(c) For consumer goods in Group B the initial issue of permit will be 40 per cent, with further quotas to be considered in the course of this year. Limited quotas will also be made available in this group to new importers wishing to establish a business, but with the understanding that such imports will be regarded purely as filler lines to those goods that are available from local sources.

(d) The present policy of issuing permits on a replacement-of-retail-sales basis for the import of motor vehicles, excluding assembled vehicles of an f.o.b. cost of over £800 (\$2,240), will continue.

(e) Regulations governing the import of decimal monetary machines were published in the January 2 issue of *Foreign Trade*

—Johannesburg.

South Africa

REPRESENTATIONS RESPECTING THE TARIFF

—The South African Board of Trade announced recently that it had received the following representations respecting the tariff:

Increase in duty on:

1. Brushed knitted nylon piecegoods containing—

(a) 100 per cent nylon, and

(b) nylon mixed with fibres other than wool or hair, from 10 per cent ad valorem to 15 per cent ad valorem or 6d. per yard, whichever is the greater, and in addition 10 per cent ad valorem. (B.T.I. Ref. 123/9/22.)

(Applicant: South African Fabrics, Limited, P.O. Box 1349, Durban.)

2. Knitted fabrics made of all man-made fibres, other than rayon or cellulose acetate or mixtures thereof, to the rates applicable to knitted nylon material. (B.T.I. Ref. 123/9/22.)

(Applicant: South African Fabrics, Limited, P.O. Box 1349, Durban.)

3. Copper and brass tubing in lengths of over six feet, from free of duty to 10 per cent ad valorem. (B.T.I. Ref. 34/9/12.)

(Applicant: South African Wrought Non-ferrous Metal Manufacturers' Association, P.O. Box 1338, Johannesburg.)

4. Powder colours (artist's colours) from free of duty to 20 per cent ad valorem. (B.T.I. Ref. 30/9/7.)

(Applicant: Penguin Ink and Pen Company (Pty.), Ltd., P.O. Box 67, Jeppestown.)

Canadian firms exporting these goods to South Africa may wish to have their views placed before the Tariff Board. The most effective method of doing so is for the Canadian exporter to have his South African agents act on his behalf. Action should be taken as soon as possible because tariff inquiries normally begin in South Africa soon after the announcements are made.

South Africa

WOOL LABELLING REGULATIONS—The Union of South Africa recently issued new regulations governing the labelling of woollen textiles and clothing. The regulations, which became effective October 23, 1959, prohibit the import into the Union of any wool product,

as defined, for the purpose of manufacture or sale, unless the requirements specified have been complied with.

Interested exporters can obtain a copy of the regulations from the Canadian Government Trade Commissioner, P.O. Box 715, Johannesburg, S.A.—Johannesburg.

Switzerland

NEW CUSTOMS TARIFF—The Commercial Counsellor in Switzerland reports that the new official Swiss customs tariff, based on the Brussels nomenclature, will come into force on January 1, 1960. All goods arriving in Switzerland as of that date are subject to the new duty rates.

In connection with the introduction of the new tariff a number of new ordinances pertaining to imports will come into force, including a revised tare ordinance (again reportedly basing duties on gross weight); an ordinance on statistical fees introducing a charge of 3 per cent ad valorem payable on the assessed duty, and a revised turnover tax ordinance.

Although the customs duties on many imports will be higher in the new schedule than at present, some will be lower. Switzerland granted concessions on a number of commodities of interest to Canada in tariff negotiations that were held under the auspices of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade in Geneva in 1958, and these are included in the new tariff.

Tunisia

IMPORT LICENSING RELAXED—The Government of Tunisia has announced the liberalization of a wide range of products imported from certain specified countries, including Canada. Although import licences are required for liberalized products, Tunisian authorities have declared that these will be issued automatically. The following selected imports of possible interest to Canadian exporters have been liberalized:

Seed potatoes, hops, synthetic rubber, certain types of lumber, various pharmaceuticals, some textiles, nickel and certain other base metals and manufactures, a number of electrical appliances and various other products.

Information regarding individual items on the Tunisian list of liberalized imports may be obtained upon request from the International Trade Relations Branch.

