### GIDE'S PRINCIPLES OF POLITICAL ECONOMY

ERNEST F. ROW

# PRINCIPLES OF POLITICAL ECONOMY

#### BY

#### CHARLES GIDE

PROFESSEUB AU COLLÈGE DE FRANCE PROFESSEUB HONORAIRE À LA FACULTÉ DE DROIT DE PARIS

AUTHORIZED TRANSLATION FROM THE TWENTY-THIRD FRENCH EDITION BY

ERNEST F. ROW B.Sc. (Econ.)

AUTHOR OF "WORK WEALTH AND WAGES"
"THE ELEMENTS OF ECONOMICS"



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#### TRANSLATOR'S NOTE

This book is a translation of the twenty-third edition of Professor Gide's Principes d'Économie Politique, published in 1921, the first edition having appeared in 1883. In accordance with the plan followed in the English versions of earlier editions of the book, a certain number of modifications and adaptations have been made, with the object of making it more suitable to the needs of English readers. Thus illustrations and statistics drawn from French sources have, wherever possible, been replaced or supplemented by English ones, and in a few cases the text has been slightly abridged by the omission of details relating solely to French economic or legal procedure. But no material alterations or omissions have been made in the author's text without notice being given of them in the footnotes, and all matter for which the translator is responsible — other than English statistics, etc., substituted for French ones — is placed within square brackets.

The translator has made some use of Professor Veditz's English version of the eighth French edition, where the author had left his text unchanged. But this book may be regarded, broadly speaking, as an entirely new work.

It might perhaps be added that sums of money have been converted for the most part into their approximate English equivalents at the pre-war rate of exchange.

#### AUTHOR'S PREFACE

Since the publication of the fourteenth edition this book has been printed from stereotypes, so that it has not been possible to make the alterations necessitated by the great events of the last few years, except in the form of short notes added at the end of the volume.

For the present edition, however, the text has been set up afresh, and this has enabled us to bring the facts and figures up to date, though it has caused much delay in publication.

At the same time we would remind our readers that in this treatise there are practically no statistics, or bibliographical references, or even applied political economy. Those who wish for information on these subjects must refer to the two volumes of the Cours d'Ēconomie Politique.\(^1\) For though we have slightly enlarged the text of this book we have tried to make it retain the character it has had ever since the first edition appeared — now many years ago. We have aimed, not at a statement of new economic theories, or a new social programme, but at giving a clear view of the economic world, so vast, varied, and dramatic. For what this world shows us is not the play of impassive laws, dispensing good and evil fortune to individuals and to nations, but rather the spectacle of the passionate struggles on the one hand and the friendly help on the other, by which men strive to seize the good and shun the evil.

Whatever may be said to the contrary, the Great War and the Russian Revolution caused by it have certainly not proclaimed the bankruptcy of economic science. On the contrary, they have, generally speaking, confirmed, completed, and sometimes rectified, by experiment on the most gigantic scale that has ever been tried, the essential principles of political economy as they have been taught hitherto. They have only brought more clearly into view the injustice and confusion of the existing economic order, and the need for a sustained effort at improvement.

They have led, besides, to an enormously increased interest in economic problems, by showing their importance in the lives of peoples, whether it be the older nations, half ruined, and clinging to the edges of the abyss, or those that have but recently been formed

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> [English translation by C. H. M. Archibald, entitled *Political Economy* (Harrap and Co.)]

and that are seeking to find their way. Many young folks of the generation that is gone, both in France and elsewhere, have found in this book a guide and a friend to introduce these problems to them and to make them love them: I hope it may render the same service to the new generation.

CHARLES GIDE

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## PRINCIPLES OF POLITICAL ECONOMY

#### GENERAL NOTIONS

#### CHAPTER I-ECONOMIC SCIENCE

#### I. THE OBJECT OF POLITICAL ECONOMY

The heavenly bodies, the earth that we inhabit, the elements that it contains, as well as the animals and plants that live on its surface — in fact, all the things that constitute the material universe and all the relations that exist between them — are the subjects of a distinct group of sciences known as the physical and natural sciences.

But in this vast world there are other objects no less worthy of our study, namely, men themselves, living in society; in fact, they could not possibly live otherwise. The relations that unite men socially form the subject of a separate group of sciences, called *social sciences*. As there are among men many kinds of social relations — moral, legal, economic, political, religious, and, finally, linguistic relations which serve as a vehicle for all the others — so there are many distinct social sciences, known as ethics, law, political economy, politics, the science of languages, the science of religions, and so forth.

It is true that the lines of demarcation among the social sciences, which all deal ultimately with man as a member of society, cannot be drawn so sharply as those that separate sciences having dissimilar subjects, such as geology, botany, and zoölogy. Indeed, the frontiers of these sciences, especially of the three most closely related to each other, will always be more or less indefinite: how are we to study exchange, rent, money-lending, or wages, without reference to property, contract, and duty?

But though the economist, the lawyer, and the moralist often meet on the same ground, they look at things from different points of view. To do our duty, to exercise our rights, to provide for our wants, are three quite different aims of human activity; and it is the last of these that is the proper subject of exercise.

We may say, therefore, without trying to be more precise, that political economy has to do with only those relations of men living in society which tend to satisfy their wants and promote their welfare, so far as this welfare depends upon the possession of material objects.

At present there is a tendency to divide the science into two branches: pure political economy, and social economics.