United States

TARIFF COMMISSION INVESTIGATION OF TYPEWRITER IMPORTS—Upon application of Smith-Corona Merchant Inc. of Syracuse and Royal McBee Corporation of Port Chester, N.Y., the United States Tariff Commission on December 9, 1959, instituted an "escape clause" investigation to determine

whether typewriters are, as a result of customs treatment reflecting concessions granted under the GATT, being imported into the United States in such increased quantities as to cause or threaten serious injury to the U.S. domestic industry.

A public hearing in this investigation will be held on March 29, 1960, in the Tariff Commission Building,

8th and E Streets N.W., Washington, D.C. Interested parties desiring to be heard should write the Secretary of the Commission at least three days before the date of the hearing.

Typewriters are currently classified free of duty under paragraph 1791 of the U.S. Tariff Act.



The following officer of the Trade Commissioner Service is undertaking a tour in Canada. His itinerary is:

JOHN MACNAUGHT, Assistant Commercial Secretary in Wellington, New Zealand.

Ottawa—Jan. 18-29

Montreal—Feb. 1-3

Businessmen who wish to see Mr. MacNaught should get in touch with the Board of Trade or Chamber of Commerce in the cities mentioned, with the following exceptions. In Toronto, Winnipeg and Edmonton, the Trade Commissioners make their headquarters at the offices of the Canadian Manufacturers Association; in Windsor, Ontario, at the offices of the Greater Windsor Industrial Commission; in St. John's, Ottawa and Vancouver, at the Department of Trade and Commerce; in Victoria, at the Department of Trade and Industry, and in Fredericton at the Department of Industry and Development.

Tours of Territory

W. G. BRETT, Assistant Commercial Secretary in Paris, France, will visit Algiers, Oran and Hassi Messaoud from January 16-24, and Rabat, Tangier and Casablanca from January 25-31.

L. A. CAMPEAU, Commercial Secretary in Karachi, Pakistan, will visit Lahore, Peshawar and Warsak about January 18.

N. L. CURRIE, Assistant Commercial Secretary in Bogotá, Colombia, will begin a visit to Ecuador on February 13, stopping en route at the Colombian towns of Cali, Popayan and Pasto.

Trade Commissioners on Tour

C. M. FORSYTH-SMITH, Trade Commissioner in Hong Kong, will visit Saigon in South Vietnam, Phnom Penh in Cambodia, and if possible Hanoi in North Vietnam, from February 6-18.

P. A. FREYSENG, Assistant Commercial Secretary in Vienna, Austria, will visit Zagreb and Belgrade, Yugoslavia, from February 10-17.

R. E. GRAVEL, Commercial Counsellor in Caracas, Venezuela, will visit the Netherlands Antilles late in January.

R. F. RENWICK, Commercial Secretary in Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, will visit Bridgetown, Barbados, from February 1-6, and St. George's, Grenada, from February 7-10.

H. W. RICHARDSON, Trade Commissioner in Guatemala City, Guatemala, will visit Nicaragua and El Salvador from January 18-30.

B. C. STEERS, Assistant Trade Commissioner in Singapore, will visit Bangkok, Thailand, for two weeks beginning January 10.

R. K. THOMSON, Commercial Counsellor in Vienna, Austria, will visit Bucharest, Romania, from February 1-4, and Prague, Czechoslovakia, from March 14-17.

Businessmen who would like these officers to undertake assignments should get in touch with them at their posts as soon as possible. Write to Mr. Brett at Paris, Mr. Campeau at Karachi, Mr. Currie at Bogotá, Mr. Forsyth-Smith at Hong Kong, Mr. Freyseng and Mr. Thomson at Vienna, Mr. Gravel at Caracas, Mr. Renwick at Port-of-Spain, Mr. Richardson at Guatemala City, and Mr. Steers at Singapore.

Foreign Commercial Representatives in Canada

ARGENTINA

Washington—Economic Counsellor, Argentine Embassy, 1600 New Hampshire Avenue N.W.

AUSTRALIA

Montreal—Australian Government Trade Commissioner, 1255 Phillips Square.
Vancouver—Australian Government Trade Commissioner, Suite 608, Burrard Bldg.

AUSTRIA

Ottawa—Embassy of Austria, Suite 707, 140 Wellington Street.
Calgary—Consulate of Austria, 31 Hollinsworth Bldg.
Halifax—Consulate of Austria, 6 Young Avenue.
Montreal—Consulate General of Austria, Suite 815-817 Castle Bldg., 1410 Stanley Street.
Toronto—Austrian Trade Delegate, Suite 616, 62 Richmond Street West.
Vancouver—Austrian Trade Delegate, 525 Seymour Street.

BAHAMAS

Toronto—Trade Commissioner, Room 707, Victory Bldg., 80 Richmond Street West.

BELGIUM

Montreal—Consul General of Belgium, 709 Sun Life Bldg.
Toronto—Consul General of Belgium, Room 302, 11 Adelaide Street West.
Vancouver—Consul General of Belgium, Room 1432, 355 Burrard Street.

BOLIVIA

Montreal—Consul-in-Charge, Consulate General of Bolivia, 5559 Canterbury Avenue.

BRAZIL

Ottawa—Brazilian Embassy, 305 Stewart Street.
Montreal—Trade Commissioner, Brazilian Government Trade Bureau, Room 302, 400 St. James St. West.

CHILE

Ottawa—Embassy of Chile, 56 Sparks Street.
Vancouver—Consul of Chile, 1575 West Sixth Avenue.

CHINA

Ottawa—Counsellor, Embassy of the Republic of China, 201 Wurtemberg Street.
Vancouver—Consul General of China, 510 Hastings Street West.

COLOMBIA

Ottawa—First Secretary and Consul, Suite 33, Roxborough Apts.
Montreal—Consul General of Colombia, 1572 Summerhill Avenue.
Toronto—Consul of Colombia, 67 Yonge Street.
Vancouver—Consul of Colombia, 1575 West Sixth Avenue.

COSTA RICA

Montreal—Consul General of Costa Rica, 4753 Lacombe Avenue.

CUBA

Montreal—Cuban Consul, Consulate General of Cuba, 1572 Summerhill Avenue.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Montreal—Commercial Section, Czechoslovak Consulate General, 1305 Pine Avenue West.

DENMARK

Ottawa—Royal Danish Embassy, 446 Daly Avenue.
Montreal—Consul General, Royal Danish Consulate General, Room 815, Keefer Bldg., 1440 St. Catherine Street West.
Toronto—Assistant Trade Commissioner, Royal Danish Consulate, 114-118 Danforth Avenue.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Ottawa—Consul General of the Dominican Republic, 20 Bower Street.
Montreal—Consul General of the Dominican Republic, Apt. 4, 3201 Forest Hill Avenue.

ECUADOR

Montreal—Consul General of Ecuador, 1572 Summerhill Avenue.
Vancouver—Consul of Ecuador, 603 West Hastings Street.

EL SALVADOR

Montreal—Consul General of El Salvador, 4972 Victoria Avenue.

FINLAND

Ottawa—Attaché, Legation of Finland, 85 Range Road.

FRANCE

Ottawa—Commercial Counsellor to the French Embassy, 464 Wilbrod Street.
Montreal—Commercial Counsellor of France, 2060 Mackay Street.
Toronto—Commercial Counsellor of France, 185 Bay Street.

GERMANY

Ottawa—First Secretary (Commercial Affairs), Embassy of the Federal Republic of Germany, 1 Waverley Street.
Montreal—Consulate General of the Federal Republic of Germany, 1501 McGregor Street.
Toronto—Consulate of the Federal Republic of Germany, 77 Admiral Road.
Vancouver—Consulate of the Federal Republic of Germany, National Trust Bldg., 325 Howe Street.
Winnipeg—Consulate of the Federal Republic of Germany, 424 Wellington Crescent.
Edmonton—Consulate of the Federal Republic of Germany, 11618 100th Avenue.

GREECE

Ottawa—Commercial Attaché (Honorary), Royal Greek Embassy, Suite 110, Chateau Laurier.

GUATEMALA

Montreal—Consul General of Guatemala, 3467 Wilson Avenue.

HAITI

Ottawa—Embassy of Haiti, 140 Slater Street.
Montreal—Consul of Haiti, 3449 Prudhomme Street.
Halifax—Consul of Haiti, 50 Sackville Street.

HONDURAS

Montreal—Consul General, Consulate General of the Republic of Honduras, 5407 Coolbrook Avenue.
Toronto—Vice Consul (Honorary), 3 Nashville Avenue, Apt. 18.