On the one hand, pure political economy (sometimes called also economics) studies those economic relations that arise naturally among men living together, just as one would study the relations arising among any other bodies. It does not undertake to pass judgment on these relations, either from the moral or from the practical standpoint, but simply to explain what they are. Thus it claims to be an exact science, and even to be able to employ the methods of mathematics.

On the other hand, social economics studies rather the voluntary relations which men have established among themselves in the form of social organizations, written laws, or other institutions of any kind, with the object of improving their social conditions. It undertakes to investigate and determine the best means for achieving this end. Hence it partakes rather of the character of the moral sciences, which enquire what ought to be, and of the arts, which enquire what must be done. It is also described sometimes, especially by German economists, as social politics.<sup>1</sup>

This distinction between pure political economy and social politics is made in all special treatises in virtue of the principle of division of labour. But in a treatise written for instruction, like the present volume, it would be rather awkward than otherwise, for the separation of theory from practice would detract from the interest of the exposition. We shall therefore have to deal with social economics as well as with political economy.

The wide field of political economy must itself be subdivided, to

<sup>1</sup> Social economics, or social politics, should not be confused with applied political economy. The latter points out the best practical means of increasing the wealth of a country, such as banks, railways, monetary and commercial systems, and so forth, whereas social economics seeks especially to make men happier by providing them not only with more comfort but with more security, more independence, and more leisure. Consequently it is concerned more particularly with the working classes. These two sister sciences live in two different worlds and are scarcely even on friendly terms: one dwells in the world of business and the other in social reform committees.

Questions of applied political economy are scarcely touched on in this volume: they will be found dealt with in the author's *Political Economy* (Translated by C. II. M. Archibald, M. A.).

make it easier for us to find our way through it. The classical three-fold division into Production, Distribution, and Consumption is due to the French economist, Jean-Baptiste Say. This division corresponds to the three fundamental questions: How do men produce wealth? How do they share it among themselves? What use do they make of it? Then later on there was withdrawn from the immense domain of Production all that has to do with Exchange—commerce, credit, etc.—and to this part was given the name Circulation. But, as we shall see, to exchange is to produce; the only difference is that this kind of production of utilities does not involve material alterations in the object exchanged, as industrial operations do.

On the other hand, most economists have dropped that part of the science which relates to Consumption, because, they say, the question of the use made of wealth is a moral one. Such is not our opinion. The use made of wealth, whether it be consumed or saved, is an economic act of the first importance, and one which is obviously the final cause of all the economic acts which precede it. Political economy, it is true, has hitherto looked almost entirely at the producer, but there is some ground for thinking that the consumer is destined to play the leading rôle on the economic stage.

These divisions of our subject are regarded nowadays as somewhat out of date, and in modern books on political economy they are often replaced by other classifications which aim at presenting the facts in a more scientific form. That plan may have its advantages, but we have not thought it expedient, in a book like this, to upset the traditional framework at the risk of bewildering the students for whom it is particularly intended. We have thought it necessary, however, to add an introductory section concerning Wants and Value.

#### II. THE FORMATION OF ECONOMIC SCIENCE

It was in 1615 that political economy first received the name under which it is now known. This was in a French book by Antoine de Montchrétien, called *Traicté de l'Œconomie Politique*.

This name has been criticised, and many others have been proposed in place of it, as being more scientific. It would obviously be better, from a terminological point of view, if our science were described, like most sciences, by a single word, such as economy or economics, especially since the name economy was already in use in ancient times and one of the books of Xenophon even bears this word as a title. But for the ancients it meant what we may call

domestic economics, or household economy (oloos, household, and  $v\hat{o}\mu os$ , law or rule). The qualifying adjective political, chosen by Montchrétien, indicated that the science had no longer to do with the economy of the household, but with that of the nation, and the name was particularly appropriate because it announced a historic revolution — the establishment of the great states of modern Europe.

But we must beware of regarding this date, which saw the baptism of political economy, as the date also of its birth. As a study of facts, political economy goes back to a far earlier date, and, as a science, which means a systematic arrangement of these facts, it is more modern.

Economic facts, or some of them at any rate, take such a prominent place in the life even of primitive man that we can well believe that they must always have engaged man's attention. Exchange was practised as early as the stone age, and the law of labour is written in the first pages of Genesis. But a fact may be familiar without furnishing material for science. On the contrary, it only arouses curiosity and provokes a desire for explanation if it is something out of the ordinary. The subtle Greek philosophers do not seem to have felt any need to explain to themselves how and why free men were exempted from the law of labour by the institution of slavery: it seemed quite natural to them. But they observed and analysed with extreme care the nature of money, the division of industry into separate trades, and the methods of acquiring property. It was first the prophets of Israel, and, at a later date, the Church Fathers and the Doctors of the Middle Ages who, inspired by the same religious spirit, were impressed by the contrast between wealth and poverty. They condemned luxury, and, in particular, the practice of lending money at interest, which they called usura vorax.

Yet no one ever sought for the connection between these different questions; no one dreamed of grouping them together into a single science. They counted among the accomplishments of the sage rather than of the savant. They were matters of morals, or politics, or theology, and took the form of good advice, offered either to rulers or to individuals.

The discovery of America gave the first impetus, during the sixteenth and especially the seventeenth centuries, to the formation of a true economic theory in a systematic shape; that is to say, what had been merely advice now took the form of a body of co-ordinated and logical precepts. Countries like France, Italy, and England, seeing with envious eyes how Spain was acquiring treasure from her mines in the New World, sought to discover how they too might