INDIA

Ottawa—First Secretary (Commercial), Office of the High Commissioner for India, 200 MacLaren Street.

INDONESIA

Ottawa—First Secretary (Commercial), Indonesian Embassy, 275 MacLaren Street.

IRAN

Ottawa—Second Secretary, Imperial Legation of Iran, Apt. 404, Sandringham Apartments.

IRAQ

The Embassy of the United Arab Republic is in charge of Iraqi interests. See address below.

IRELAND

Montreal—Irish Trade Representative (Irish Export Board), 1015 Beaver Hall Hill.

ISRAEL

Montreal—Consul of Israel (Commercial), 1555 McGregor Street.

ITALY

Ottawa—Commercial Counsellor, Embassy of Italy, 172 MacLaren Street.
Montreal—Vice Consul and Trade Commissioner, 1524 Summerhill Avenue.
Toronto—Italian Trade Commissioner, Suite 403, 34 King Street East.

JAPAN

Ottawa—First Secretary (Commercial), Embassy of Japan, Room 701, Metcalfe Bldg.
Toronto—Consulate of Japan, 180 University Avenue.
Vancouver—Consulate of Japan, 510 Hastings Street West.
Winnipeg—Consulate of Japan, 301 Tribune Bldg.

LEBANON

Ottawa—Embassy of Lebanon, 105 Springfield Road, Apt. 1.

LUXEMBOURG

Montreal—Consul General of the Grand-Duchy of Luxembourg, 4832 Western Avenue.

MEXICO

Ottawa—Embassy of Mexico, Room 706, 88 Metcalfe Street.
Montreal—Consul General of Mexico, Room 513, Castle Bldg., 1410 Stanley Street.
Toronto—Consulate of Mexico, Room 309, 20 Carlton Street.
Vancouver—Consulate of Mexico, Room 607, Burrard Bldg., 1030 W. Georgia Street.

MONACO

Montreal—Consul of Monaco, Suite 101, 4920 Western Avenue.

NETHERLANDS

Ottawa—Commercial Counsellor, Embassy of the Netherlands, 12 Marlborough Avenue.
Montreal—Netherlands Consulate General, 1103 Castle Bldg., 1410 Stanley Street.
Toronto—Netherlands Consulate General, 159 Bay Street.
Edmonton—Netherlands Consulate, Merit Bldg., 10008 106th Street.
Vancouver—Netherlands Consulate General, 475 Howe Street.

NEW ZEALAND

Montreal—New Zealand Trade Commissioner, Room 609, Sun Life Bldg.

NICARAGUA

Montreal—Consul General, Consulate General of Nicaragua, 3435 Barclay Avenue.

NORWAY

Montreal—Trade Commissioner of Norway, Norwegian Consulate General, 1410 Stanley Street.

PAKISTAN

Ottawa—Commercial Secretary to the Pakistan High Commissioner, 505 Wilbrod Street.

PANAMA

Montreal—Consul General, Consulate General of Panama, 4517 Harvard Avenue.

PERU

Ottawa—Second Secretary, Embassy of Peru, 539 Island Park Drive.

PHILIPPINES

Vancouver—Trade Commissioner, Philippines Consulate, 615 West Pender Street.

POLAND

Ottawa—Commercial Counsellor to the Polish Legation, 362 Stewart Street.

PORTUGAL

Ottawa—Embassy of Portugal, 285 Harmer Avenue.
St. John's—Consulate of Portugal, King's Bridge Court, Apartment 2E.
Halifax—Consulate of Portugal, P.O. Box 355.
Montreal—Consulate of Portugal, 4135 Sherbrooke Street West.
North Sydney—Consulate of Portugal, P.O. Box 769.
Saint John—Consulate of Portugal, 4 North Wharf.
Toronto—Consulate of Portugal, 159 Bay Street.
Vancouver—Consulate of Portugal, 1929 West Broadway.

SPAIN

Ottawa—Commercial Counsellor to the Spanish Embassy, 162 Daly Avenue.

SWEDEN

Ottawa—Secretary, Royal Embassy of Sweden, Suite 704, 140 Wellington Street.
Montreal—Trade Commissioner, Royal Consulate General of Sweden, 2055 Bishop Street.
Vancouver—Trade Commissioner, Royal Consulate of Sweden, Dominion Bank Bldg.

SWITZERLAND

Ottawa—Counsellor of Embassy, Swiss Embassy, 5 Marlborough Avenue.
Montreal—Consul General of Switzerland, 1572 McGregor Street.
Toronto—Consul of Switzerland, 100 University Avenue.
Vancouver—Consul of Switzerland, 402 West Pender Street.
Winnipeg—Consul of Switzerland, 200 Blackburn Bldg., 269 Kennedy Street.

THAILAND

Toronto—Consul of Thailand, Suite 600, 199 Bay Street.
Vancouver—Consul of Thailand, 5416 Marguerite Street.

TURKEY

New York—Commercial Counsellor, Turkish Embassy, 551 Fifth Avenue.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

Ottawa—Commercial Secretary, Office of the High Commissioner for the Union of South Africa, 15 Sussex Drive.

UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

Ottawa—Commercial Counsellor, Embassy of the USSR, 24 Blackburn Avenue.

UNITED ARAB REPUBLIC

Ottawa—Commercial Secretary, Embassy of the United Arab Republic, Roxborough Apts., Apt. 66.

UNITED KINGDOM

Ottawa—United Kingdom Senior Trade Commissioner and Economic Adviser to the High Commissioner, 56 Sparks Street.
Edmonton—United Kingdom Trade Commissioner for Alberta and Northwest Territories, Imperial Bank Bldg., Jasper Avenue.
Halifax—United Kingdom Trade Commissioner for the Atlantic Provinces, 65 Spring Garden Road.
Regina—Office of the United Kingdom Trade Commissioner, Derrick Bldg., Room 207, 2431 11th Avenue.
Montreal—United Kingdom Trade Commissioner for Quebec, 1111 Beaver Hall Hill.
Toronto—United Kingdom Trade Commissioner for Ontario, 119 Adelaide Street West.
Vancouver—United Kingdom Trade Commissioner for British Columbia and Yukon Territories, 540 Burrard Street.
Winnipeg—United Kingdom Trade Commissioner for Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Northwest Ontario, 504 Main Street.

UNITED STATES

Ottawa—Commercial Attaché, Embassy of the United States, 100 Wellington Street.
Calgary—Consul of the United States, 501 Toronto General Trusts Bldg.
Edmonton—Consul of the United States, 214 Empire Block.
Halifax—Consul General of the United States, Bank of Nova Scotia Bldg.
Montreal—Consul General of the United States, 1558 McGregor Avenue.
Quebec—Consul of the United States, 1 Ste. Genevieve Avenue.
Saint John—Consul of the United States, 206 Union Street.
St. John's—Consul General of the United States, King's Bridge Road.
Toronto—Consul General of the United States, 360 University Avenue.
Vancouver—Consul General of the United States, Burrard Bldg., 1030 W. Georgia Street.
Windsor—Consul of the United States, Canada Trust Bldg.
Winnipeg—Consul General of the United States, 402 Tribune Bldg.

URUGUAY

Ottawa—Chargé d'Affaires a.i., the Roxborough Apts., Apt. 32

VENEZUELA

Ottawa—Commercial Attaché, Embassy of Venezuela, Roxborough Apts., Apt. 21.
Halifax—Consul, Jack Bldg., Barrington Street.
Montreal—Consul General of Venezuela, 2052 St. Catherine Street West.
Vancouver—Consul of Venezuela, 525 Seymour Street.

THE WEST INDIES, BRITISH GUIANA, AND BRITISH HONDURAS

Montreal—Commissioner for The West Indies, British Guiana, and British Honduras, Suite 200, 1210 Sherbrooke Street West.

YUGOSLAVIA

Ottawa—Embassy of the Federal People's Republic of Yugoslavia, 17 Blackburn Avenue.
Toronto—Consul General of the FPR of Yugoslavia, 377 Spadina Road.

The following nominal quotations may prove useful in checking prices. Canadian traders should consult their banks before making any firm commitments.

Conversions into Canadian dollar equivalent and units of foreign currency per Canadian dollar have been made at cross rates with sterling or the United States dollar on the date shown.

Except when buying and selling rates are specified, the mid rates only are quoted. The buying rate is that at which the banks purchase exchange from exporters. The selling rate is that at which banks sell exchange to importers.

When several rates are indicated, the rate applicable depends on the commodity traded. Information on the rate for any specific commodity may be obtained from the International Trade Relations Branch, Department of Trade and Commerce, Ottawa.

Rates used exclusively in non-merchandise trading are *not* included in the table. For conversion to United States dollar equivalent multiply by 1.0491803.

Foreign Exchange Rates

Country	Unit	Type of Exchange	Can. dollar equivalent Jan. 4	Units per Canadian dollar	Notes (See below)
Argentina	Peso	Free01155	86.58	(1)
Austria	Schilling03670	27.25	
Australia	Pound	2.1358	.4682	
Bahamas	Pound	2.6698	.3745	
Belgium, Belgian Congo and Luxembourg	Franc01909	52.38	
Bermuda	Pound	2.6698	.3745	
Bolivia	Boliviano ..	Free00008342	11,987.53	
British Guiana	Dollar5562	1.80	
British Honduras ..	Dollar6675	1.50	
Brazil	Cruzeiro	General Category*004663	214.47	*Nov. 24 (2)
		Special Category002301	434.59	
		Official selling05038	19.85	(3)
Burma	Kyat2002	4.99	
Ceylon	Rupee2002	4.99	
Chile	Peso	Free0009060	1,103.75	(4)
Colombia	Peso	Certificate1489	6.71	
Costa Rica	Colon	Official1697	5.89	
		Controlled free1433	6.98	
Cuba	Peso9531	1.05	tax 2%
Czechoslovakia ...	Koruna1324	7.55	
Denmark	Krone1381	7.24	
Dominican Republic	Peso9531	1.05	
Ecuador	Sucre	Official06354	15.74	
		Free05431	18.41	
Egyptian Region, United Arab Rep.	Pound	Official	2.7370	.3654	
		Export account selling ..	2.1750	.4598	
El Salvador	Colon3813	2.62	
Fiji	Pound	2.4052	.4158	
Finland	Markka002979	335.68	
France, Monaco, etc.	New Franc1942	5.15	(5)
French colonies ...	Franc003884	257.46	(6)
French Pacific	Franc01068	93.63	(7)
Germany	D Mark2286	4.37	
Ghana	Pound	2.6698	.3745	
Greece	Drachma03177	31.48	
Guatemala	Quetzal9531	1.05	
Haiti	Gourde1906	5.25	
Honduras	Lempira4766	2.10	
Hong Kong	Dollar	Free*1669	5.99	*Dec. 24
		Official1669	5.99	
Iceland	Krona	Official05853	17.08	(8)
India	Rupee2002	4.99	
Indonesia	Rupiah	Official rate02118	47.21	(8)
Iran	Rial01258	79.47	
Iraq	Dinar	2.6688	.3747	

*Latest available quotation date.

Country	Unit	Type of Exchange	Can. dollar equivalent Jan. 4	Units per Canadian dollar	Notes (See below)
Ireland	Pound		2.6698	.3745	
Israel	Pound		.5295	1.89	
Italy	Lira		.001535	651.46	
Japan	Yen		.002648	377.64	
Lebanon	Pound	Free	.3002	3.33	
Mexico	Peso		.07625	13.11	
Netherlands	Florin		.2528	3.95	
Netherlands Antilles	Florin		.5094	1.96	
New Zealand	Pound		2.6698	.3745	
Nicaragua	Cordoba	Effective buying	.1414	6.92	
		Official selling	.1351	7.40	
Norway	Krone		.1334	7.50	
Pakistan	Rupee		.2002	4.99	
Panama	Balboa		.9531	1.05	
Paraguay	Guarani	Official	.007845	127.47	
Peru	Sol	Certificate	.03441	29.06	
Philippines	Peso		.4766	2.10	
Portugal & Colonies	Escudo		.03326	30.07	(9)
Singapore and Malaya	Straits Dollar		.3115	3.21	
Spain and Dependencies	Peseta		.01588	62.95	
Sweden	Krona		.1840	5.43	
Switzerland	Franc		.2203	4.54	
Syrian Region, United Arab Rep.	Pound	Free	.2659	3.76	
Thailand	Baht	Free	.04537	22.04	(8)
Turkey	Lira		.1059	9.44	(8)
Union of South Africa	Pound		2.6698	.3745	
United Kingdom	Pound		2.6698	.3745	
United States	Dollar		.953125	1.0491803	
Uruguay	Peso	Free	.08544	11.70	
		Basic buying	.6289	1.59	(8)
		Principal selling	.4545	2.20	
Venezuela	Bolivar		.2845	3.51	
West Indies Fed.	Dollar		.5562	1.80	(10)
	Pound		2.6698	.3745	(11)
Yugoslavia	Dinar	Official	.003177	314.76	(8)
		Settlement rate	.001508	663.08	

*Latest available quotation date.

Notes

1. Argentina: effective Jan. 1, 1959, a single fluctuating exchange rate was introduced. Exports are subject to retention taxes of either 10 or 20 per cent ad valorem under this system.
2. Brazil: exporters receive cruzeiros at official buying rate of Cr.\$18.36 plus (a) an exchange premium of Cr.\$57.64 per U.S. dollar for coffee, cocoa beans and cake, and castor seeds, and (b) Cr.\$81.64 per U.S. dollar for all other exports except sugar, cotton and cocoa butter, and a few other products, export returns from which may be sold on the free exchange market.
3. For imports of wheat, newsprint and petroleum, the effective rate of exchange is the official selling rate of Cr.\$18.92 per U.S. dollar plus a surcharge of Cr.\$81.08 per U.S. dollar.
4. Chile: free rate applies to exports and to imports, except prohibited imports. Chilean importers must deposit local currency in amounts ranging from 5 to 5,000 per cent, depending on product, prior to shipment of goods.
5. France: territory includes Algeria, Tunisia, Guiana, Guadeloupe, Martinique. The new heavy franc (worth 100 old francs) became effective on January 1, 1960.
6. Equatorial Africa, West Africa, Cameroons, Togoland, Somaliland, Madagascar, Reunion, St. Pierre and Miquelon.
7. New Caledonia, New Hebrides, Oceania.
8. Additional rates are in effect.
9. Portugal: approximately same rate for Portuguese territories in Africa.
10. Barbados, Trinidad, Tobago, Leeward and Windward Islands.
11. Jamaica.

Trade Commissioners at Work

What are the duties of a Canadian Trade Commissioner stationed abroad? How does he help to represent Canada and assist the Canadian businessman? From time to time we plan, through pictures, to show Trade Commissioners carrying out the varied assignments that foreign service provides.

1



1 Attracting the right people to the exhibit is essential if Canadian participation in a foreign trade fair is to be worthwhile. To make sure that prospective buyers will see the Canadian products, the Trade Commissioner frequently holds a reception, after which the guests tour the Canadian section at the fair. Shown here is the Commercial Counsellor in Bonn, West Germany, welcoming his guests at a reception during the ANUGA food fair at Cologne in September. This was Canada's first appearance at ANUGA.

2



2 Making presentations on behalf of Canadian organizations brings the Trade Commissioner in contact with interesting people. On this occasion, the Deputy Consul General (Commercial) (far left) and the Consul General of Canada (centre, right) in New York represented the Toronto Harbour Commissioners. They presented a scroll and a medallion to the Hon. Robert F. Wagner, Mayor of New York (centre, left) in his capacity as mayor of the home port of the S.S. *Extavia*, the first ocean-going vessel of United States registry to reach Toronto after the opening of the St. Lawrence Seaway.

3 As the guest of honour at a special function the Trade Commissioner brings Canada closer to the people of the country where he is stationed. When the town of Tamworth in Australia held its annual Festival of Light, it chose the Canadian Commercial Counsellor to open the ceremonies. Tamworth's festival celebrates the fact that in 1888 it was the first town in Australia to have electric street illumination. Seated behind the Commercial Counsellor are the Mayor and the State Member of Parliament.

4 Helping Canadian businessmen to get the most out of their visits abroad is an important part of the Trade Commissioner's job. Five Toronto businessmen recently toured industry in Liverpool at the invitation of the city's Chamber of Commerce. The Canadian Trade Commissioner (sixth from left) accompanied them on their visits to plants like the one shown above.



3



4

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